INFLUENCE OF INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS ON WORK ENGAGEMENT OF TEACHERS MODERATED BY ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS IN ACHOLI-SUB REGION, UGANDA

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DECLARATION

I, Gilbert Olanya attest that this dissertation is my original work and has never been submitted to any higher institution of learning for any academic award. Every source used in the text is referenced herein.

Signature…… Date……..……

APPROVAL

This dissertation by Olanya Gilbert has been developed with our guidance and is now ready for submission for the academic award.

Signature ……..…… Date…….……

Dr. Okongo Wilberforce (Ph.D.)

Signature …… Date…….

Assoc. Prof. Jacob L. Oyugi

DEDICATION

To my better half, children, and parents, I dedicate this study in appreciation of their love and encouragement, which kept me going.

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I attest that, had it not been for the assistance I received from multiple people, this dissertation would never have been feasible. I am very happy to recognise each of them here. I acknowledge Dr. Wilberforce Okongo and Assoc. Prof. Jacob L. Oyugi, who served as both my supervisors and sources of love, support, and encouragement. I appreciate the effort you expended on me and your expert advice at every stage. I can never be able to reciprocate your devotion. To Assoc. Prof. Godfrey Ejuu, Mr Stephen Kambaza, and Dr David Otto Onen, you deserve special gratitude for the guidance rendered to me. I sincerely thank each and every one of you for your passionate guidance during the course. I humbly beseech the Almighty God to fulfil all of their desires. I extend appreciation to every teacher that offered me information I needed to compile this study. God bless each and every one of you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of primary school teachers moderated by organisational factors in the Acholi sub- region in Uganda. Specifically, the study examined influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of primary school teachers, assessed the influence of organisational factors on work engagement of primary school teachers, and tested the moderating role organisational factors on the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of primary school teachers. Using the correlational research design, data were collected on a sample of 326. Data collected using a self-administered questionnaire was analysed using descriptive statistics, Student's t-Test, ANOVA, correlation, regression and moderation methods. The findings revealed that while teacher absorption was high as well as personal self-efficacy of teachers, dedication and teacher vigour were moderate. For organisational factors, leadership support and social support were fair. Student's t-Test and ANOVA findings showed that while there were discernible differences in work engagement according to gender, age, and position in the school, there were no discernible variations according to education level, marital status and teaching experience. Regression analysis indicated that individual characteristics and organisational factors were positive strong antecedents of work engagement of teachers in primary schools. However, moderation analysis revealed that organisational factors had no moderating role on the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of teachers. It was concluded that individual characteristics are crucial for work engagement of teachers, organisational factors in form of leadership and social support are essential for engagement of teachers, and giving individual characteristics and organisational factors equal emphasis in schools to promote work engagement should not be an overriding factor. Therefore, it was recommended that The Ministry of Education and Sports in collaboration with District Education Officers, head teachers, and other education stakeholders should take into account individual characteristics when designing and implementing teacher support programs, head teachers should prioritise leadership and social support within schools, and the Ministry of Education and Sports, in partnership with education officials and head teachers should strengthen school-level systems that enhance employee engagement.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Work engagement has become incredibly popular in today's workplace because it is thought to be the key component or magic bullet for raising employee performance. This stems from the belief that motivated workers have a psychological bond with their entities or organisations, which motivates them to put in extra effort for the entity's success (Nanteza et al., 2024). The notion has been fronted as a vital element for the success of any institution that enables clear competitive advantage (Schneider et al., 2018). Engaged workers are a key resource for sustained productivity, which has made the concept an element of focus in management circles in an effort to promote performance sustainability (Turner, 2020). In educational institutions, work engagement has become a human resource development strategy believed to enhance the commitment and involvement of teachers in their daily responsibilities (Sekhar et al., 2018). High levels of teacher work engagement are linked to effective teaching support, stronger collaboration with learners, and a favourable interaction that fosters students' positive academic attitudes. This is due to the fact that work engagement is essentially the energy or fuel that motivates each person to act in a way that produces favourable work behaviours and results (Mugizi et al., 2022).

In schools, teacher engagement is important for their success because engaged teachers speak positively about their schools, have the intent to remain in the schools, and put forth additional effort and adopt behaviours that support school success (Wang et al., 2022). Engaged teachers bring their full potential to their jobs and have the motivation to concentrate exclusively on the tasks at hand in the

schools (Zhang et al., 2021). Nevertheless, teachers in remote and difficult-to-reach schools face challenging living and working environments due to poor school infrastructure, financial hardships, and harsh environmental conditions, which lower their levels of engagement (Mugizi et al., 2022).

While existing studies (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Klassen et al., 2013; Perera et al., 2018) acknowledged the importance of teacher work engagement, few had explored how individual teacher characteristics interacted with school-level organisational factors in low-resource, hard-to-access contexts in the post-conflict regions like the Acholi sub-region in Uganda. This study addressed that gap by investigating how teacher engagement in such settings can be enhanced through a nuanced understanding of personal attributes moderated by institutional environments. By examining the interplay between individual and organisational dimensions, the research aims to provide empirical insights that had not been sufficiently explored in similar contexts. The study's unique focus on teachers in remote areas of Acholi presents a novel contribution to the literature and is expected to yield findings that can inform targeted interventions for improving educational outcomes in underserved regions.

1.1 Background

Under this section, efforts are made to historicise the study problem, identify and discuss the theories on which the study was based. The conceptual and contextual perspectives follow. The section begins with the historical roots of work engagement, describes the study's theories, operationalizes the variables, and gives the study context.

1.1.1 Historical Background

At the earliest, the idea of work engagement can be traced in the works of Goffman (1961) in his arguments about the outcome of tasks on a worker's attentiveness. Later on, the notion was taken on by Katz and Kahn (1978) in their discussion of the connection between worker engagement and organisational attainment. Later, Csikszentmihalyi (1982) while describing employee work relationships alluded to it in his "flow" discourse that referred to immersion of an employee's in job tasks (Gupta, et al., 2019). In his article in the Academy of Management Journal, Kahn (1990) was the first to empirically examine the concept of work engagement. Nevertheless, it took another ten years for other academics to take an interest in the subject. According to him, work engagement referred to how individuals in an organisation harnessed their own identities to perform their jobs, using their bodies, minds and emotions to express themselves. He conceived engagement as immersion of one's self in tasks, that is, full self-identification with and involvement tasks.

In the 1990s, the Gallup Research Group an American analytics and advisory company after 25 years of surveys involving managers of multiple companies and their employees coined the term employee work engagement (Schaufeli, 2013). Since then, organisations around the world have emphasised the idea as a crucial factor influencing organisational success (Goodman et al. 2009). According to Bailey (2022), three specific behaviours exhibited by engaged employees are namely say, stay and strive. That is, engaged employees say (talk highly about places where they work to others), stay (show a strong zeal to be part of their work places), and strive (expend effort and become part of the agenda for the entity's excellence). According to Vallières et al. (2017), work engagement describes three

states of an employee that are absorption, dedication and vigour while at work. Accordingly, absorption is the state in which a worker is contentedly lost in their work, finds it difficult to step away from it, and time passes rather quickly. While vigour refers to an individual's volition to persist even when challenged by workplace impediments or to continue to invest energy in the work even when stressed, dedication describes a person's deep involvement in their tasks and feeling of challenge, pleasure, and enthusiasm.

Employee engagement has been shown to be vital for the performance of organisations in annual surveys conducted in Western-world countries. For instance, the Corporate Communication International which conducts annual surveys in the USA and government surveys by European governments consistently have revealed that organisations' success is associated with work engagement strategies implemented because they improve employee performance. The reports show that those entities that appraised work engagement of their workers posted high performance because they enhanced their workers zeal for work and suffered low employee turnover challenges (Osborne & Hammoud, 2017). Nonetheless, a UK implemented review indicated that out that employee engagement was still an issue that bogged down managers of all kinds of organisations whether private, public or non-governmental (Welch, 2011). Indeed, employee engagement globally is a challenge with a recent global survey by the Gallup group revealing that globally 14 percent of employees were actively disengaged while another global survey by Aon PLC a British-American multinational professional services company reported that around 17 per cent of employees were highly disengaged (Firdinata & Hendriyani, 2019).

Worldwide, recently a recurring theme in educational debate in public and research circles is the critical importance of ensuring that ll students have access to highly engaged teachers. This is due to the fact that disengaged teachers have been found everywhere (Perera et al., 2021). Using the USA as an example, a large number of them are quitting their jobs to pursue other endeavours exhibiting lack of dedication to their jobs. Within the first three years of their employment, nearly 25% of newly hired public school teachers quit (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2019). Within five years, a significant percentage of teachers in the United Kingdom (UK) quit their jobs. For instance, the total number of teachers leaving increased by 11% between 2011 and 2014 (Pollard et al., 2017). Since 2010, the number of in the UK had dropped. A worrying trend in the UK is that since 2012, more teachers have quit for reasons other than retirement (Worth et al., 2018). In Europe, north-western nations typically have the most engaged teachers; with the Netherlands at 19% topping the list (Schaufeli, 2017). Thus, the majority of 81% have low engagement levels.

Data from several African countries show a growing trend of low teacher engagement in the profession. In Nigeria, for example, low teacher dedication is evident through high turnover rates, especially at the primary school level, where many teachers are leaving the profession at an alarming rate. For instance, more than 11254 primary school teachers in Kano State's forty-four local government education authorities quit between 2011 and 2016. Teacher turnover is a big problem that negatively affects all schools, public and private, at every level (Umar et al., 2018). Besides, teachers in Nigeria show low dedication to their work. Many teachers arrive late at school and depart early, exhibit laziness, and neglect work

(Demirbilek, 2023). In South Africa, one issue is that skilled teachers are leaving underprivileged rural schools (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019). Furthermore, according to Vermooten et al. (2020), the Ministry of Education indicated in 2012 that South African teachers were on top in absenteeism in the Southern African region. The report indicated that between 2012 and 2017 on average teachers missed 19.7 days of class on average. Concerns about teacher attrition and tardiness were also present.

In the East African region, low teacher engagement levels in school activities are also high. For example, there are reports of widespread teacher absenteeism, tardiness, and failure to evaluate students' work on time in Kenyan schools. There is also a challenge of teachers' part-timing in more than two schools, and engaging in examination malpractices indicating that they were not absorbed and dedicated to their jobs. Teacher school absenteeism rates in Kenya stand at ten per cent. However, teacher absenteeism rates from class are substantially higher than school absenteeism rates at 27 per cent which constitute 37 per cent that is school and class absenteeism combined (Price et al., 2019). Therefore, many present teachers fail to go to class. This shows existence of higher levels of disengagement. Reports of professional misconduct are common in practically every school in Tanzania, from the elementary level to the university. Issues include absenteeism, alcoholism, defilement, cheating examinations, drug abuse, and poor dressing, particularly in rural schools. Every year, between 200 and 300 teachers are dismissed due to misconduct (Mabagala, 2016). This implied that most teachers were disengaged from their work.

Coming to Uganda, the situation of teacher engagement is not any better than that of any other East African country. However, to comprehend engagement of

teachers in Uganda, understanding the past political history of the country is essential. In the colonial days, becoming a teacher required significant work engagement from the time when teaching was introduced as a profession by missionaries in the 1920s (Kagoda & Ezati, 2013). Up to the 1970, teachers produced excellent performance because of high engagement in their jobs but things began to change thereafter. During the turbulent years of the 1970s and 1980s brought on by the unstable government environment, teacher disengagement became a problem, and it still persists. Teachers fail to perform all of their job duties, including managing students, maintaining discipline, and teaching effectively in the classroom, and demonstrate a lack of motivation to do their jobs. There are even teachers who fail to fulfil their duties in a way that impacts students' academic progress (Mugizi et al., 2020).

Among other things, a large number of Ugandan teachers routinely arrive late for work, some barely show up at all, and they have strained relationships with colleagues and superiors. Also, are there are many teachers who hardly prepare lesson plans or work schemes, and they do not offer remedial support to weak students (Zikanga et al., 2021). Mugizi et al. (2019) indicate that among other things, a large number of Ugandan teachers routinely arrived late for work, some barely showed up at all, and they have strained relationships with their colleagues and superiors. Additionally, many teachers hardly make lesson plans and work schemes, and they hardly give academically weak students enough hands-on remediation instruction. Many students in many schools perform poorly on national exams year after year as a result of these pedagogical practices (Zikanga et al., 2021). According to Mugizi et al. (2019), teachers are extremely disengaged, lack motivation to do

their jobs, and neglect their duties, including managing students, maintaining discipline, and being present. They also report that about 15 per cent of teachers in Ugandan schools do not turn up for classes or carry out weekly duty.

Due to the significance of work engagement, studies have sought to identify the factors relating to it. These characteristics include age, gender, educational level, teaching experience, self-efficacy, and personality traits (Inceoglu & Warr, 2011; Llorens et al., 2007; Miao et al., 2017). Other studies have explored the role of job-related resources, leadership styles (Breevaart et al., 2014; Xu & Cooper Thomas, 2011), and psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2007; Carmeli et al., 2009) in shaping engagement levels. However, the interplay on how individual characteristics and organisational contexts influenced teacher engagement, particularly in sub-Saharan African and particularly Ugandan educational settings had not been captured.

This study, therefore, was guided by Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997), which explains how personal factors, behaviours, and environmental conditions interact to shape individual outcomes, and by Perceived Organisational Support Theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), which focuses on how employees' perceptions of their organisation's supportiveness influence their motivation and engagement. Based on these theories, the study examined the influence of individual characteristics, specifically age, gender, education, teaching experience, and self-efficacy on the work engagement of teachers, while considering organisational factors as moderators. These organisational factors included school culture, institutional communication, and perceived administrative support.

Organisational factors were presented as the only moderators because work engagement is not solely determined by individual traits; it is also significantly shaped by the environment in which teachers operate (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli, 2013). Even when teachers possess highly favourable characteristics such as strong educational backgrounds or a high sense of efficacy, their work engagement may be undermined in contexts where school culture is toxic, communication is poor, or institutional support is lacking (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Conversely, a positive organisational environment can amplify the effect of individual traits on engagement (Luthans et al., 2007). This justifies the focus on organisational factors as moderators in this study, since they determine the extent to which individual characteristics translate into actual engagement on the job.

1.1.2 Theoretical Background

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and Perceived Organisational Support Theory (POST) guided this study. Bandura (1997) developed SCT to explain how individuals actively shape their behaviour through the interaction of personal factors, behaviour, and environmental influences. Central to SCT is the concept of self-efficacy, which refers to a person's belief in their ability to successfully perform specific tasks. Bandura posited that individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to be motivated, persist through challenges, and ultimately perform better. In the context of teaching, demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education level, experience, and job position influence teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn affect their job performance (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). SCT

emphasizes that these personal beliefs mediate the relationship between individual traits and observable behaviour, highlighting the psychological mechanisms that underpin performance outcomes. Basing on SCT, this study investigated how individual characteristics related to work engagement of teachers.

Eisenberger et al. (1986) introduced POST. The concept of POS denotes employees' sense that their employer appreciates their work and cares about their welfare (Roemer & Harris, 2018). According to POST, workers are more likely to feel obligated to a company and be committed to their work if they believe the organisation has their interest at heart. When they receive compensation above and beyond what is stipulated in their contracts, workers view their employer as supportive (Viot & Benraiss-Noailles, 2018). Employees who perceive that their employer supports them are more likely to be dedicated, have higher contentment, perform better, and put forth more effort at work. When workers perceive that their employer is supporting them, a sense of reciprocity is created (Scanlan et al., 2018). Perceived Organisational Support comes in various forms such as supportive leadership, social support and recognition for good performance (Eisenberger et al., 2020). Employee dedication to the company and their work increases when they perceive higher levels of support from the organisation which helps the company reach its objectives (Nikhil & Arthi, 2018). Guided by POST, the influence of organisational support in terms of organisational leadership and social support on work engagement of teachers was studied.

1.1.3 Conceptual Background

Work engagement, individual characteristics and organisational factors were the concepts of interest. Defined, work engagement primarily is the experience of strong energy while at work and feeling highly motivated (Green et al., 2017). It is the immersion of workers in their tasks exhibited by ultra-energy, vigilance and readiness to do more for the organisation to help it realise its objectives (Khusanova et al., 2021). Schaufeli (2017) posit that work engagement is the fulfilling work-related state of mind exhibited by three traits that are absorption, dedication and vigour of employees. In this study, operationally work engagement was defined according to Schaufeli et al. (2006) to refer to absorption, dedication and vigour of employees. Absorption denotes an employee's state of mind indicated by immersion in their tasks, complete focus on the tasks and inability to detach themselves from the work (Schaufeli, 2017). Dedication is the devotion to one's tasks while work experiencing a sense of challenge, fulfilment, and inspiration (Vallières et al., 2017). On the other hand, vigour is the ability of workers to endure in the face of challenges at work (Van der Walt, 2018).

Individual characteristics refer to a person's attributes, beliefs and attitudes that drive their decision to towards certain behaviours (Ghiwaa et al., 2023). Chaudhary (2017) indicate that individual characteristics refer to demographic variables and dispositional characteristics of people. Operationally, individual characteristics were defined based on Akinbode (2011) and Chen et al. (2001) to refer to gender, age, education level, marital status, work experience, teacher position and the dispositional factor of self-efficacy. Gender is the social stratification of that designates a person as either male or female and is the attribute

that distinguishes them as individuals or define relationships that exist within the framework of the family. On the other hand, age is the number of years of a person can be by which he or she can be classified for identification; thus, individuals can be classified as young, middle-aged, or old (Mugizi et al., 2015). Education level indicates the academic achievements or qualifications acquired by an individual (Thomas & Feldman, 2009).

Marital status is the characteristic of being married or living together, never married, divorced and widows/widowers (Lindström et al., 2024). Work experience is the duration or tenure of an employee's employment with an organisation and the acquisition of specialised knowledge and information pertinent for work performance (Gilson et al., 2013). Position is the job status that is the appointment or designation of an individual in the organisation's hierarchy (Mugizi et al., 2015). Self-efficacy is people's assessment of their abilities to plan and execute the actions necessary to achieve specific performance goals (Waddington, 2023). Tan et al. (2021) expounds that self-efficacy is one\s conviction that he or can carry out the actions required to achieve particular performance goals.

Organisational support encompasses all those elements that influence the way that the organisation and everybody within it behaves (Zidane et al., 2016). Organisational factors are those characteristics of the organisation that determine conduct at work (Elanain, 2009). Operationally, organisational factors were defined according to Eisenberger et al. (2020) as referring to leadership and social support. Leadership support is the leader's inclination to offer their followers affective, informational, helpful and evaluative support in an empathetic manner, demonstrating liking, caring, and listening (Mourão, 2018). On the other hand,

according to Jolly et al. (2021), social support is the routine actions that convey to a person, either implicitly or explicitly, that they are appreciated and cared for by others. Suryaratri et al. (2020) indicate that social support is the direct or indirect communication between individuals that erases ambiguity on certain matters and helps to offer feelings of personal control in one's jurisdiction.

1.1.4 Contextual Background

The study context was the teachers in primary schools in the Acholi sub-region. The area suffered insurgency of the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) for more than 22 years which ended in the 2000s. Attacks on educational establishments made education integral to this conflict retarding school progress in the area. The effects of conflict on schools still visible indicated by appalling education state of affairs (Beard, 2011). Education challenges in many areas in the sub-region included limited teachers, limited resources and overcrowded schools. Government effort to address education challenges includes state provision of education under the universal primary education. There are also organisations that have invested in education by providing technical and resource support through activities such as teacher training (MacLellan, 2019).

The teachers in the sub-region studied did not expend the required effort in preparing for teaching and mostly conduct ineffective lessons. There were significant disparities between intended instruction time and the time actually spent on teaching, because of lack of commitment and enthusiasm for their work. There is limited commitment to curriculum fidelity by a number of teachers and teacher absenteeism is high and teachers hardly complete the syllabus. Many teachers

exhibited lack knowledge proficiency and adequate pedagogical skills which results from low engagement in their work. In many schools, teachers did not comply with school standards and procedures (Poro et al., 2019a; World Bank, 2020). In the region, many teachers were involved in over drinking of alcohol instead concentrating on their learners. Some teachers in the region had been arrested for being involved in drinking alcohol during work hours (Ayugi & Openytho, 2023).

Teachers in the region were also dissatisfied with their jobs. According to Kamonges (2021), a survey done in 2013 revealed that 47 per cent of the teachers in the region were dissatisfied with their jobs, 59 per cent regretted why they joined the teaching profession and only 16 per cent of hoped to continue at least in the subsequent two years. Hence, a small number of teachers were fully engaged in their work. The above contextual evidence showed that the engagement of teachers in sub-Acholi was low. However, there was lack of primary studies suggesting the correlates of the same. This attracted this study that investigated how individual characteristics influenced work engagement of primary teachers moderated by organisational factors in the Acholi sub-region.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Work engagement is increasingly recognised as a critical determinant of organisational success, including within educational institutions. Engaged employees demonstrate emotional, cognitive, and physical investment in their roles, which enhances organisational effectiveness (Nanteza et al., 2024). In the education sector, highly engaged teachers are more likely to be satisfied with their work, adopt innovative pedagogical practices, and exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours that contribute to effective teaching and positive learning outcomes (Zhang et al., 2021). In recognition of this, the Government of Uganda has implemented several interventions to improve teacher engagement, including timely salary payments, provision of teaching and learning materials, and capacity-building efforts (Poro et al., 2019b). Development partners have also invested in technical and material support through teacher training and school improvement programs (MacLellan, 2019).

Despite these efforts, empirical evidence indicates that teacher work engagement in Uganda, particularly in the Acholi sub-region, remains considerably low. Studies report widespread teacher absenteeism, minimal preparation for lessons, and frequent deviation from scheduled instructional time, reflecting limited commitment and motivation (Poro et al., 2019a; World Bank, 2020). Teachers often fail to adhere to professional standards, with concerns raised about inadequate content knowledge, weak pedagogical practices, and low curriculum fidelity. In extreme cases, behavioural concerns such as alcohol consumption during work hours have been reported, further undermining teacher performance (Ayugi & Openytho, 2023). Alarmingly, 59 percent of teachers in the region expressed regret

over joining the profession, and only 16 percent intended to remain in the field within the next two years (Kamonges, 2021), signalling a crisis in teacher engagement and retention.

However, persistent disengagement among teachers poses a serious threat to educational quality and socio-economic development in the region. Without meaningful engagement, teachers are unlikely to contribute to the instructional and institutional goals required for transforming education in remote and underdeveloped settings. Although prior studies such as those by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), Perera et al. (2018), Klassen et al. (2013), Wang et al. (2022), and Mugizi et al. (2022) had highlighted the consequences of disengagement, there remained limited understanding of how individual characteristics interacted with organisational conditions to influence teacher engagement in such challenging environments. This study therefore sought to address this gap by investigating how individual characteristics influenced the work engagement of primary school teachers, with organisational factors serving as the moderators, within the context of the Acholi sub-region.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of teachers moderated by organisational factors in Acholi-Sub Region, Uganda.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of the study were;

i. To examine influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of primary school teachers in Acholi sub-region.
ii. To investigate assess the influence of organisational factors on work engagement of primary school teachers in the Acholi sub- region.
iii. To test the moderating role organisational factors on the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of primary school teachers in the Acholi sub- region.

1.5 Research hypotheses

The study tested the following hypotheses;

i. Individual characteristics have a significant influence on work engagement of primary school teachers.
ii. Organisational factors on have a significant influence on work engagement of primary school teachers.
iii. Organisational factors have a significant moderating role on the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of primary school teachers.

1.6 Scope of the Study

1.6.1 Geographical Scope

The study focused on primary school teachers in the Acholi sub-region of Northern Uganda, specifically in the districts of Gulu, Amuru, Nwoya, and Omoro. This region experienced over two decades of insurgency by the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA), which severely disrupted education and left long-lasting effects on the schooling system (Beard, 2011). Despite government efforts through Universal Primary Education and support from development partners in teacher training and

school improvement (MacLellan, 2019), many teachers in these districts remained disengaged, characterised by poor lesson preparation, high absenteeism, weak pedagogical skills, and limited curriculum fidelity (Poro et al., 2019a; World Bank, 2020). Incidents of alcohol consumption during working hours have also been reported, leading to arrests and further reflecting professional misconduct (Ayugi & Openytho, 2023). A 2013 survey showed that 47% of teachers were dissatisfied with their jobs, 59% regretted joining the profession, and only 16% intended to continue teaching (Kamonges, 2021). These conditions point to a deep engagement crisis, yet there is limited empirical research on its causes in post-conflict settings. This study therefore examined how individual characteristics influence teacher work engagement in the Acholi sub-region, with organisational factors serving as moderators.

1.6.2 Content Scope

Work engagement of teachers (dependent variable), individual characteristics (independent variables) and organisational factors (moderating variables) were the study variables. Work engagement of teachers was studied in terms of absorption, dedication and vigour. Individual characteristics covered gender, age, education level, marital status, work experience, teacher position and the dispositional factor of self-efficacy. With organisational factors, these were studied in terms of leadership and social support.

1.6.3 Time Scope

This research was conducted in months of February to April 2022. This was because the time horizon of the study was cross-sectional. This time was sufficient for field

entry and data collection. The data collected were presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed.

1.7 Justification of the Study

The decision to undertake this study in the Acholi sub-region was guided by the critical need to understand the complex factors influencing teacher work engagement in post-conflict contexts. The region, having endured decades of civil conflict, continues to face deep-rooted socio-economic and institutional challenges that impact educational service delivery. Conducting research in such environments is strongly recommended by both scholars and development practitioners, particularly to generate evidence that informs targeted and context-specific interventions. Barakat and Milton (2015) emphasize the need for empirical studies in post-conflict areas, arguing that recovery efforts in education must be grounded in a clear understanding of how conflict affects human resources and institutional systems. More recently, Dryden-Peterson (2018) notes that teachers in post-conflict settings face unique psychological and professional demands, often without adequate institutional support. Her work underscores the importance of studying teacher well-being and motivation as foundational components of rebuilding functional education systems.

Shah (2019) also supports this position, stating that the sustainability of education reforms in fragile contexts depends largely on how well the needs and experiences of teachers are understood and addressed through locally relevant research. According to King and Monaghan (2020), ignoring the post-conflict nature of educational environments risks the failure of well-intentioned policies and

programs, particularly when those programs do not consider how trauma, displacement, and social fragmentation affect teacher identity and engagement. In the Ugandan context, the Acholi sub-region presents a clear case for such inquiry. Despite multiple interventions aimed at improving education quality, persistent reports of low teacher motivation, high absenteeism, and poor instructional practices suggest systemic disengagement. These issues are consistent with broader findings in post-conflict areas, where studies such as Williams et al. (2018) have shown that educators often work under strained conditions, with limited resources and emotional support, which negatively impacts their engagement and effectiveness. This study, therefore, addressed a significant gap by examining how individual teacher characteristics interacted with organisational conditions to influence work engagement within the unique socio-cultural and historical backdrop of a post-conflict setting. By focusing on the Acholi sub-region, the study contributed locally grounded insights that support national efforts and international calls to build more resilient and inclusive education systems in fragile contexts.

1.8 Significance of the study

This study holds significant value at theoretical and scientific, policy, and practical levels. Its findings and conceptual insights contribute meaningfully to academic knowledge while offering practical guidance to stakeholders in the education sector. This is as follows:

Theoretically and scientifically, the study advances understanding of teacher work engagement by integrating Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and Perceived Organisational Support Theory (POST). Through this dual-theory lens, it offers a

novel framework that explains how individual characteristics such as age, gender, experience, and self-efficacy interact with organisational factors like leadership and social support to influence work engagement. This enriches the academic discourse by extending these theories within the context of primary education in a low-income setting, thereby addressing a gap in existing literature which predominantly reflects experiences from developed countries. By empirically testing a model that combines personal and contextual variables, the study provides a scientifically grounded foundation for future research on engagement in educational and organisational behaviour fields.

Moreover, the study generates original data within the Ugandan context, offering evidence that is not only locally relevant but also applicable to other similar settings in sub-Saharan Africa. This enhances the global relevance and transferability of the research findings. For future researchers, this study provides a conceptual and methodological base to explore further dimensions of teacher engagement. It contributes to the literature by proposing an empirically tested model, offering validated measures, and identifying key variables that affect teacher motivation and performance. It also opens avenues for comparative studies and longitudinal research that can deepen our understanding of engagement across educational levels and cultural contexts.

To policymakers, including Parliament and the Ministry of Education and Sports, the findings offer evidence-based recommendations that may inform the design of more responsive education policies. Specifically, the results suggest the need for policies that are sensitive to individual teacher characteristics and that strengthen organisational support systems, such as mentoring, leadership

development, and supportive supervision. By incorporating such factors into policy, decision-makers can enhance teacher engagement and, by extension, improve education quality and student outcomes.

To donor agencies and development partners who fund teacher support initiatives, the study offers insights into the types of support most likely to enhance teacher engagement. These findings can help donors allocate resources more effectively, focusing on strategies that address both personal development and institutional support. This ensures that aid contributes meaningfully to sustainable teacher performance and retention.

To education administrators and managers, the study underscores the importance of creating enabling work environments. The evidence supports the view that recognising individual needs and promoting a culture of support and inclusion leads to higher teacher engagement, which is critical for achieving school missions and objectives. Administrators may use these findings to assess current practices and revise policies related to staff motivation and development.

To primary school teachers, the study provides insights into the factors that shape their engagement at work. By identifying how both individual and organisational factors influence their professional commitment and performance, teachers are empowered to reflect on their experiences, advocate for supportive practices, and take initiative in their own professional growth.

1.9 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 1.1 presents the hypothesized relationships among the key variables examined in this study: individual

characteristics, work engagement, and organisational factors. Specifically, the framework posits that organisational factors moderate the relationship between individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers. This conceptualisation is grounded in the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) developed by Bandura (1997) and Perceived Organisational Support Theory (POST) propounded by Eisenberger et al. (1986). Social Cognitive Theory offers a comprehensive lens through which the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement can be understood. Central to SCT is the concept of self-efficacy, which refers to an individual's belief in their capacity to execute actions necessary for desired outcomes (Bandura 1997). In educational settings, teachers with higher self-efficacy demonstrate greater resilience, better classroom management, and improved instructional practices (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy 2001).

SCT highlights that these beliefs are shaped not only by personal factors but also by reciprocal interactions with the environment termed reciprocal determinism where personal traits such as age or experience interact with contextual factors like peer support or school climate to shape behaviour and performance (Bandura 1997; Schunk & DiBenedetto 2020). This theoretical framing supports the study's proposition that individual characteristics alone do not fully account for variations in teacher engagement; rather, they interact with environmental factors in dynamic ways. Complementing this perspective is the Perceived Organisational Support Theory, which asserts that employees' perceptions of the extent to which their organisation values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing significantly influence their work attitudes and behaviours (Eisenberger et al. 1986; Roemer & Harris 2018).

According to POST, when employees perceive high levels of support through leadership, recognition, and social affirmation they feel a greater sense of obligation and emotional attachment to their organisation. This perception of support in turn fosters stronger commitment, satisfaction, and engagement (Stinglhamber & Caesens 2020). In this study, organisational factors such as supportive leadership and social support are conceptualised as moderating variables that either enhance or weaken the influence of individual characteristics on teacher engagement. Together, SCT and POST provide the foundation for examining the interplay between personal and contextual factors in shaping teacher work engagement. While SCT explains how personal beliefs and cognitive evaluations drive engagement, POST elucidates the critical role of organisational environment in sustaining and enhancing that engagement. The conceptual framework served as a guiding model for investigating the causal linkages and interdependencies among the study variables as blow;

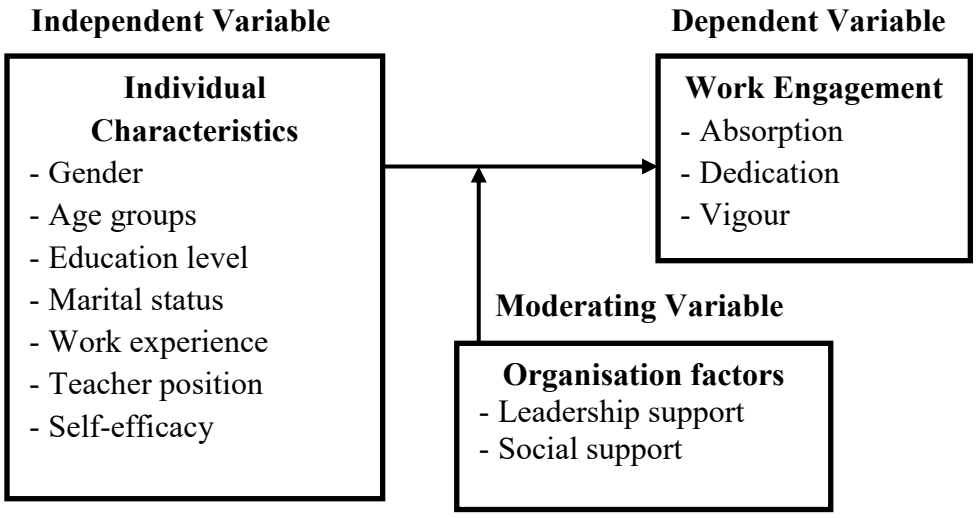

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Conceptual framework developed basing on ideas obtained from Akinbode (2011), Chen et al. (2001), Eisenberger et al. (2020) and Schaufeli et al. (2006)

Figure 1.1 conjectures that individual characteristics moderated by organisational factors influence work engagement. The framework shows that individual characteristics include gender, age, education level, marital status, work experience, teacher position and self-efficacy. The framework shows that work engagement is in terms of employee absorption, dedication and vigour of employees. For the moderating variable of organisational factors, the framework shows that it covers leadership and social support.

1.10 Operational Definitions

Individual characteristics: Operationally, according to Akinbode (2011) and Chen et al. (2001) denoted gender, age, education level, marital status, work experience, teacher position and the dispositional factor of self-efficacy.

Work engagement: Work engagement basing on Schaufeli (2017) operationally in this study referred to absorption, dedication and vigour of employees.

Organisational factors: In this study, operationally organisational factors basing on Eisenberger et al. (2020) referred to leadership and social support.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed explanation of the theories and a comprehensive literature review on individual characteristics and work engagement moderated by organisational factors. The analysis of the literature was organised into subsections based on their respective constructs, as defined in the conceptual framework. The review was organised according the study's objectives.

2.1 Theoretical Review

The Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and Perceived Organisational Support Theory (POST) underpinned this study. SCT was developed by Bandura (1997) to explain how individuals regulate their behavior through the interaction of personal factors, behavior, and environmental influences. Bandura (1997) proposed that a central concept in this theory is self-efficacy, which is a person's belief in their capability to perform specific tasks successfully. Self-efficacy influences how people set goals, how much effort they invest, and their persistence when faced with challenges (Bandura, 1997). According to SCT, individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to demonstrate better performance because they believe in their abilities to achieve desired outcomes. In the context of education, teachers with higher self-efficacy tend to have better classroom management and instructional skills, which positively affects student achievement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Therefore, SCT explains job performance as a function not only of external circumstances but also of how individuals cognitively evaluate their own capabilities (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura (1997) further introduced the concept of reciprocal determinism, which suggests that personal factors, behavior, and the environment influence each other continuously. This means that a teacher's demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education, and experience interact with environmental factors like school culture and peer support to affect job performance (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). For example, a supportive school environment can boost a teacher's self-efficacy and thereby improve their effectiveness (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Conversely, an unsupportive or stressful environment can undermine self-efficacy and reduce performance (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Thus, SCT provides a dynamic framework that captures how individual characteristics indirectly affect job performance through their interaction with environmental and cognitive factors (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Scholars who have applied Social Cognitive Theory to study job performance, particularly in education, include Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and Smith and Lee (2022). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) developed a teacher self-efficacy scale and found that higher levels of self-efficacy were strongly linked to better instructional quality and student outcomes. Their findings supported Bandura's (1997) assertion that self-efficacy beliefs are critical for teaching effectiveness (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). More recently, Smith and Lee (2022) investigated how individual demographic characteristics influence teacher self-efficacy, which then mediates instructional effectiveness in diverse school settings. These studies highlight the continuing relevance of SCT in explaining how

individual differences shape job performance through cognitive processes (Smith & Lee, 2022).

Despite its explanatory power, SCT has certain limitations. Self-efficacy is often measured using self-report instruments that can be subject to biases such as social desirability (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Critics also argue that SCT focuses predominantly on conscious cognitive processes and does not adequately address unconscious emotions or automatic responses that may impact behavior (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). While the theory acknowledges environmental influences, it does not always provide detailed mechanisms for how complex social and cultural contexts affect self-efficacy and performance (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Additionally, the theory may require adaptation when applied in different cultural or organizational settings to maintain its validity and applicability (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020).

Overall, Social Cognitive Theory offers a robust framework for understanding how individual characteristics relate to job performance. It emphasizes that self-efficacy beliefs mediate the relationship between demographic traits and work outcomes, explaining why individuals with similar backgrounds may perform differently based on their confidence in their abilities (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The theory also stresses the ongoing interaction between personal, behavioral, and environmental factors in shaping performance (Bandura, 1997). Studies by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and Smith and Lee (2022) have demonstrated the practical value of SCT in teacher performance research. Despite some limitations, SCT remains one of the most influential theories for investigating how individual characteristics influence performance in

educational and organizational contexts (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Basing on SIT, this study investigated the casual linkages between individual characteristics and teachers work engagement.

POST was propounded by Eisenberger et al. (1986). POS denotes employees' sense that their employer appreciates their work and cares about their welfare (Roemer & Harris, 2018). According to POST, employees are more likely to feel obligated to a company and be committed to their work if they believe the organisation has their interest at heart. When they receive compensation above and beyond what is stipulated in their contracts, workers view their employer as supportive (Viot & Benraiss-Noailles, 2018). Employees who perceive that their employer supports them are more likely to be dedicated, have higher contentment, perform better, and put forth more effort at work. When workers perceive that their employer is supporting them, a sense of reciprocity is created (Scanlan et al., 2018).

POST indicates that POS largely originates from employees' perceptions regarding the sentiments of the organisation to enhancing the quality of their life (Eisenberger et al., 2017). SIT holds that favourable treatment received from organisational units such as supervisors, co-workers, team, or top management may foster an overall perception of organisational support. As supervisors are key agents of the organisation, employees might view favourable treatment from supervisors or, on the contrary as the attitude of the organisation towards them. According to POST, favourable organisational factors enhance POS by making the context and the nature of the work more agreeable and by communicating the organisation's positive regard toward them (Stinglhamber & Caesens, 2020). Based on their assessment of the benefits of their increased work effort, employees satisfy

affective work demands. As a result, workers develop an overall perception of how much the entity appreciates their work and cares about their welfare (Caesens et al., 2019).

Employees who perceive that their employer supports them are more likely to be committed, have higher job satisfaction, perform better, and put forth more effort at work. When workers believe they are supported by the company, a sense of reciprocity is created (Scanlan et al., 2018). Perceived Organisational Support comes in various forms such as supportive leadership, social support and recognition for good performance (Eisenberger et al., 2020). Employee dedication to the company and their work increases when they perceive higher levels of support from the organisation which helps the company reach its objectives (Nikhil & Arthi, 2018). Guided by POST, the influence of organisational support in terms of organisational leadership and social support on work engagement of teachers was studied.

2.2 A conceptual Review of Work Engagement

Work engagement refers to the intense emotional and cognitive connection an individual has towards their job (Shuck et al., 2017). It is widely recognised as a vital factor not only for organisational success but also for individual fulfilment (Mansor et al., 2023). In today's complex work environments, work engagement serves as a key driver of performance even in roles that may not require highly specialised skills. Kuok and Taormina (2017) link low work engagement to diminished productivity and a decline in organisational efficiency and effectiveness, indicating that engagement directly impacts goal attainment. This means

organisations must prioritise fostering engagement to enhance overall productivity. However, this study does not specifically explore the education sector or the Ugandan context, leaving a gap in understanding work engagement among teachers in Uganda.

Liu et al. (2020) argue that an organisation's ability to sustain quality depends heavily on the engagement levels of its teaching staff, highlighting the particular relevance of this construct in education. This underscores the threat low engagement poses to educational quality and reinforces the importance of teacher engagement in delivering quality education. Nevertheless, this study does not disaggregate the different components of engagement or consider individual and organisational factors influencing teachers, creating a gap that this study addresses. Damayanti and Prasetya (2022) emphasise that effective work engagement requires a well-structured organisational system combined with motivated employees willing to overcome challenges. This implies schools must invest in systems and employee empowerment to enhance engagement, demonstrating the organisational role in sustaining engagement. However, their study does not investigate specific engagement levels or factors within primary schools, especially in Uganda, indicating a research gap in this context.

Bhuvanaiah and Raya (2016) found moderate engagement levels among IT workers in India, reflecting that even in dynamic sectors, work engagement may not be optimal. This highlights the need for organisations to understand engagement levels in their specific contexts and to tailor interventions accordingly. Since this study was conducted outside Uganda and in a different sector, it leaves a gap in knowledge about teacher engagement in Ugandan schools, justifying the need for

localized research. Daqar et al. (2019) reported higher engagement among private sector employees compared to government workers in Palestine, revealing that organisational context influences engagement. This finding highlights that structural and cultural differences between sectors impact employee attitudes and commitment. However, their study encompassed multiple organisations and sectors, lacking focus on teachers specifically. This presents a gap regarding teacher engagement levels in Uganda's education sector.

Mugizi et al. (2020) studied in-service primary teachers in Western Uganda and found high vigour and dedication but moderate absorption. This demonstrates variability in the dimensions of engagement among teachers, indicating that some aspects may require more attention than others to improve overall engagement. The gap lies in whether these findings generalise beyond the specific sample studied and across different Ugandan regions and contexts. Rana et al. (2019) found lower dedication compared to other engagement dimensions among Indian telecom employees, which contrasts with Mugizi et al.'s findings where absorption was lower. This highlights that engagement components vary by sector and culture, emphasizing the complexity of engagement as a construct. The gap underscores the importance of examining engagement within the unique context of Ugandan education to understand these differences.

Sharma and Rajput (2021) observed above-average engagement among university professors but their study was conducted outside Uganda. This limits the applicability of their findings to Ugandan primary schools, indicating a geographical gap that this study aims to fill. Sypniewska et al. (2023) found moderate overall engagement among Polish workers but combined engagement dimensions without

distinction. This leaves a gap in understanding the distinct levels of vigour, dedication, and absorption, particularly in Ugandan educational settings. Sudibjo and Riantini (2023) reported high engagement levels among private school teachers in Indonesia, illustrating that certain organisational types may foster greaterengagement. This highlights the potential influence of organisational ownership and environment on engagement levels. However, the external setting creates a gap in evidence relevant to Ugandan public primary schools.

Zhang et al. (2021) found high dedication and absorption but moderate vigour among elementary teachers in Beijing. This contrasts with Mugizi et al. (2020), who reported moderate absorption but high vigour and dedication, and Rana et al. (2019), who found dedication lowest. These differing findings reveal that engagement dimensions operate differently across contexts, underscoring a gap in understanding these dynamics within Ugandan primary schools. Overall, these studies reveal that work engagement varies across dimensions, sectors, and regions. The consistent gaps in geographical limitations, sector-specific differences, and unexplored variations in engagement dimensions highlight the need for this study to investigate how individual characteristics and organisational factors influence teacher engagement in Uganda's primary schools.

2.3 Review of Related Literature

This section presents a review of related literature. The literature is organised according to study objectives. The themes are as follows: individual characteristics and work engagement, organisational factors and work engagement, and individual characteristics, organisational factors and work engagement.

2.3.1 Individual characteristics and Work Engagement

Individual characteristics refer to personal attributes, beliefs, attitudes, and traits that influence an individual's behavioral choices (Ghiwaa et al., 2023). These factors include demographic variables and dispositional traits (Chaudhary, 2017). Jha and Nair (2019) investigated employees in the IT sector within major companies in Rajasthan, India. They found that demographic factors did not have a significant effect on overall employee engagement, indicating that individual demographic differences may not necessarily influence how engaged employees are at work. However, this result contrasts with other studies such as Marcus and Gopinath (2017), Rana et al. (2019), and Sharma et al. (2017), which reported that demographic variables do affect engagement. This inconsistency points to the need for contextual investigation, particularly in different cultural and occupational settings, thus necessitating this study.

Han and Wang (2021) studied the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and work engagement in China and found a strong positive correlation, suggesting that teachers who believe in their capabilities tend to be more engaged in their work. However, their research was limited to correlational analysis and did not establish causal links. This limitation calls for studies using more advanced techniques such as regression analysis to confirm the direction and strength of these relationships, which this study addresses. Marcus and Gopinath (2017) examined IT company staff in South Chennai and found that age significantly influenced employee engagement, while gender did not have a meaningful effect. These results imply that engagement may vary over different life stages but is not necessarily shaped by gender differences. However, these findings contradict Jha and Nair

(2019), who found no demographic variables significantly affected engagement. The lack of agreement among these findings reveals the complexity of demographic influences on engagement and underscores the need for further research, especially within different environments such as Ugandan schools.

Rana et al. (2019) researched telecom sector employees in India and found that all demographic factors except gender had a significant influence on work engagement. This indicates that characteristics like age, education, and tenure might play a critical role in engagement levels. Nonetheless, since the population studied did not include teachers, it remains unclear if these findings apply to educators, highlighting a population gap that this study intends to address within Ugandan primary schools. Sunita et al. (2015) evaluated engagement levels among workers at a web e-commerce company and discovered that personality traits were the only demographic factor significantly influencing engagement. Other demographic variables showed minimal or no impact. This finding contradicts those of Rana et al. (2019) and emphasizes the importance of considering organizational and cultural context when interpreting the influence of demographics. This variation motivates further investigation into how individual characteristics affect teacher engagement in Uganda.

Sharma et al. (2017) explored demographic predictors of work engagement in the Indian IT sector and identified gender and education as significant predictors, while other demographic factors did not have notable effects. This variation from Rana et al. (2019) indicates that demographic influences on engagement may differ even within the same sector, reinforcing the importance of studying these relationships in diverse contexts, including Ugandan schools. Sushmita (2023)

studied employee engagement in India and concluded that demographic factors do impact engagement levels. Despite this, the geographic and cultural differences between India and Uganda limit the direct application of these findings to Ugandan educators, pointing to the need for locally grounded research to understand these dynamics better.

Xiao et al. (2022) used structural equation modelling with teachers in Iran to show a significant causal effect of self-efficacy on work engagement. This finding confirms that believing in one's ability positively influences engagement. However, because this study was conducted outside of Uganda, there remains uncertainty about whether these results can be generalized to Ugandan teachers, justifying the current study's focus. The above literature covers the broad influence of individual characteristics on work engagement, while the next section will explore specific individual traits in greater detail.

2.3.1.1 Sex and Work engagement

Sex refers to the state of being male or female and emphasizes social and cultural distinctions beyond biological differences. Hartman and Barber (2020) explain that roles according sex often shape engagement patterns in the workplace, with men and women experiencing job-family interactions differently. This may affect how engaged employees of different sex are at work. Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) examined Indian business leaders and found significant gender differences in work engagement, indicating that gender plays a role in influencing employee commitment and motivation. This suggests that organisations may benefit from designing gender-sensitive engagement strategies. However, the study was limited

to business leaders in India, necessitating further exploration in other populations and settings.

Shukla et al. (2015) found that female employees in a leading Indian web company demonstrated higher engagement levels than males. This implies that women may possess stronger emotional or cognitive connections to their work in certain sectors. Yet, this contradicts other studies such as Rana et al. (2019), revealing a lack of consensus. Therefore, each study must be interpreted within its context, prompting this investigation in a Ugandan educational setting. Gulzar and Teli (2018), using academic staff in Kashmir, found that female employees were more engaged than males. This points to potential gender-based motivational differences in educational environments. However, as the study was conducted at a university level and outside Uganda, it presents both contextual and population gaps that warrant investigation among primary school teachers in Uganda.

Hrtman and Barber (2020), in a study conducted in the USA, found no significant gender differences in work engagement. This finding indicates that in developed countries with possibly more balanced gender policies, gender may not strongly predict engagement. Nonetheless, the cultural and socio-economic contexts in Uganda differ significantly from those in the USA, requiring local research to draw accurate conclusions. Rana et al. (2019), examining employees in India's telecom sector, found no discernible gender differences in engagement. This suggests that in certain industries, gender may not influence employee involvement. However, as the study was not situated in an educational setting, it leaves a population gap justifying further research among teachers.

Sharma and Rajput (2021) also found no significant engagement differences by gender among Indian university teachers. This reinforces the view that gender may not universally determine engagement levels. However, the academic environment and national context limit generalisability, especially to Ugandan primary schools. Sharma et al. (2017) similarly reported no gender-based differences in engagement among IT workers in India. This could reflect sector-specific equality in job expectations and roles. Yet, as this study was done in a highly technical, non-educational field, it does not account for dynamics in the school system, hence the need for further exploration.

Tshilongamulenzhe and Takawira (2015), in a South African university study, found no gender differences in work engagement. This suggests that gender might not significantly influence engagement in some African academic institutions. Still, the context of higher education differs from that of primary schools, thereby presenting a population gap that this study aims to address. Overall, the reviewed literature reveals inconsistent findings because some studies show sex-based differences in work engagement, while others do not. These contradictions suggest that the influence of sex on engagement may be highly context-dependent. This inconsistency, combined with the lack of research on primary school teachers in Uganda, provides a strong justification for this study.

2.3.1.2 Age and Work Engagement

Age refers to an individual's number of years and is commonly used to classify people as youthful, middle-aged, or elderly (Mugizi et al., 2015). Age has long been a key demographic variable in behavioural and demographic studies. Some scholars

argue that as individuals age, they accumulate experience and knowledge that influence their attitudes and behaviours (Amegayibor, 2021). On the other hand, Douglas and Roberts (2020) observe that there are negative assumptions portraying older workers as less engaged and less adaptable. Despite these views, other perspectives hold that workers above 50 are among the most emotionally and cognitively engaged employees, contributing meaningfully to organisational goals. Therefore, age can influence work engagement, given its links to professional maturity, organisational tenure, and job expectations.

Douglas and Roberts (2020), in a study involving employees in a private aviation and aerospace company in the USA, found that workers over 50 years had significantly higher engagement levels than their younger counterparts. The findings indicated that older employees were more absorbed and devoted to their work, although their vigour levels were comparatively lower. This suggests that emotional and cognitive engagement may increase with age, possibly due to greater work experience or intrinsic motivation. However, because the study was conducted in a developed country, it may not reflect the dynamics within Ugandan schools, thus justifying this study. Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017), examining Indian business executives, found no significant differences in work engagement across age groups. This implies that, in some organisational contexts, engagement may be shaped more by organisational culture or job role than by age. However, the study's context in the Indian corporate sector limits its applicability to the education sector in Uganda, creating a contextual gap that this study addresses.

Mori et al. (2024) conducted a comprehensive review of older workers aged 40 and above and found that work engagement generally increases with age. The

review suggests that older employees often develop deeper commitment to their jobs over time. While this reinforces the view that age influences engagement, the study was a review rather than an empirical investigation, creating a methodological gap that necessitates field-based research. Rana et al. (2019), in a study of employees in the Indian telecom sector, found that engagement varied significantly by age. This suggests that age plays a moderating role in shaping work-related behaviours. However, these findings contradict those of Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) and Douglas and Roberts (2020), highlighting a knowledge gap and lack of consensus in existing literature. These inconsistencies call for further research, particularly in educational contexts such as Ugandan primary schools.

Sharma et al. (2017) reported that engagement levels differed significantly with employees' age, indicating that older employees may bring different levels of emotional investment to the workplace. This is consistent with Sharma and Rajput (2021), who also found substantial variation in work engagement across different age groups among university teachers. Together, these studies point to age as a potentially influential factor. However, both were conducted in India, indicating a contextual gap, especially considering that none of them focused on Ugandan primary education. Shukla et al. (2015) examined employees in a major Indian web company and found discernible variations in engagement according to age. This implies that age could be a predictor of job involvement even in digital or technology-driven environments. However, the study was industry-specific and contextually distinct from the education sector in Uganda, necessitating further research in a local setting.

Zhang and Farndale (2022) used employees from international firms operating in India and found that younger employees showed higher levels of engagement than older ones. This finding contrasts with that of Shukla et al. (2015), creating a contradiction in age-related engagement trends. Such inconsistent findings in similar regional contexts suggest a knowledge gap and highlight the need for studies like the present one to explore these dynamics within Ugandan primary schools. In summary, existing literature presents conflicting evidence on the relationship between age and work engagement. Some studies report a positive relationship, while others find no effect or even negative trends. These contradictions, coupled with the absence of studies in Ugandan primary education, point to the need for more context-specific research, thereby justifying this investigation

2.3.1.3 Education and Work Engagement

Education level or qualifications refer to an individual's academic credentials (Thomas & Feldman, 2009). These qualifications reflect the academic proficiency and capability of a person. For this reason, organisations often use education level as a basis for recruitment and a proxy for skills and productivity. Individuals with higher educational attainment tend to possess deeper analytical abilities and crystallised intelligence. This often enhances their sense of self-worth and belonging, thereby increasing their likelihood of developing positive organisational attitudes, such as engagement (Mugizi et al., 2015). Education also builds confidence and assertiveness, traits that empower individuals to act independently, make informed decisions, and uphold shared values. Because education shapes

values, attitudes, and behaviours, it logically follows that it can play a significant role in influencing employee engagement.

In a study involving Indian business executives, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) found no significant differences in employees' work engagement based on their level of education. This suggests that, within some professional contexts, engagement may be more heavily influenced by organisational culture or individual motivation than by formal academic qualifications. However, this finding contrasts with several others, indicating a lack of consensus. Hakanen et al. (2019), using employees from six European countries, reported that individuals with higher education levels, such as doctorates, exhibited significantly greater work engagement than those with only primary education. The study implies that increased education correlates with deeper professional involvement and commitment. This stands in contrast to Chaudhary and Rangnekar's (2017) findings, thereby revealing a knowledge gap. Given these contradictions, each study must be interpreted within its own context, which created the need for this investigation in Ugandan schools.

Mahboubi et al. (2015), in their study of healthcare workers in Iran, found no significant differences in work engagement according to education level. This indicates that, in some occupational settings, education may not be a dominant factor influencing engagement. However, this study was conducted in a different region and within a healthcare setting, revealing a contextual gap that justified the need for a study conducted within the Ugandan education sector. Sharma et al. (2017), using employees in India, found that work engagement was significantly higher among those with advanced educational qualifications. The study suggests that education

plays a critical role in shaping workplace attitudes and behaviours. In contrast, Sharma and Rajput (2021), studying university teachers in India, found no discernible variations in engagement based on education level. These opposing findings demonstrate inconsistencies even within similar national contexts. Therefore, each study should be evaluated on its own merit. The contradictory results point to a knowledge gap, supporting the need for the current study involving primary school teachers in Uganda. In conclusion, while some research identifies education as a key predictor of work engagement, other studies find no such association. These inconsistencies in findings, along with contextual and methodological differences, highlight the necessity of further investigation. This study seeks to address these gaps within the unique setting of Ugandan primary education.

2.3.1.4 Marital Status and Work Engagement

Marital status refers to the condition of being married, cohabiting, never married, divorced, or widowed (Lindström et al., 2024). It is often argued that marital commitments can reduce one's capacity to meet both personal and professional obligations, as maintaining a family requires substantial time and effort. Working couples, in particular, face difficulties in balancing their responsibilities between work and childcare (Mugizi et al., 2015). According to Çemberci et al. (2022), married individuals and those with children face added life responsibilities, which can lead to work-life imbalance and consequently reduce work engagement. Managing multiple non-work-related duties can create conflicts that affect job focus. This highlights the need for flexible work environments, especially for working

parents, who often face constraints such as inadequate childcare and insufficient time, both of which may hinder their engagement.

Contrarily, some researchers argue that marital status may enhance work engagement. Married individuals may have more stable lives, stronger emotional support, and greater financial responsibilities, leading to higher dependence on employment and increased commitment to work (Çemberci et al., 2022; Mugizi et al., 2015). Çemberci et al. (2022), in their study of white-collar employees in Istanbul with flexible schedules, found that marital status only influenced the absorption aspect of work engagement. This suggests that while marital status may not broadly affect engagement, it may influence how immersed one becomes in tasks. The narrow effect implies that the overall impact of marital status may be minimal or dimension-specific. However, the finding created a knowledge gap since it did not account for the overall engagement experience. This called for a broader investigation in another context such as Uganda.

Chan et al. (2020), studying Malaysian employees in both public and private organisations, found high disparities in work engagement based on marital status. This implies that being married or single could significantly influence one's connection and commitment to work. The findings suggest that personal life structure may play a major role in shaping employee involvement. Nonetheless, the study was conducted in Malaysia, a different cultural and occupational setting, leading to a contextual gap that necessitated this study in Uganda. Köse (2016), using Turkish elementary and secondary school teachers, reported that marital status was not a significant predictor of work engagement. This finding implies that professional engagement may depend more on job-related factors than on personal

life status. However, the conclusion based on Turkish educators may not be generalisable to Ugandan teachers, hence the need for contextual exploration.

Prasad and Sandhyavani (2019) also found no discernable differences in work engagement based on marital status among Indian retail workers. This suggests that in sectors like retail, work dynamics might overshadow the influence of marital status on engagement. However, these results contradicted findings by Chan et al. (2020), creating a knowledge gap that further warranted a separate investigation within a new demographic and occupational context. Sharma and Rajput (2021), using university teachers in India, reported no significant variations in work engagement due to marital status. This suggests that, at least in academic settings, engagement may be influenced by institutional or job-related factors more than by marital condition. However, the setting of the study being Indian universities created a contextual limitation, prompting this study in primary schools in Uganda.

Similarly, Sharma et al. (2017) found no differences in work engagement between married and unmarried individuals. This supports the argument that marital status might not have a meaningful influence across all sectors. However, despite consistency with the study above, its location outside Uganda created a contextual gap that justified the current study. Shukla et al. (2015), in their study of employees in a leading Indian web company, found no discernible disparities in engagement attributable to marital status. This implies that in modern corporate environments, organisational culture or job design may neutralise the potential influence of personal demographics. However, since the study focused on a specific type of company and country, it did not account for engagement in public education systems such as in Uganda, hence this study.

Willmer et al. (2021), in a longitudinal study in Sweden involving women, discovered no significant association between marital status and work engagement. This finding suggests that, over time, changes in marital status may not significantly influence how invested women feel in their work. However, the results derived from a European context may not reflect realities in Uganda, highlighting the need for context-sensitive research. In summary, while some studies have found a connection between marital status and work engagement, others have not. These contradictions, influenced by context, population, and methodology, suggest that no universal conclusion can be drawn. As such, this study sought to investigate the relationship within the specific context of Ugandan primary school teachers.

2.3.1.5 Experience and Work Engagement

Job experience refers to the cumulative number of years an individual has spent in employment (Amegayibor et al., 2021). It reflects the duration of service and the depth of knowledge acquired, which directly influences job performance. Through work experience, individuals gain practical skills, develop maturity, and cultivate decision-making abilities. These cumulative encounters contribute to a broader perspective, enhancing emotional stability and rationality over time. Longer tenure is also associated with stronger organisational commitment, as seasoned employees may feel a deeper connection to their institutions and are more likely to remain in their roles. Conversely, those seeking new opportunities often cite dissatisfaction as a reason for leaving. Therefore, extensive job experience often results in a high level of competence and is presumed to foster stronger work engagement (Mugizi et al., 2015; Amegayibor et al., 2021).

In their study involving white-collar workers in Istanbul, Çemberci et al. (2022) found that work engagement levels differed according to job experience. This implies that more experienced employees are likely to be more engaged due to accumulated expertise and workplace familiarity. The finding sugests a direct relationship between time served and levels of engagement. However, this study focused on flexible-schedule employees in Turkey, indicating a contextual gap. Thus, this study was necessary in the Ugandan context. In contrast, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017), using Indian business executives, found no notable differences in work engagement based on job tenure or experience. This implies that job experience may not always translate into higher engagement, especially in senior or specialised roles. The absence of a clear relationship contradicts the general assumption that tenure enhances commitment. The contradiction between this study and that of Çemberci et al. (2022) highlights a knowledge gap and suggests that findings on the matter are inconclusive. Hence, each context must be studied independently, justifying the present study in Uganda.

In the Indian retail sector, Prasad and Sandhyavani (2019) also reported no significant differences in engagement based on experience. This implie that in fast-paced or transactional environments, experience may not be a strong predictor of engagement. However, the findings contradict those of Rana et al. (2019), who, using employees in India's telecom sector, found that work experience significantly influenced engagement. This contradiction suggests that sector-specific factors might mediate the relationship between experience and engagement. Therefore, these inconsistencies created a knowledge gap, reinforcing the importance of exploring the relationship in a different occupational context such as education in

Uganda. Similarly, Sharma and Rajput (2021), in their study of Indian university teachers, found no notable variations in engagement based on job experience. This suggests that, in academic settings, engagement may be shaped more by institutional culture or workload than by years of service. In support of this, Sharma et al. (2017) also found no disparities in engagement due to experience. While the two studies align, both were conducted in India, implying a contextual gap. The dominance of studies in non-African settings necessitated the current investigation within Uganda's educational context.

Contrary to the above, Shukla et al. (2015), in a study involving employees of a leading Indian web company, reported that engagement levels varied significantly with job experience. This indicates that certain organisational environments may indeed amplify the influence of experience on engagement. However, this finding conflicts with other Indian studies such as Sharma and Rajput (2021) and Sharma et al. (2017). The inconsistency in findings, even within the same national context, points to a knowledge gap and highlights the need for additional studies. Hence, this study was carried out to examine the relationship between job experience and engagement among primary school teachers in Uganda.

Overall, the reviewed studies present mixed findings on the relationship between job experience and work engagement. While some researchers (e.g., Çemberci et al., 2022; Shukla et al., 2015; Rana et al., 2019) found that employee engagement varies with experience, suggesting that accumulated knowledge, familiarity with organisational systems, and emotional maturity enhance engagement, others (e.g., Chaudhary & Rangnekar, 2017; Sharma et al., 2017; Sharma & Rajput, 2021) reported no significant differences, implying that

experience alone may not predict engagement, especially where institutional or cultural factors dominate. The conflicting findings revealed a clear knowledge gap, especially when considering that even studies from the same country (India) yielded contradictory results. Moreover, most of these studies were conducted outside the Ugandan context, highlighting a contextual gap. These gaps necessitated the present study, which focuses on understanding how work experience influences engagement among primary school teachers in Uganda, a population and setting that has been underrepresented in existing literature

2.3.1.6 Position in the School and Work Engagement

Job position results from the existence of a hierarchy in an organisation by which employees occupy different positions identified by different titles, roles, and functions (Mugizi et al., 2015). There are contradicting arguments about job position and employee engagement. One viewpoint is that positions in work environments motivate people to work harder, succeed even more, become more competitive, or catch up. Another argument, however, contends that because of their rise, workers in higher positions may become complacent. Therefore, those in senior roles or high ranks may believe that it would be pointless to get more involved again now that they have reached. On the other hand, those who fail to attain higher positions may become depressed about their work and give up hence low work engagement (Ogunleye & Osekita, 2016). These authors present a conceptual debate where job position may either enhance or diminish employee engagement depending on individual reactions to hierarchy. This shows a theoretical gap, as the influence of position on engagement remains unclear without empirical validation.

According to Rana et al. (2019), workers in higher positions have the privilege of authority, which lets them influence institutional activities significantly and meaningfully. This gives them the chance to express themselves and demonstrate enhanced engagement levels. This study suggests a positive link between job position and engagement through empowerment and influence. However, it assumes uniform behaviour among employees in senior positions and does not account for contextual variables, revealing a theoretical and contextual gap. Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) indicate that higher job position comes with autonomy and control which relate positively with work engagement. Accordingly, high ranking employees are more likely to have interesting roles as well as more liberty in determining how their work is organised. Senior members are in a privileged position to substantially and meaningfully improve the organisation's performance. As a result, it is reasonable to assume that those in positions of authority within the institution will express themselves more deeply and actively. Additionally, those in higher positions within the company have better access to organisational information, which increases their likelihood of feeling invested in the company and exhibiting higher levels of engagement. The authors associate position with structural and cognitive engagement drivers—autonomy, meaningfulness, and access to information. While persuasive, the findings may not be universally applicable across all sectors or cultures, hence a contextual gap exists.

In a qualitative study in the leisure sector, Borkowska and Czerw (2017) indicated that organisational roles performed by employees influenced the way shaped their organisational engagement. Therefore, being in a higher position in the organisational hierarchy provides understanding of the organisation leading to

increased employee engagement. However, this study presented a methodological gap as it was only qualitative. This implied that findings of the study were not generalizable. The study provides useful interpretive insights, but its qualitative nature limits its ability to offer generalisable conclusions, hence a methodological gap exists. In a study done in India involving business executives, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) noted no distinguishable variations in work engagement due to position in organisational hierarchy. This finding contradicts earlier studies, implying that the influence of position may not be universal. However, the study was conducted in a corporate setting, pointing to a contextual gap; the results may not apply to educational institutions such as primary schools.

In their study, Jaworek (2017) used different Polish professionals including teachers looking at variables that included job position, age, and gender. The findings indicated discernible variations in work engagement due to demographics including job position. This suggests job position can influence engagement, but the setting in a developed country limits the transferability of findings to developing countries like Uganda, thus revealing a contextual gap. In their study involving healthcare workers in Iran, Mahboubi et al. (2015) divulged no significant variations in engagement due to position (administrative versus others). While the findings show no position-based difference in engagement, the healthcare sector and Arabian context differ significantly from Uganda's primary education sector, creating a contextual gap.

In a qualitative study involving Spanish workers in the leisure sector, Monje and Calvo (2023) reported disparities in work engagement according to position in the hierarchy of an organisation. However, this study presented a methodological

gap as it was only qualitative. This implied that findings of the study were not generalizable. Again, the qualitative method enriches understanding but lacks breadth, pointing to a methodological gap that justifies further quantitative or mixed-method inquiry. In a study done in India in the telecom sector, Rana et al. (2019) divulged that demographic characteristics including designation significantly affected employee work engagement. However, this study presented a population gap as it involved workers other than teachers. The sectoral context here (telecom industry) is quite distinct from education. Therefore, the results are not directly transferrable to teaching professionals, highlighting a population gap.

Overall, the literature presents divergent views on the relationship between job position and employee engagement. Some studies support a positive influence due to factors such as authority, autonomy, and access to organisational resources, while others show no significant relationship or even negative consequences like complacency or demotivation. Furthermore, many existing studies are limited by methodological (qualitative-only), contextual (developed country or non-education settings), and population (non-teacher samples) gaps. These inconsistencies underline the need for a context-specific, quantitative study to examine how job position influences employee engagement among primary school teachers in Uganda. This study therefore aimed to address these methodological, contextual, and population gaps.

2.3.1.7 Employee Self-efficacy and Work Engagement

Self-efficacy is the people's assessment of their ability to plan and implement measures necessary to achieve specific performance goals (Waddington, 2023). It is

the feeling one has that he or she is competent to carry out the actions required to achieve specific objectives for performance (Tan et al., 2021). Self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to mobilise the motivation, mental resources, and action plans required to meet the demands of a particular scenario. It is the difference in people's emotions, motivations, thoughts, and behaviours. Feelings such as tension, despair, sadness, and worry are linked to low self-efficacy. People who lack self-efficacy tend to have poor self-worth and to be negative about their achievements and personal growth (Carter et al., 2018). Strong feelings of efficacy support cognitive functions and achievement in a range of situations, which include career success and decision-making quality. Those with high self-efficacy view challenging activities as opportunities rather than being something to escape (Hayat et al., 2020).

People's efficacy perceptions impact their degree of motivation, as evidenced by how much effort they will expend in an endeavour and how long they will persist in the face of impediments (Mugizi et al., 2015). This highlights a theoretical link between self-efficacy and work engagement, with individuals' beliefs in their capabilities directly influencing how committed and persistent they are in their tasks. However, the general nature of these observations necessitates empirical verification across specific work contexts. Self-efficacy is a particular, optimistic expectation of success derived from self-belief in one's strength. Efficacious individuals establish demanding goals for themselves, broaden their efforts towards achievement, and promote good change. Efficacy can be increased through four basic sources: task proficiency, simulated learning, social persuasion, and heightened feelings. Task accomplishment is the most powerful means of building efficacy (Chhajer et al., 2018).

Stimulated learning happens whenever one person witnesses another effectively completing a task. Social persuasion occurs when relevant team members communicate their confidence that an individual will succeed in a certain activity. Emotional stimulation briefly increases self-efficacy. Positive practices are implemented by organisations to assist employees achieve efficacy. Efficacy contributes to greater elation and favourable mind-sets improve the workplace, leading to worker participation. Employees with high levels of efficacy are more likely to be absorbed in a given task by putting energy and endeavours into it, implying work engagement. Therefore, employees with high levels of efficacy have a greater likelihood of being absorbed in a given task by investing energy and efforts in it which implies work engagement (Lopez-Garrido, 2023).

Mugizi et al. (2015) expound that workers with a high degree of self-efficacy are inclined to set ambitious targets, take up greater challenges, and attempt to accomplish them. This results in engagement in the work of their organisations. These views collectively point to a consistent theoretical expectation that self-efficacy fosters engagement through motivation, perseverance, and a positive mental outlook. However, most of these explanations are general and demand empirical testing within localised contexts. In a longitudinal field study, Carter et al. (2018) examined the effect of self-efficacy and employee engagement using employees in an Australian financial services firm. Their SEM results indicated existence of positive significant linkages with work engagement. However, this study was done in a developed country with different work dynamics from those of employees in a developing country hence this study involving primary school teachers in Uganda. This presents a contextual gap since findings from a developed

economy may not reflect the motivational or occupational realities of developing country contexts like Uganda.

In their study, Chan et al. (2017) assessed the intermediary effects of job and family obligations and life balance on the connections between self-efficacy and work engagement with Australian workers from various sectors as the respondents. The findings indicated that self-efficacy led to engagement of workers. However, this study was done in a developed country hence this study in a less developed country. This again reinforces the contextual gap as it does not address challenges unique to less developed or rural settings. In a study involving overseas workers based in the United Arab Emirates, Chhajer et al. (2018) evaluated the connection between self-efficacy and performance results. The findings indicated that significant self-efficacy levels strongly predicted higher levels of work engagement. However, this study involved international workers hence did not cover dynamics in rural contexts. This study involved teachers in a rural context. This highlights both a contextual and population gap as the study lacked rural specificity and did not focus on educators.

In their study involving English teachers in China, Han and Wang (2021) assessed the association between the individual component of teachers' self-efficacy and work engagement. Their findings demonstrated that self-efficacy had a substantial association with work engagement. However, this study only stopped at correlation, a preliminary level of analysis. This study extended to the confirmatory level of regression analysis to test cause and effect. This reveals a methodological gap as the original study did not go beyond correlational analysis to confirm causality. In their study, Karagkounis et al. (2020) explored the implications of self-

efficacy and work engagement of healthcare personnel working in Northern Greece. The outcomes showed that self-efficacy was positively linked to rising levels of work engagement. However, this study presented a population gap as it involved health workers. This called for this study that involved primary teachers. This again indicates a population gap, suggesting the need to investigate the self-efficacy–engagement relationship in the education sector. In their study with English teachers in Iran as the study sample, Xiao et al. (2022) investigated the connections between self-efficacy and work engagement. SEM results indicated that employee self-efficacy was a major predictor of their work engagement. However, the context of the study was outside Uganda hence this study. This points to a contextual gap, as cultural, institutional, and socio-economic factors in Iran differ from those in Uganda, thus limiting the generalisability of the findings.

In brief, the reviewed literature provides consistent evidence that self-efficacy is a significant predictor of work engagement. Workers with high self-efficacy tend to be more motivated, resilient, and involved in their roles. However, many of the studies reviewed were conducted in developed countries or in non-educational and urban-based populations, limiting their applicability to primary school teachers in rural Uganda. Further, some studies only explored correlations without confirming causality, indicating methodological limitations. This study therefore sought to fill these contextual, population, and methodological gaps by empirically investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and work engagement among primary school teachers in Uganda

2.3.2 Organisational Support Factors and Employee Engagement

Organisational support encompasses all those elements that influence the way that the organisation and everybody within it behaves (Zidane et al., 2016). Organisational support pertains to the key characteristics of a supportive work environment that can be modified by managers. Organisational support encompasses both tangible and intangible elements. Evident support encompasses work equipment and financial resources, while intangible support involves a stimulating and uplifting work environment (Sharif et al., 2021). Organisational support includes beneficial treatment, incentives and equity provided to employees that lead to favourable outcomes such as high levels of job fulfilment, lower turnover rates, increased devotion, pleasant feelings, and work engagement. Employee support strengthens their faith and conviction that the organisation recognises and rewards their struggles to achieve outstanding outcomes, generating favourable workplace dispositions (Maan et al., 2020). Organisational support entails the employer showing workers how much he or she values their contributions and is concerned about their well-being. This is a social transaction between employees and employers; organisational dedication is the corresponding of employees' dedication to the organisation, nevertheless, it is based on their viewpoints rather than the standpoint of the organisation (Munoz et al., 2023).

Organisational support suggests that the employers' readiness to reward increased effortful working and respond to employees' socio-emotional needs, increase their beliefs about how significantly the organisation values their dedication and is concerned about their existence (Jindain & Gilitwala, 2024). Organisational factors are those characteristics of the organisation that influence

behaviour at work (Elanain, 2009). Such elements might be categorised as operational characteristics, processes, or situations inside an organisation. The design and theory, resource allocation and support services, and communication and coordination processes are all influenced by organisational factors. Organisational variables affect the motivations of incumbents across a system (Cera & Kusaku, 2021). The theoretical literature underscores that both tangible and intangible forms of support influence work engagement by shaping employees' perceptions of fairness, recognition, and care from the organisation. However, these propositions need to be tested within specific contexts and populations.

It has been conjectured that organisational factors including supportive practices and structures influence work engagement (Chathoth et al., 2021). Using employees of Distilleries Limited in Ogun State of Nigeria, Aninkan and Oyewole (2014) examined organisational factors that influence employee engagement. The findings showed a discernable association between organisational factors including leadership and supervisory support with employee engagement. However, this study presented a population gap as it did not involve teachers. This called for this study that involved teachers. The different occupational dynamics between manufacturing employees and teachers limit the generalisability of the findings, thus necessitating population-specific research in educational institutions. In a qualitative study, Chathoth et al. (2021) examined these factors and employee engagement of workers in luxury hotels in Hong Kong and Macao in China. The findings indicated that organisational factors influenced employee engagement. However, this study raised methodological and population gaps. Methodologically, the study was only qualitative which posed generalisation challenges. With respect to the population

gap, the study involved hotel workers whose work dynamics are different from those of teachers hence this study in schools. This highlights the need for both quantitative validation and examination within teaching populations to provide context-relevant findings.

In a study involving managers in Slovak hospitals, Jankelová et al. (2021) examined the link between considered organisational support and work engagement. The findings demonstrated a positive link between support and work engagement. Nonetheless, the population of the study was of health workers whose contextual circumstances are different from those of schools. This thus attracted this study. Given the difference in sector-specific pressures and motivational structures between healthcare and education, a contextual gap is evident. In a study done in a private agricultural machinery company in Bangkok, Thailand, Jindain and Gilitwala (2024) investigated the factors impacting employee engagement of workers. Perceived organisational support was found to have a discernible effect on employee engagement. However, this study presented a population gap as it did not involve teachers. This called for this study that involved teachers. This reinforces the gap in terms of occupational context, justifying investigation among educators.

In their study involving bank staff in India, Nagesh et al. (2019) examined the determinants of employee engagement. The study revealed that organisational support influences employee engagement. However, this study was done outside Uganda and in banks. This led to the investigations of this study. Because financial institutions operate in environments with different structures, goals, and work cultures, the contextual and sectoral differences weaken the relevance of the findings for the Ugandan education sector. In their study in the construction industry

in Malaysia, Othman et al. (2019) assessed predictors of employee engagement. The result demonstrated that all the organisational factors including leadership had a distinguished impact on employee engagement. In a related study involving employees of Nepal Telecom, Prajapati (2022) attempted to uncover the elements influencing employee engagement and the impact of employee engagement on organisational achievement. The study demonstrated that all other organisational antecedents had a substantial and beneficial effect on employee engagement. However, leadership negatively and insignificantly enhanced work engagement. Thus, leadership provided to employees insignificantly contributed to work engagement of employees. However, the two studies produced contradictory findings with respect to leadership and work engagement raising a knowledge gap. Hence, each study needed to be considered from its context. This thus attracted the need for this study. These inconsistencies suggest that leadership as a component of organisational support may vary in impact depending on setting, sector, or organisational culture, reinforcing the necessity of localised investigation.

In a study done in Thailand, Rakthin et al. (2021) explored factors that promoted employee engagement among workers in SMEs. PLS-SEM findings divulged that organisational factors including remuneration and leadership positively influenced employee engagement. Nonetheless, this study also presented a population gap as it did not involve teachers. This called for this study that involved teachers. Using employees of non-governmental organisations in India, Sindhura (2022) examined the association between perceived organisational support and employee engagement. The findings revealed that perceived support from the organisation had a bearing on employee engagement. Conversely, the population of

the study included non-government organisations workers whose contextual circumstances are different from those of schools. This thus attracted this study. These studies, though useful, reflect organisational dynamics outside of formal education and in different countries. Therefore, both contextual and population gaps persist, strengthening the case for studying perceived organisational support among teachers in Uganda. It should be noted that the literature above was on the variable of organisational factors in general, the literature that follows is on organisational factors that were conceived namely, leadership support and social support.

2.3.2.1 Leadership Support and Work Engagement

Leadership support is an approach to management marked by a warm and affable leader who expresses concern for his subordinates' situations, well-being, and necessities (Dayanti et al., 2022). Leadership support pertains to the leader's predisposition to offer passionate, illuminating, crucial, and analytical aid to subordinates, with an emphasis on emotional backing, such as compassion, proof of liking, kindness, and understanding. Leadership support is linked to leadership displaying interest in subordinates and considering their needs and preferences while making choices (Mourão, 2018). Supportive leadership is kind, helpful, harmonic, honest, forthcoming, dependable, secure, social, positive, and cooperative (Arfat et al., 2017). Supportive leaders frequently do small things to convey how their followers' effort is greatly valued. In addition, such leaders treat their followers equally. The leader seeks to provide equal support and attention to all followers. Leadership support focuses on satisfying the needs and welfare of followers while also establishing a pleasant environment for interacting within the

organisation. The needs, welfare, and climate are more focused on social and emotional support, as evidenced by leader behaviour. The leader's conduct might take the shape of being compassionate, kind, attentive, and so forth (Dayanti et al., 2022).

Leadership support is correlated with an array of metrics of employee wellness, including work engagement. Leadership boosts employees' engagement both in direct and indirect ways through strengthening job resources and decreasing workplace expectations (Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020). Supportive leadership encourages collaborative behaviour, creates a pleasant working environment, and provides equal career growth opportunities, resulting in an elevated degree of job engagement (Arfat et al., 2017). The goal of supportive leadership behaviour is to satisfy needs, build good attitudes, and boost follower confidence. These leaders promote followers' fulfilment regarding their needs and well-being. Leaders also strive to establish a welcoming and psychologically helpful work atmosphere for followers (Steinmann et al., 2018). Supportive leaders demonstrate their concern and help followers while also boosting team cohesion. Such leaders involve followers in making decisions, conflict resolution, as well as developing a comfortable work environment, both within the organisation and across teams. Supportive leaders listen to their followers' concerns and demonstrate empathy and concern for these problems. They provide relevant guidance and expertise to help followers solve problems and do an outstanding job (Dayanti et al., 2022).

According to Lin and Ling (2021), supportive leaders offer unconditional backing in return for their followers' labour, incentives, and affective attention. Personal support, esteem support, and job-enabling facilitating support constitute

three dimensions of helpful leadership. Personal and esteem support is exhibited by the leader's attention and reverence for followers' interests, as well as honouring followers' contributions to the organisation. Enabling job support, on the other hand, is demonstrated by encouraging followers to work autonomously, communicating openly, and guiding and assisting followers in completing their assigned duties. Using employees of Distilleries Limited in Ogun State of Nigeria, Aninkan and Oyewole (2014) examined organisational factors that influence employee engagement. The results suggested a strong and significant connection between organisational characteristics, particularly leadership and support from leaders and employee engagement. However, this study presented a population gap as it did not involve teachers. This called for this study that involved teachers. The generalisability of findings from the manufacturing sector to the education sector remains uncertain, making it necessary to study teachers specifically.

In their study, Arfat et al. (2017) studied the consequence of leadership on work engagement levels utilising employees from Pakistan's commercial and public-sector banks. The findings revealed that supportive leadership had a larger favourable influence on workers' work engagement levels. However, their work demands were different from those of teachers hence this study. This further supports the call for sector-specific research in educational institutions. In a study done in Ethiopia and South Korea, Gemeda and Lee (2020) examined antecedents underlying leadership styles and work engagement of ICT professionals. The findings indicated that leadership had a substantial beneficial association with work engagement. However, this study involved ICT professionals which raised a

population gap calling for this study. The nature of ICT work contrasts with teaching roles, underscoring the need for context-specific evidence.

In a study involving top NGOs, Jawad et al. (2023) investigated whether employee behaviour was impacted by leadership support. The findings indicated that leadership support impacted on employee engagement. However, a population gap emerged calling for this study. In a systematic review, Mehrad et al. (2020) examined the effects of leadership on staff engagement. The review revealed that leadership styles and organisational support were imperative organisational factors that led to better outcomes at the workplace including employee engagement. However, this review raised a methodological gap as it was based on secondary sources. This made it necessary for this empirical study to be carried out.

In their study, Othman et al. (2019) attempted to figure out the elements influencing employee engagement in the construction business in Malaysia. The result demonstrated that all the organisational factors including leadership have a favourable and significant association with employee engagement. However, this study was done outside Uganda. This called for this study that was done in Uganda. In a related study involving employees of Nepal Telecom, Prajapati (2022) tried to uncover the elements influencing employee engagement, as well as to investigate the impact of worker engagement on organisational results. The study discovered that all other organisational characteristics had a beneficial and substantial effect on employee engagement. However, leadership had a negative insignificant impact on worker engagement. Thus, leadership provided to employees insignificantly contributed to work engagement of employees. However, the two studies produced contradictory findings with respect to leadership and work engagement raising a

knowledge gap. Thus, each study needed to be considered from its context. This thus attracted the need for this study. The contradictory findings in leadership's effect warrant deeper inquiry into the contextual factors shaping these relationships.

In their study, Rahmadani et al. (2020) investigated how supervisors' engaging leadership increased employees' job outcomes including work engagement. The study featured state blue-collar workers at an Indonesian holding firm in the field of agriculture. The findings showed that engaging leadership predicted work engagement. However, in this study leadership support was obliquely indicated as engaging leadership hence a conceptual gap hence this study. In their empirical analysis, Wang et al. (2023) tested the impact of leadership on employee work engagement using Chinese workers and their managers in a variety of Chinese organizations. The findings divulged that leadership positively influenced employee work engagement. Nonetheless, this study was done in the Chinese environment. This drew this investigation into the Ugandan setting.

In a study done in Pakistan, Zhou et al. (2022) examined impact of leadership on work engagement utilising both academic and non-academic staff from various universities. The results showed that there was a favourable connection between leadership and workforce engagement. However, this study was done in universities posing a population gap as university employees have different work dynamics from those of primary schools hence this study. Collectively, these empirical and theoretical gaps reinforce the need for this study to examine the influence of leadership support on teacher engagement in the Ugandan primary education context.

2.3.2.2 Social Support and Work Engagement

Social support is aid provided by others that has the potential to improve its recipient's welfare. It underlies human and social needs for self-worth, warmth, admiration, identity, a sense of belonging, and safety that can be achieved through connection and interaction with others (Okojie et al., 2023). Social support is the level of support an individual perceives in the external environment (Hu et al., 2019), and is a kind of objective relationship that an individual can perceive. The individual can perceive the emotional experience and satisfaction generated by communication with others, that is the love, care, acceptance, recognition, and respect from others—and the understanding of an individual in society (Liu et al., 2020). Social support consists of information and actions that reassure people they are taken care of, respected, admired, and treasured. It includes the assistance that family, colleagues, and friends offer to alleviate individual distress or confirm that one belongs to a supportive social network. Social support is thus a social relationship system possessed by individuals that fosters the development of their social capacity and provides access to external resources needed to address personal needs (Lin and Sutunyarak, 2023).

Social support also represents one of the occupational resources available to employees to help them manage job demands and execute their tasks productively (Hamouda et al., 2018). It has both preventative and protective functions that can reduce stress. In the workplace, social support is often described as perceived organisational support, viewed as an organisation’s commitment to its people, and comprises two complementary dimensions: perceived support from co-workers and supervisors. In addition to emotional and empathetic support, colleagues also

provide practical help and job-related guidance. Perceived support from supervisors refers to how much employees believe their leaders are supportive and genuinely care about their well-being (Bonaiuto et al., 2022). This type of support helps individuals cope with stress, fosters positive behavioural responses, and increases the likelihood that employees will draw on available resources. Social support enables leaders to influence subordinates' creativity, adapt to contextual changes, and foster intrinsic motivation. Organisational support can also enhance job stability and communication between subordinates and supervisors (Jolly et al., 2021).

Employees working in a supportive environment are more likely to meet organisational goals, as supportive peer relationships create a more enjoyable and productive work atmosphere. As trust and openness grow through these relationships, employees share critical information more freely, which benefits organisational outcomes. Social support is therefore a key factor in both organisational effectiveness and individual achievement, ultimately enhancing work engagement (Okojie et al., 2023). Using employees from an Italian service company, Bonaiuto et al. (2022) tested the role of organisational social factors on work engagement, finding that increased supervisor interaction led to higher work engagement. This finding suggests that frequent supervisor interaction can directly enhance how invested employees are in their jobs. However, this study was conducted in a developed country where work dynamics differ significantly from those in developing countries, thus prompting this study in Uganda. In a related study to better understand the link between social support and work engagement,

Hamouda et al. (2018) studied Egyptian customer service workers and found that supervisor and peer support both influenced work engagement. This implies

that both managerial and peer relationships are central to creating engaged employees in service sectors. However, this study involved bank staff, necessitating a focus on primary school teachers in the current study. Lin and Sutunyarak (2023) explored this relationship among preschool teachers in Beijing and found a positive association between social support and occupational engagement. This means that strong social support networks may improve job dedication even in early education settings. Yet, because this study was conducted in China, which has a very different environment from African developing nations, it called for further investigation among Ugandan primary school teachers. In Nigeria, Olabimitan (2019) investigated how perceptions of social support and work-family conflict influenced work engagement, finding a significant positive relationship. This suggests that perceived support reduces conflict stressors and improves employee commitment. However, this study was limited to preliminary analysis, prompting the current study to extend into confirmatory analysis using regression.

Similarly, Stănescu and Romascanu (2023) in a cross-sectional study involving Romanian workers found that increased social support elevated employees' levels of work engagement. This supports the idea that social backing is crucial in energising employee performance. However, their study spanned multiple workplace types, necessitating a specific focus on primary school environments in this study. In Japan, Takahiro et al. (2023) studied occupational health staff and external counsellors and discovered that work engagement improved as employees perceived more sources of workplace social support. This highlights the importance of a variety of supportive figures within the work setting. Nevertheless, the study took place in a developed setting with more favourable work

conditions, prompting the current investigation in a developing country context. Further, Zhang and Guo (2023) studied Chinese special education teachers and found through structural equation modelling that social support had a measurable impact on work engagement. This finding suggests that social support can be a strategic lever for strengthening professional dedication even in specialized education roles. However, the study's focus outside Uganda justified this study's emphasis on Ugandan primary school teachers to close that contextual gap.

2.3.3 Individual and Work Engagement moderated by Organisational Factors

The interplay between individual characteristics and organisational factors has increasingly become a focal point in understanding what drives employee work engagement. While individual traits such as self-efficacy, age, and gender have been widely studied for their direct impact on engagement (Sulaimiah et al., 2023; Akey-Torku & Dai, 2020), there have also attempts to examine how these individual attributes interact with organisational conditions to either enhance or diminish their effect on work engagement. Organisational factors such as leadership and social support are posited to play a moderating role, influencing the extent to which individual characteristics translate into meaningful employee outcomes (Cenkci & Özçelik, 2015; Sulaimiah et al., 2023).

In a study involving hospital employees in Ghana, Akey-Torku and Dai (2020) evaluated the moderating influence of individual characteristics on the relationship between transformative leadership and work engagement. The data demonstrated the rejection of the hypothesis that both age and working experience impacted the connection between idealised influence and work engagement. The

data also invalidated the hypothesis that the number of years of experience mediated the connection between intellectual stimulation and work engagement. Relatedly, the data disproved the notion that years of experience reduced the association between idealised influence and professional engagement. Overall, the findings indicated that demographic characteristics did not moderate the organisational factors aspect of leadership. This implies that leadership traits may function independently of demographic variables like age and experience in influencing engagement. However, this study only considered leadership and no other organisational support aspects such as social support, hence the need for the current study that examined how demographic characteristics are moderated by both leadership and social support.

In their study, Cenkci and Özçelik (2015) examined whether the link between leadership and work engagement was impacted by the leader's gender. The results demonstrated that the moderating effect of leader gender on the link between leadership and work engagement was modest; hence the hypothesis was not confirmed. This suggests that gender may not significantly influence how leadership affects employee engagement. However, this study was limited to gender as a moderator and did not consider broader organisational dynamics like social support or structural resources, justifying the current study. In their study, Sulaimiah et al. (2023) analysed the impact of self-efficacy, employee engagement, and perceived organisational support on nurses working in health centres across Indonesia. The outcomes showed that self-efficacy and perceived organisational support greatly influenced success. This indicates that the individual factor of self-efficacy, when moderated by organisational support, can substantially impact job performance.

This current study extended that analysis by examining how perceived organisational support moderates the link between individual characteristics and work engagement. Despite the above effort, empirical evidence remains sparse and context-specific, particularly in developing country contexts. This limited empirical attention leaves a knowledge gap that drew the attention of the researcher to undertake the current study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The methodologies that were the basis for data collection, quality checks, processing, analysis and presentation are presented in this chapter. Consequently, appropriate, accurate, and reliable data were presented, analysed, interpreted and discussion.

3.1 Research Philosophy

This study was guided by the positivist research philosophy, originally advanced by Auguste Comte in 1853. Positivism asserts that reality is objective and measurable, and that knowledge is best derived through empirical observation, scientific analysis, and statistical methods (Trompf, 2023). It emphasizes that phenomena in the social world can be studied with the same rigor as those in the natural sciences through hypothesis testing and theory verification. In line with positivist thinking, the study tested hypotheses derived from the theories, namely; Social Cognitive Theory and Perceived Organisational Support Theory, to examine the influence of individual characteristics on teacher work engagement, moderated by organisational factors. Positivism was appropriate for this study because it promotes the use of structured methodologies, quantifiable data, and statistical procedures to determine causal relationships, make predictions, and develop generalizable conclusions (Maksimovic & Evtimov, 2023).

The study assumed the existence of an objective reality that can be uncovered through scientific investigation. It was based on the belief that teacher work engagement and its influencing factors are real and measurable phenomena

that exist independently of the researcher. This aligns with positivist ontology, which posits that a single, observable reality can be studied using standardised techniques and statistical tools (Park et al., 2020).

The study also adopted the epistemological stance that knowledge is objective, quantifiable, and unaffected by the values or biases of the researcher or participants. Knowledge was generated through hypothesis testing using data collected from closed-ended surveys. The study employed descriptive, correlational, and regression analyses to test relationships among variables, ensuring that the findings were based solely on empirical evidence (Maksimovic & Evtimov, 2023). The research report used formal and impersonal language, reflecting the positivist assumption that knowledge is empirical and independent of the researcher. This rhetorical approach ensured the researcher remained detached from the study. The methodological orientation of the study was deductive, where variables were identified, hypotheses formulated, and statistical techniques employed to validate causal relationships. The researcher maintained a clear distance from participants, and structured tools were used to ensure reliability and objectivity in data collection (Park et al., 2020). The study maintained high ethical standards. Participants' rights were protected through informed consent, and confidentiality was upheld in handling their responses. Secondary sources were properly cited, and results were reported in aggregate form using metrics such as means, percentages, correlations, and regression coefficients to preserve objectivity and transparency.

3.2 Research Approach

The quantitative approach which required gathering and analysing numerical data was employed. The quantitative approach is a methodology that involves testing a recognised reality based on theory, utilising statistical techniques to analyse data and generalise the results (Mohajan, 2020). The quantitative approach involves collecting numerical data and applying statistical methods and tools to conduct a methodical analysis of a phenomenon. Quantitative values are used in the study to measure the variables. The study used structured instruments and a well-organized procedure to collect data in a standard format. Data were collected objectively in a systematic way from the sampled respondents as pointed out by Pandey et al. (2023). This helped to tease out patterns producing generalizable findings.

3.3 Research Design

The study adopted the correlational research design by which the researcher collects data for establishing the level of association between or among the variables. The design is essential for obtaining data for establishing relationships between or among variables of interest (Devi et al., 2022). This helped to determine the association between variables, that is the independent and dependent. Correlational studies reveal whether the independent and dependent variables covary or relate to one another (Bloomfield & Fisher, 2019). Using the correlational research design, the study was able to establish helps influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable in a moderated relationship. This was the basis for making statistical inferences.

3.4 Study population

The population for this study included teachers in government aided and private primary school in Acholi sub region as the units of observation and analysis with the schools as the units of enumeration. The accessible population for this study were primary school teachers from both government and private primary schools. The population of teachers were 3764 primary school teachers from the four districts of Gulu, Amuru, Omoro and Nwoya (MOES Teacher Records, 2018). These districts were selected because of continued poor performance of the teachers in Acholi sub region.

3.5 Study Sample

Using the table for sample determination by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the sample size was determined. As indicated in table 1 from a population of 3764 teachers, a sample size of about 351 respondents is recommended. Therefore, the target sample size for teachers was 351 respondents. The selecting of the sample involved multistage sampling. This sampling strategy was preferred because Ary et al (2018) say that in a situation where a specific sample is selected from a very large area, a variety of sampling strategies are needed. To calculate how many teachers there were selected from each distinct and two categories of schools, proportionate sampling was employed. Given the fact that government schools almost had twice the number of teachers in primary schools in each district (Table 3.1), as recommend by Akaninwor (2016), ⅔ (59 teachers) were selected from government schools and ⅓ (29 teachers) was selected from private schools. Stratified random sampling was then used to select respondents from the schools in order to give an equal chance to

all potential respondents to be selected so as to reduce the bias when collecting data, and also increase the validity of the results. Stratification was based on work experience; gender and educational attainment. Out of the 352 questionnaires that were given out, 326 were returned fully completed and were the ones considered for analysis. This made the actual study sample to be 326 respondents giving a response rate of 92.6%, which according to Kumar (2011) was representative enough for research purposes.

Table 3.1: Population and sample

District	Ownership	Teacher population	Target Sample	Actual Sample	Total Sample
Amuru	Government	592*	88	55	79
	Private	110*		24	
Gulu	Government	1200*	88	56	84
	Private	210**		28	
Nwoya	Government	384*	88	55	82
	Private	120**		27	
Omoro	Government	900*	88	56	80
	Private	245**		24	
Totals		**3761**	**352*** **	**326**	**326**

MOES (2018) records

****District HR records***

*****Krejcie and Morgan***

3.6 Sampling Techniques

Proportionate and simple random sampling procedures were used. Proportionate sampling was used to select the number of districts and schools that participated in the study. The teachers from each school were selected randomly selected. Teachers were selected at random using simple random sampling, based on the sampling frame that contained their names (Fricker, 2017). Simple random selection was used

to gather objective data that was typical of the various teachers. This made helped to collect more broadly applicable or generalizable data.

3.7 Measurement of the Variables

The research will use a questionnaire survey to collect data based on already-made instruments adapted from earlier researchers. Since the reliability of variables is secured from the earlier assessment tools, the variables are likely to be valid too.

Table 3.2: Operationalization of Variables, Instrument, their Sources and Reliability

Variable	Nature of variable	Indicators	Scale & item	Source & Reliability
Work Engagement	Dependent	- Absorption - Dedication - Vigour	Ordinal	Schaufeli et al. (2006), α = 0.70 & 0.80
Individual characteristics	Independent	- Gender - Age groups - Education level - Marital status - Work experience - Teacher position	Nominal	Not applicable
		- Self-efficacy	Ordinal	Chen et al. (2001), α = 0.86.
Organisational Factors	Moderator	- Leadership support	Ordinal	McGilton (2010), α = 0.94
		- Social support		Santiago et al. (2023), α = 0.94

3.8 Data Collection Instrument

A Self-Administered (SAQ) was the data collection instrument used to collect data. This was because the study was purely quantitative data. The indicators of the different measures were developed based on earlier instruments used by other scholars (Table 3.2). This is because their validities and reliabilities could be taken for granted but validity and reliability were tested again because of differences in

the samples. The questionnaire comprised a title, cover letter and three sections that are; A, B and C. Section A was on work engagement of teachers, section B on individual characteristics and on organisational factors. Except for the questions on individual characteristics in terms of demographic characteristics which were nominal, all the other questions were ordinal developed based on an ordinal scale of a five-point Likert with one (1) as the worst-case scenario (strongly disagree) and five (5) as a maximum or best-case scenario (Strongly agree).

3.9 Data Quality Control

Data quality involved ensuring that the data collected were valid and reliable. The validity and reliability of quantitative data were attained by carrying out a pilot study using 50 teachers from primary schools that were not part of the sampled ones. Validity results were presented first followed by reliability results.

3.9.1 Validity of the Instrument

The extent to which a tool measures precisely what it is supposed to assess is known as its validity (de Souza et al., 2017). By ensuring that the indicators on the primary variables (independent and dependent variables) in the instruments adhered to the study's conceptual framework, the researcher established the content validity of the instruments (Figure 1.1). The question indicators were validated, and the supervisors' opinions regarding the instruments' indicators' applicability, phrasing, and clarity were solicited. SPSS was then used to compute Exploratory Factor Analysis in order to determine the construct validity for the pilot and the final data. Indicators' loading highly that is above 0.50 were considered valid while indicators indicating low loading and those split loading that is those loading highly more that

once were discarded. This is because indicators loading low were considered weak while split loading indicators were considered complex (Taherdoost et al., 2022). The Factor Analysis results for the final data are presented in relevant sections in chapter four. This helped in attaining validity of the instruments.

3.9.2 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability is a measure of the consistency of the indicators of the data collection instrument (Mohajan, 2017). Using the Cronbach Alpha (α) method offered by SPSS, the reliabilities of the indicators in the different constructs were examined. At the benchmark of $\alpha = 0.70$ and above, reliability was achieved for the indicators in the various constructs (Viladrich et al., 2017). The indicators ensured obtaining of dependable data (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Reliability Chronbach's Alpha Results

Indicators	Number of Indicators	Cronbach's Alpha
Absorption	6	0.895
Dedication	5	0.855
Vigour	6	0.746
Self-Efficacy	8	0.839
Leadership Support	8	0.874
Psych-Social Support	8	0.920

The reliability results in Table 3.3 reveal that the Chronbach's values were above the minimum of 0.70 for both (Viladrich et al., 2017). Hence, the indicators of the different constructs identifying the variables were reliable. Thus, the indicators of the different measures were interrelated or highly correlated hence, collected reliable data.

3.10 Procedure

After the protocol was submitted to the Directorate of Postgraduate Training and Research, ethical approvals were obtained and the researcher proceeded to collect data. The researcher introduced himself to the CAO in each of the four districts and got permission to acquire introduction letters from the DEOs of each district. The DEOs enabled the researcher to access the schools. The researcher distributed the questionnaires to the selected respondents. Constant follow-ups were made physically and by telephone to ensure that the participants responded correctly to the questionnaire given to them. The completed questionnaires were collected after one week.

3.11 Data Management

Data management involved processing and analysing of the data collected. The data were processed to ascertain its accuracy while analysis enabled presenting, analysing and interpretation of the results. The data first processed and then analysed as follows:

3.11.1 Data processing

The data collected was fed into the computer using SPSS Version 26.0. Thereafter, there was detection and treatment of missing data, and outliers, and carrying out diagnostic tests. Diagnostic tests included include normality tests, and linearity. The data were processed as follows:

3.11.2 Missing Data Analysis

Missing data denotes the case in which data is incomplete, that is data values for a single indicator or several indicators were not scored or were incorrectly completed by the respondents. It was necessary to identify and correct these scenarios. This is because, presence of missing data undermines the representativeness of the sample used, leads to bias, and decreases the statistical power of the data by distorting inferences made about the population studied (Tsiampalis & Panagiotakos, 2020). Treatment of missing data depends on the level of how many of them are missing. When in a questionnaire, missing data exceeds 15%; the specific questionnaire (case) is excluded from the data file. Nonetheless, a case may be retained if the overall missing data are below the above threshold. However, if data on a whole construct is missing, it is excluded (Hair Jr. et al., 2021). Missing data in the data collected were as indicated in Figure 3.1.

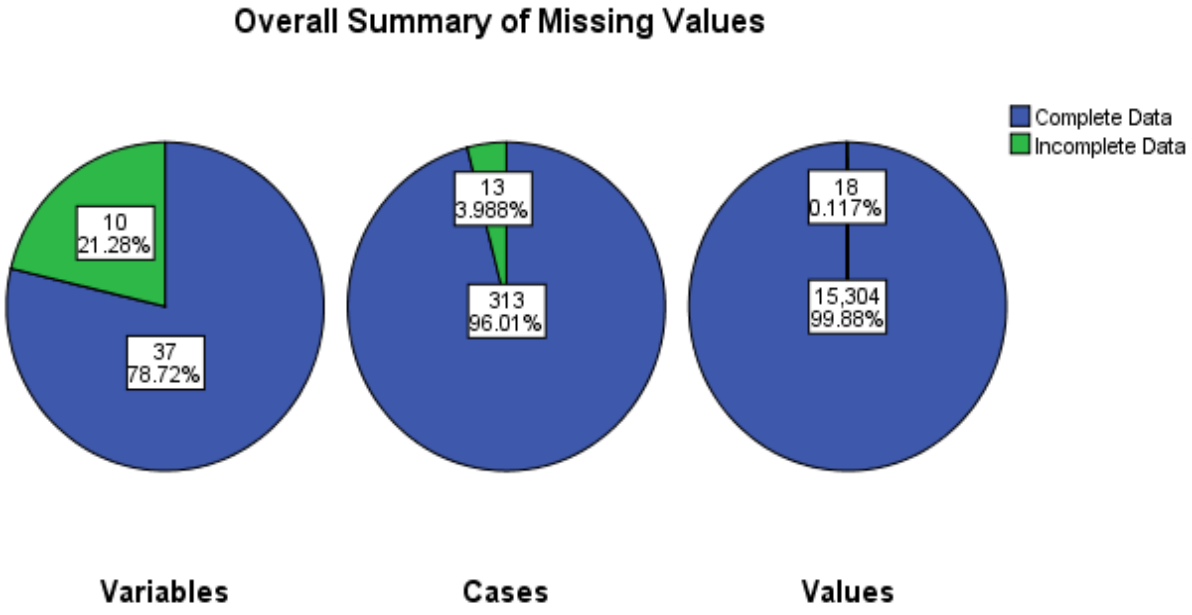

Figure 3.1: Missing Data Analysis

The overall summary of the missing values indicates that 10(21.28%) had incomplete data or missing values with 13(3.988%) having complete data. With respect to the cases, out of 326 respondents, only 71(41.76.55%) had missing data while 99(58.24%) had complete data. The figures also reveal that 18(0.117%) values had missing data while 15,304(99.28%) were complete. Overall, the figures above show that no case (respondent) was dropped because no case had missing data exceeding 15%. Hence, all the data was fit for analysis after replacement of missing data. To determine how to treat missing data, missing data value pattern analysis was carried out (Figure 3.2). The missing value pattern chart reveals the distribution of the missing data from a more detailed view across the study variables.

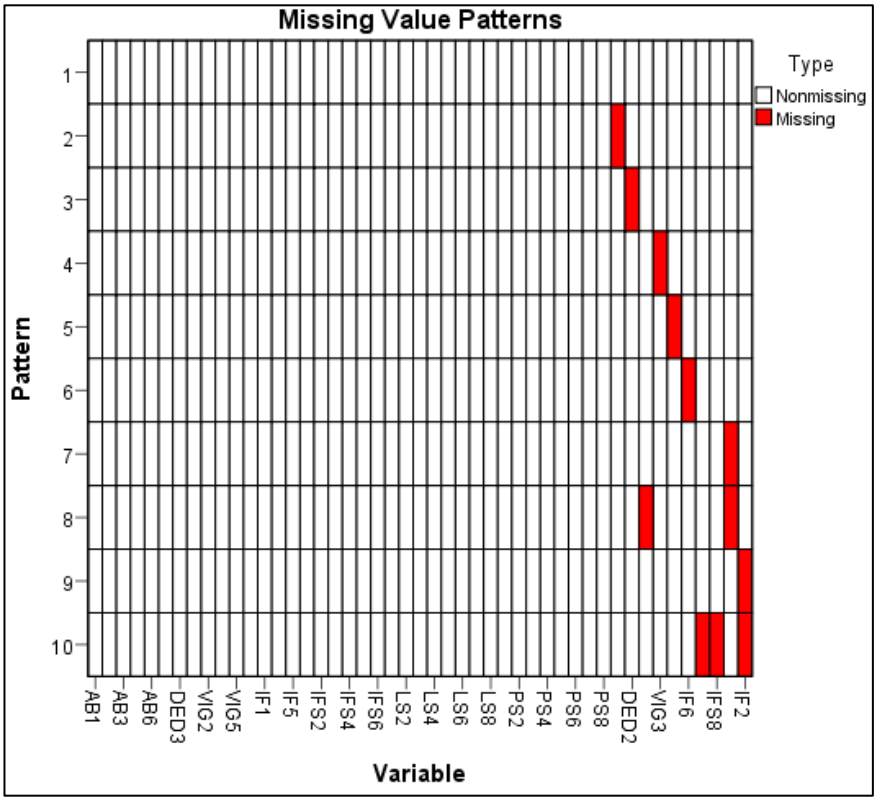

Figure 3. 2: Missing Values Patterns

The data patterns in Figure 3.2 indicate the incomplete data for the different cases that participated in the study. Each pattern is a cluster of cases that had missing values on a particular construct. Nonetheless, as the patterns in figure show, the data that were missing were randomly distributed. Thus, the data were missing completely at random (MCAR). Thus, there were no linkage between the missingness of the data and any values observed. Therefore, nothing systematic was at play that would increase the likelihood of some data being missing compared to others. The statistical advantage of MCAR data is that it does not cause bias during analysis, hence does not compromise statistical power. The remaining data was regarded as a simple random sample of the complete data. The missing values were thus replaced not to reduce the sample size to less than what was planned which could have biased the parameter estimates because of losing information and reducing statistical power (Papageorgiou et al., 2018). The data were replaced by series mean imputation which assumes that the mean of a variable is the suitable estimate for any case with missing data on the variable. If data are missing at MCAR, the method imputes each missing value with the mean of known values for the same variable. This made it possible for the data to be used for further analysis as replacement of data ensured that there was no bias in the data.

3.11.3 Outlier Analysis

Outliers are observations which are different from the majority of other cases in a sample. As such, it is important to identify whether observation is a genuine member of the study sample or a contamination from a different source (Mahatpatra et al., 2020). Ridzuan and Zainon (2022) posit that an outlier exhibits a deviation from the

distribution behaviour of the remainders that make up a statistical sample. An outlier applies to the extreme scores to all questions or extreme response to certain questions (Sabol et al., 2023). In this study, outliers included data values that deviated from the distribution of values in a column of a table. Therefore, handling of outliers provides intriguing insight about the data under investigation and reinforces one's confidence in conclusions obtained from the data set. Hair et al. (2021) opines that the first step to deal with outliers is to identify them. There were two forms of outliers that are those which could be detected visually and the latent ones that were identified using box plots. For those that could be identified using visual search, the data entered into the computer SPSS spread sheet were displayed using frequency tables. The frequency tables were examined to detect extreme values as a result of wrong data entry or error in data entry. The detected outliers were deleted and replaced with correct values after comparing with the original data entered by the respondent on in a cell in the questionnaire. This ensured that outlier data which could have led to exaggerated results were removed. For the latent outliers, boxplots were used to facilitate the identification of outliers by respondent number as indicated in Figure 3.3 to Figure 3.5.

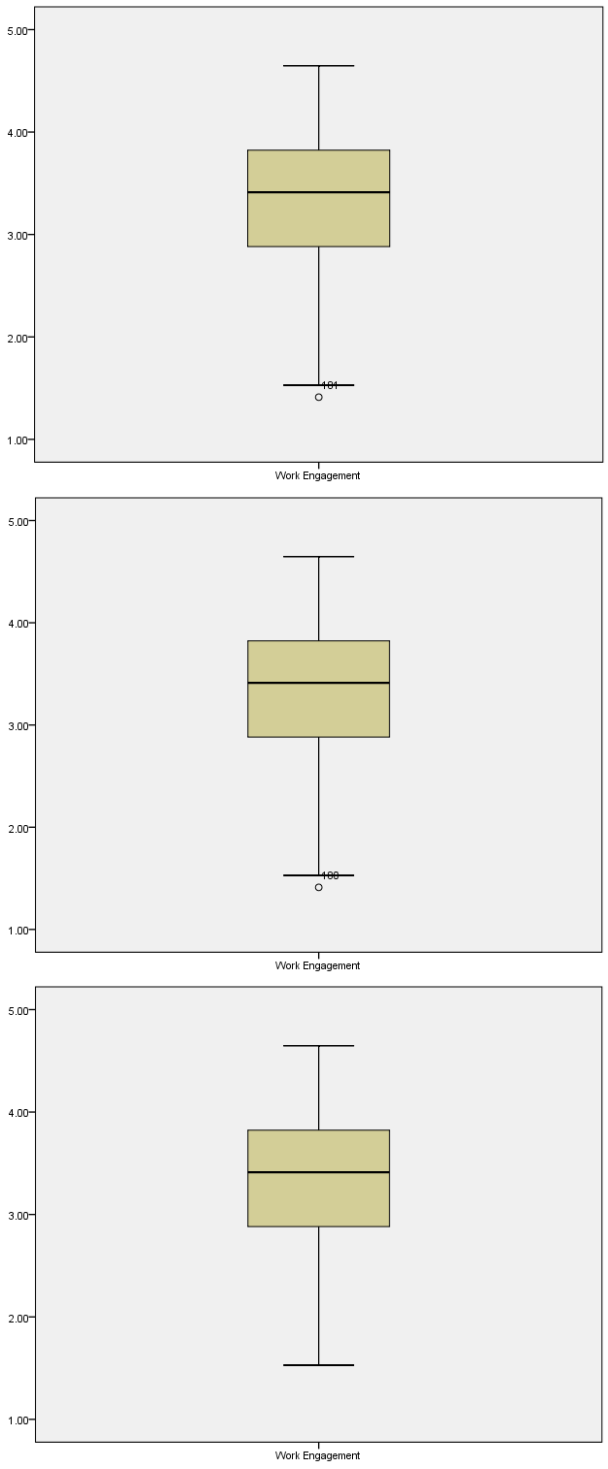

Figure 3.3: Work Engagement

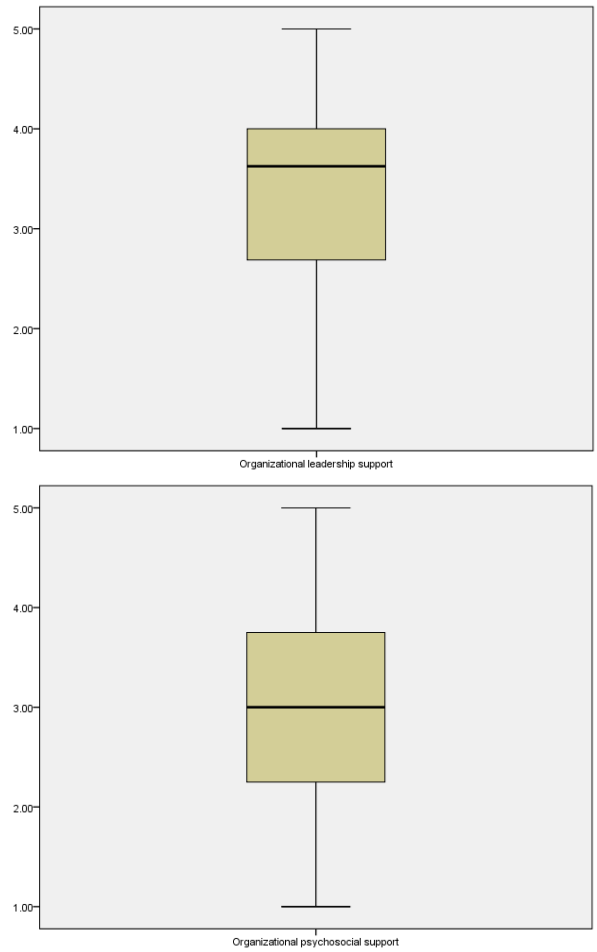

Figure 3.4:Organisational Leadership Support

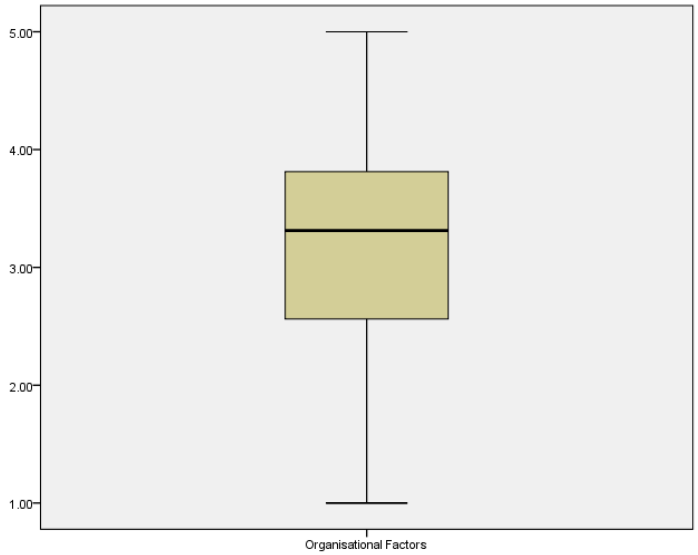

Figure 3.5: Organisational Leadership Support

Boxplots 3.5 show that the variable of work engagement in the first instance had one outlier (case 101) but after its removal, another outlier (case 100) emerged. However, Figure 3.4 shows that after removal of case 100, the variable became clear of outliers. For the variable of organisational leadership support (Figure 8), social support (Figure 9) and organisational factors (Figure 3.5), there were not outliers. After removing outliers, the sample that provided data reduced from 326 to 323. This was very minimal; therefore, it did not affect the sample size.

3.11.4 Parametric Analysis

To ascertain whether data was appropriate for linear analysis, normality and linearity tests were carried out. The normality tests involved drawing a histogram for every construct and variable studied. The histograms displaying normality curves are presented in appropriate sections in chapter four. The linearity tests were carried out using scatter graphs to determine how the results of the independent and dependent variables converged on the line of best fit (β). The variables under investigation specifically organisational support and work engagement of teachers were tested to see if they fulfilled the assumption that is the relationship between the continuously measured variables is linear as shown in Figures 3.6.

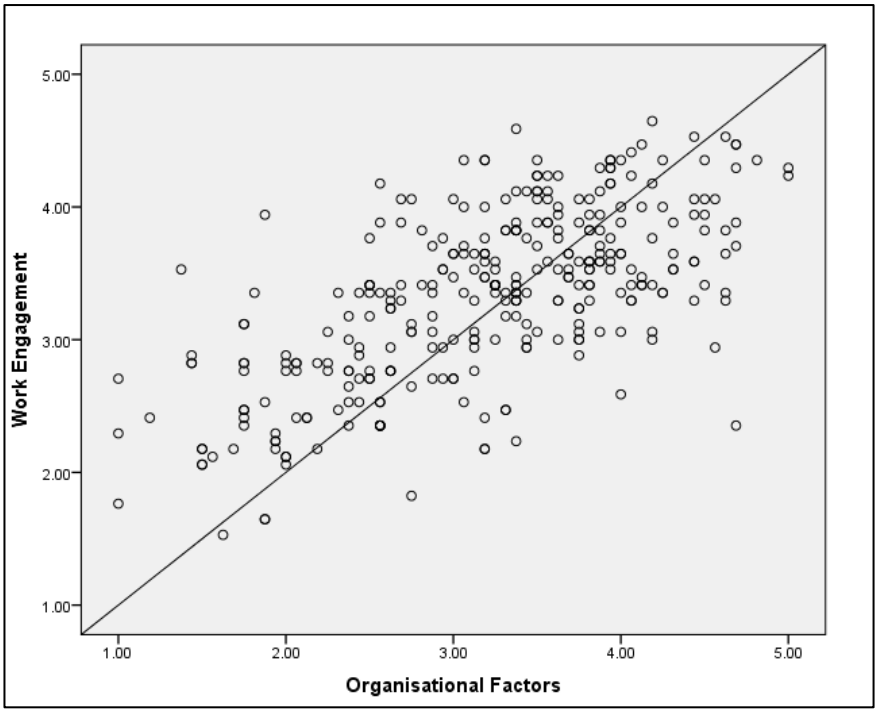

Figure 3. 6: Data Linearity

The above linearity graph (Figure 3.6) shows that while there were some data distant from the line of best fit βeta line [β]), much of the data were concentrated on it hence correlated. Therefore, the data collected were fit for linear analysis and would produce appropriate results. Hence, the data for the variables could be subjected to linear analysis and appropriate results obtained.

3.12 Data Analysis

The study relied exclusively on quantitative data which were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Descriptive statistics including frequencies, percentages, means, and skewness were computed using SPSS, a commonly used software for quantitative data analysis in social science research. For inferential analysis, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-

SEM) was employed due to its capability to model relationships between variables and indicators through a path model (Akter et al., 2017). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to test the study's hypotheses by examining the associations among multiple variables. SEM is a multivariate analytical technique that allows for the investigation of complex relationships between latent constructs and their observed indicators (Hair et al., 2021). The choice of SEM was justified because it enabled the measurement of unobserved variables via their indicators and supported the testing of multiple constructs simultaneously through a path model, thus providing a robust framework for hypothesis testing.

3.13 Ethical Considerations

The study obtained ethical approval from the Gulu University Research Ethics Committee (GUREC) and was duly registered with the Uganda National Council of Science and Technology (UNCST). Throughout the study, fundamental ethical principles were rigorously observed, including informed consent, anonymity, respect for privacy, confidentiality, balancing benefits and risks, accurate reporting, and responsible dissemination of findings. The researcher prioritized clear communication by thoroughly explaining the study's objectives to all participants before requesting their informed consent. Participation was entirely voluntary, and individuals provided signed consent forms as formal confirmation of their willingness to take part. Respondents were assured that their identities would remain anonymous and that their privacy would be respected at all times. The data collected were not linked to any individual respondent but were reported in aggregate form to further protect confidentiality. Participants were also informed that the information

they provided would be used exclusively for academic purposes. The researcher upheld the principle of beneficence by taking measures to minimize any potential risks or harm to participants. Honest and accurate reporting of results was ensured by presenting findings based solely on the collected data without fabrication or misrepresentation. Dissemination of the study findings included publication in international peer-reviewed journals to contribute to academic knowledge responsibly.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

The findings on individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers moderated by information technology use in primary schools are covered in this study. The presentation of the findings begins with the results on teachers work engagement followed by the results on individual characteristics and results for moderation analysis.

4.1 Work Engagement Results

The results for the different work engagement follow. These results are descriptive in nature. Factors analysis results follow after and then summary tables.

4.1.1 Work Absorption

Absorption was identified as the first measure of teachers work engagement and had six indicators (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Descriptive Results for Work Absorption

Work Absorption	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means
When working on my teaching job duties, time flies	8 2.5	25 7.7	40 12.4	143 44.3	107 33.1	3.98
I lose track of anything else when working on my teaching job tasks	15 4.6	45 13.9	38 11.8	148 45.8	77 23.8	3.70
When I am putting a lot of effort into my teaching job tasks, I feel joyful	21 6.5	59 18.3	61 18.9	140 43.3	42 13.0	3.38
I am always engrossed in my teaching in this school	15 4.6	32 9.9	47 14.6	167 51.7	62 19.2	3.71
I forget everything else when I am working on my assignments in this school	15 4.6	34 10.5	37 11.5	180 55.7	57 17.6	3.71
I am insuperable to my teaching job in this school	9 2.8	48 14.9	50 15.5	155 48.0	61 18.9	3.65

The descriptive findings in Table 4.1 on whether time flew when teachers were working their job assignments combined showed that the significant percentage (77.4%) concurred while 12.4% were not sure and 10.2% disagreed. The high mean (3.98) close to code four implied that teachers agreed that time flew when teachers were working their job assignments in the schools. Considering teachers working on their job assignments, the teachers forgot everything else around them, the significant percentage (69.6%) concurred while 18.5% did not and 11.8% were not sure. The high mean (3.70) indicated that the teachers agreed that when working on their job assignments, the teachers forgot everything else around them.

As to whether the teachers felt happy when working intensely on their job assignments in the schools, the greater percentage 56.3% concurred while 24.8% did not and 18.9% were not sure. The moderate (average) mean (3.38) close to code three for undecided implied that the respondents were sure or fairly agreed. This meant the teachers revealed that fairly, they felt happy when working intensely on their job assignments in the schools. With reference to teachers immersing themselves in their work in the schools, the significant percentage (70.9%) concurred while 14.5% did not and 14.6% were not sure. The high mean (3.71) implied that teachers concurred that they were immersed in their work in the schools.

Considering teachers getting carried away when working on their assignments in the schools, the significant percentage (72.2%) concurred while 16.9% did not and 11.5% were not sure. The high mean (3.65) indicated that the teachers ascertained that they got carried away when working on their assignments in the schools. As to whether the teachers found it difficult to detach themselves

from their jobs in the schools, the significant percentage (66.9%) concurred while 17.7% did not and 15.5% were not sure. The high mean (3.65) implied that the teachers agreed that teachers found it difficult to detach themselves from their jobs in the schools. To ascertain whether, the indicators in Table 4.1 were valid and thus measured the work absorption of teachers' component, the indicators were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to confirm their validity. The results are as given Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

Table 4.2: Components/ Factors on Indicators of Work Absorption

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.956	65.941	65.941	3.956	65.941	65.941
2	0.651	10.851	76.792			
3	0.530	8.827	85.620			
4	0.336	5.601	91.220			
5	0.317	5.280	96.501			
6	0.210	3.499	100.000			

The factor loadings in Table 4.2 for the seven indicators on work absorption in Table 4.1 were reduced to as many components/ factors. Nonetheless, only the first factor had an eigenvalue = 3.956 above 1.00. This suggested presence of one factor explaining 3.956/6 x 100 = 65.941% of the combined variance in the six indicators given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Factor Loadings for Work Absorption

Indicators	Component 1
When working on my teaching job duties, time flies	0.801
I lose track of anything else when working on my teaching job tasks	0.803
When I am putting a lot of effort into my teaching job tasks, I feel joyful	0.755
I am always engrossed in my teaching in this school	0.850
I forget everything else when I am working on my assignments in this school	0.824
I am insuperable to my teaching job in this school	0.837

The loadings in Table 4.3 show that all the indicators identifying work absorption were valid because each indicator loaded highly, that is above 0.50 (Taherdoost et al., 2022) on the factor. To offer an overall rating of work absorption levels, an index of the means of absorption was calculated for the six indicators identifying the concept. The summary rating is presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4: Work Absorption Summary Analysis

	Descriptive		Statistic	Std. Error
Absorption	Mean		3.69	0.05
	95% Confidence	Lower Bound	3.60	
	Interval for Mean	Upper Bound	3.78	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.73	
	Median		3.83	
	Variance		0.73	
	Std. Deviation		0.86	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		0.83	
	Skewness		-0.83	0.14
	Kurtosis		0.51	0.27

Table 4.4 indicates a high mean (3.69) close to the median = 3.83 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.73). The high mean implied that the teachers indicated that their work absorption was high and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.1.

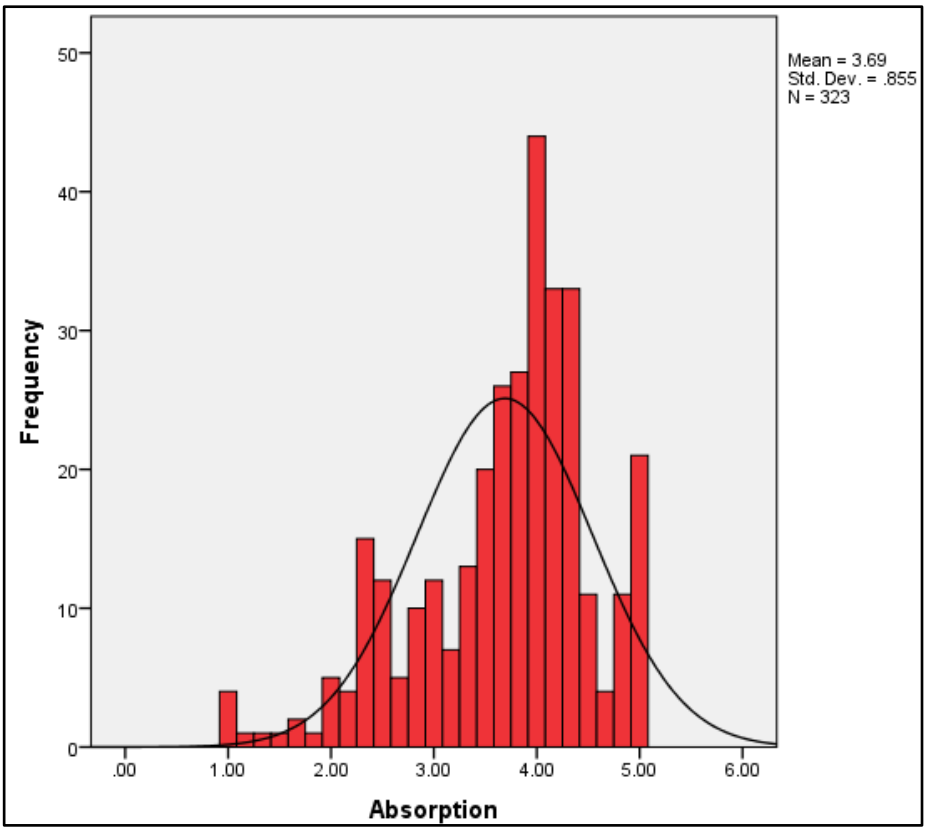

Figure 4. 1: Histogram for Absorption

Figure 4.1 indicates a high mean (3.69) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.86). The high mean indicated that work absorption of the teachers was high while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.1.2 Dedication

The concept of work dedication which was identified as the second measure of teachers work engagement and was studied using five indicators (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Descriptive Results for Work Dedication

Work Dedication	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means
In my teaching job in this school, I perceive a lot of purpose and significance	49 15.2	93 28.8	39 12.1	97 30.0	45 13.9	2.99
Working as a teacher in this school excites me	43 13.3	103 31.9	57 17.6	89 27.6	31 9.6	2.88
I am thrilled with the work I do as a teacher	39 12.1	97 30.0	62 19.2	90 27.9	35 10.8	2.95
I am pleased with the job I engage in at this school	47 14.6	99 30.7	63 19.5	75 23.2	39 12.1	2.88
As a teacher in this school, my job challenges me to work harder	25 7.7	61 18.9	48 14.9	136 42.1	53 16.4	3.41

The descriptive findings in Table 4.5 the first question concerning whether the work of teachers was full of meaning and significance, cumulatively showed that the greater percentage (44.0%) objected while 43.9% concurred and 12.1% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.99) close to code three implied that teachers indicated that fairly, they found the work that they did in the schools full of meaning and purpose. Considering teachers being enthusiastic about their jobs in the schools, the greater percentage (45.2%) objected while 38.2% concurred and 17.6% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.88) indicated that fairly, the teachers were enthusiastic about their jobs in the schools.

As to whether the job teachers did in the schools inspired them, the greater percentage 42.1% objected while 38.6% concurred and 19.2% were not sure. The

moderate mean (2.95) close to code three implied that the respondents fairly agreed that the job they did in the schools inspired them. With reference to the teachers being proud of the work they did in the schools, the greater percentage (42.1%) objected while 38.7% concurred and 19.2% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.88) suggested that fairly, the teachers were proud of the work they did in the schools. Considering teachers finding their jobs in the schools challenging, the greater percentage (58.5%) concurred while 26.6% did not and 14.9% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.41) indicated that teachers indicated that fairly, they found their jobs in the schools challenging. To affirm whether, the indicators in Table 4.5 were valid and thus measured the work dedication of teachers' component, the indicators were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to confirm their validity. The results are as given Tables 4.6 and 4.7.

Table 4. 6: Components/ Factors on Indicators of Work Dedication

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.216	64.327	64.327	3.216	64.327	64.327
2	0.757	15.147	79.475			
3	0.529	10.571	90.046			
4	0.325	6.492	96.538			
5	0.173	3.462	100.000			

Table 4.6 shows that the five indicators for work dedication in Table 4.5 were reduced to as many components/ factors. Nonetheless, only the first factor had an eigenvalue = 3.216 above 1.00. This suggested presence of one factor explaining

3.216/5 x 100 = 64.327% of the combined variance in the five indicators given in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Factor Loadings for Work Dedication

Indicators	Component 1
In my teaching job in this school, I perceive a lot of purpose and significance	0.753
Working as a teacher in this school excites me	0.856
I am thrilled with the work I do as a teacher	0.909
I am pleased with the job I engage in at this school	0.876
As a teacher in this school, my job challenges me to work harder	0.568

The loadings in Table 4.7 show that all the indicators identifying work dedication were valid because each indicator loaded highly, that is above 0.50 on the factor. To offer an overall rating of work dedication levels, an index of the means of dedication was calculated for the five indicators identifying the concept. The summary rating is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Work Dedication Summary Analysis

	Descriptive		Statistic	Std. Error
Dedication	Mean		3.02	0.05512
	95% Confidence	Lower Bound	2.91	
	Interval for Mean	Upper Bound	3.13	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.02	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		0.98	
	Std. Deviation		0.99	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.40	
	Skewness		-0.01	0.136
	Kurtosis		-0.69	0.271

Table 4.8 indicates an average mean (3.02) close to the median = 3.00 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.99). The moderate mean implied that the teachers indicated that their work dedication was fair and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.2.

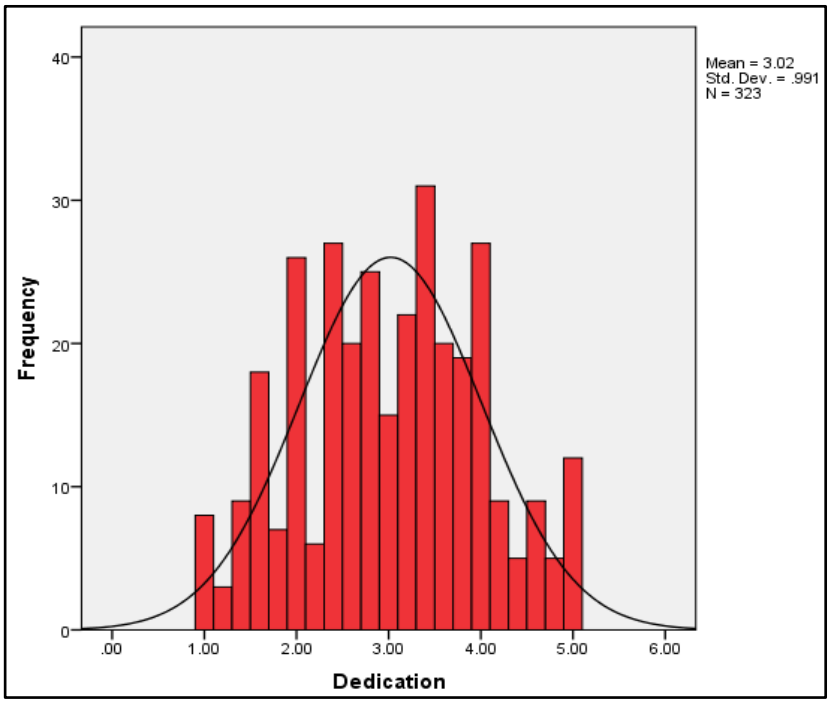

Figure 4. 2: Histogram for Dedication

Figure 4.2 indicates an average mean (3.02) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.99). The moderate mean showed that work dedication of the teachers was fair while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.1.3 Vigour

The concept of work vigour which was identified as the third measure of teachers work engagement and was studied using five indicators (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: Descriptive Results for Work Vigour

Work Vigour	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means
I am always bursting with energy when on my teaching job	49 15.2	97 30.0	51 15.8	100 31.0	26 8.0	2.87
Whenever working on my job, I feel energised and powerful	11 3.4	36 11.1	24 7.4	161 49.8	91 28.2	3.88
Every morning when I wake up, I look forward to working on my school tasks	29 9.0	97 30.0	53 16.4	96 29.7	48 14.9	3.11
When on my teaching job, I work for extended amounts of time	12 3.7	47 14.6	27 8.4	166 51.4	71 22.0	3.73
I am mentally resilient hence performing m teaching effectively	61 18.9	97 30.0	54 16.7	77 23.8	34 10.5	2.77
I constantly keep going at my work in this school, even when things are difficult	43 13.3	75 23.2	74 22.9	95 29.4	36 11.1	3.02

The descriptive findings in Table 4.9 on whether when at their work in the schools' teachers felt bursting with energy cumulatively showed that the greater percentage (45.2%) objected while 39% concurred and 15.8% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.87) close to code three implied that teachers indicated that fairly, when at their work in the schools' teachers felt bursting with energy. Considering when at their jobs in the school the teachers felt strong and vigorous, the significant percentage (78.0%) concurred while 14.5% did not and 7.4% were not sure. The

high mean (3.88) indicated that when at their jobs in the school they felt strong and vigorous.

As to whether when teachers got up in the morning, they felt like going to work on their assignments in the schools, the greater percentage 44.6% concurred while 39.0% did not and 16.4% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.11) close to code three implied that the respondents fairly agreed that when they got up in the morning, they felt like going to work on their assignments in the schools. With reference to the teachers continuing to work for very long periods at a time when on their job in the schools, the significant percentage (73.4%) concurred while 18.3% did not and 8.4% were not sure. The high mean (3.73) implied that teachers continued working for very long periods at a time when on their job in the schools.

Considering when at their jobs in the schools' teachers became very resilient mentally, the greater percentage (48.9%) objected while 34.3% concurred and 16.7% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.41) indicated that teachers indicated that fairly, when at their jobs in the schools they became very resilient mentally. As to whether while at their work in the schools the teachers always persevered even when things did not go well, the, the greater percentage (50.3.%) concurred while 36.5% did not and 22.9% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.02) indicated that while at their work in the schools the teachers always persevered even when things did not go well. To establish whether, the indicators in Table 4.9 were valid and thus measured the work vigour component, the indicators were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to confirm their validity. The results are as given Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4. 10: Components/ Factors on Indicators of Work Vigour

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.681	44.691	44.691	2.681	44.691	44.691
2	0.842	14.041	58.732			
3	0.735	12.243	70.975			
4	0.644	10.741	81.715			
5	0.592	9.871	91.587			
6	0.505	8.413	100.000			

Table 4.10 shows that the six indicators for work dedication in Table 4.9 were reduced to as many components/ factors. Nonetheless, only the first factor had an eigenvalue = 2.681 above 1.00. This suggested presence of one factor explaining 2.681/6 x 100 = 44.691% of the combined variance in the six indicators. The indicator that loaded are given in Table 4.11.

Table 4. 11: Factor Loadings for Work Vigour

Indicators	Component 1
I am always bursting with energy when on my teaching job	0.546
Whenever working on my job, I feel energised and powerful	0.700
Every morning when I wake up, I look forward to working on my school tasks	0.724
When on my teaching job, I work for extended amounts of time	0.680
I am mentally resilient hence performing m teaching effectively	0.665
I constantly keep going at my work in this school, even when things are difficult	0.682

The loadings in Table 4.11 show that all the indicators identifying work vigour were valid because each indicator loaded highly, that is above 0.50 on the factor. To offer an overall rating of work vigour levels, an index of the means of vigour was

calculated for the six indicators identifying the concept. The summary rating is presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4. 12: Work Vigour Index

Descriptives				
			Statistic	**Std. Error**
Vigour	**Mean**		**3.23**	**0.04**
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.14	
		Upper Bound	3.32	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.25	
	Median		3.17	
	Variance		0.63	
	Std. Deviation		0.79	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.17	
	Skewness		-0.31	0.14
	Kurtosis		0.06	0.27

Table 4.12 indicates an average mean (3.23) close to the median = 3.17 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.79). The moderate mean implied that the teachers indicated that their work vigour was fair and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.3.

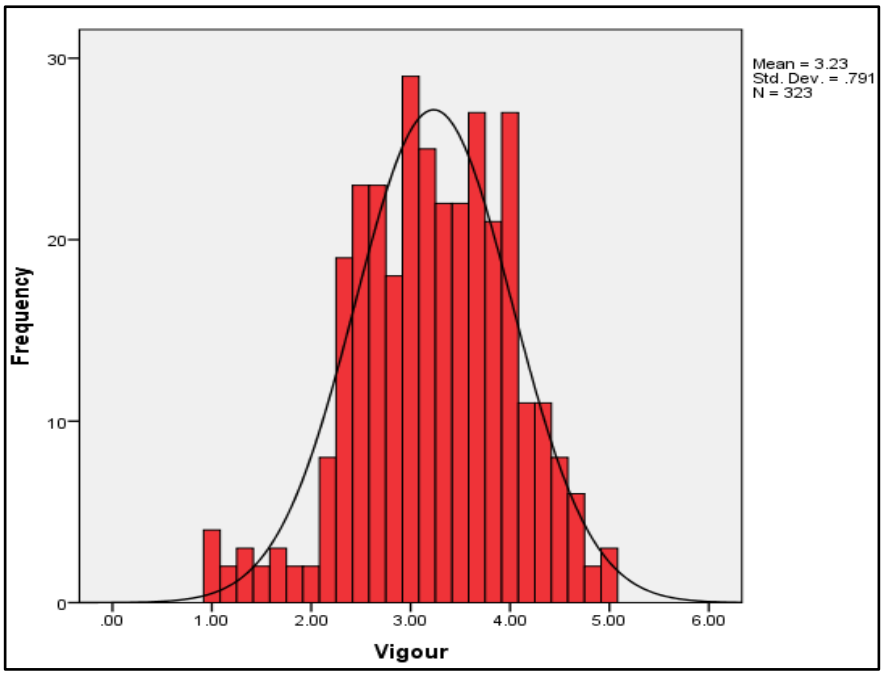

Figure 4.3: Histogram for Vigour

Figure 4.3 indicates an average mean (3.23) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.79). The moderate mean showed that work dedication of the teachers was fair while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.1.4 Work Engagement of Teachers Index

To determine how overall the teachers rated their work engagement, an overall index was calculated for the indicators of the three measures, namely work absorption, dedication and vigour of teachers. The results on the same follow in the summary table (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13: Work Engagement of Teachers Summary Analysis

	Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Work Engagement	Mean		3.33	0.04
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.26	
		Upper Bound	3.40	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.35	
	Median		3.41	
	Variance		0.42	
	Std. Deviation		0.65	
	Minimum		1.41	
	Maximum		4.65	
	Range		3.24	
	Interquartile Range		0.94	
	Skewness		-0.38	0.14
	Kurtosis		-0.32	0.27

Table 4.13 shows that the mean was average mean (3.33) close to the median = 3.41 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.42). The moderate mean implied that the teachers indicated that their work engagement was fair and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Histogram for Work Engagement

Figure 4.4 indicates high mean (3.33) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.65). The moderate mean indicated that work engagement of teachers was fair while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.2 Individual Characteristics and Work Engagement of Teachers

The first objective examined whether there was a positive Significant relationship between individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers. The conceptual framework (Figure 1.1) shows that seven factors were covered under individual characteristics the independent variable. The individual factor covered were namely; sex, age group in years, highest level of education attained, marital status, teaching experience, position in the school and self-efficacy. The first six individual characteristics were unidimensional; thus, they were measured using the nominal scale with appropriate options given. The seventh individual factor that is self-efficacy was a numerical variable; thus, it was scaled using the five-point Likert scale where, 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = undecided 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree. For the unidimensional variables frequencies and percentages are presented.

Nonetheless, for the numerical variable of self-efficacy, descriptive statistics that include frequencies, percentages and means were presented. During description of the individual factor of self-efficacy, confirmatory factor analysis results were presented. In identifying the significance of the unidimensional individual characteristics, the levels of work engagement of the teachers were compared using Student's t Test and ANOVA on the respective unidimensional individual characteristics of the teachers. However, to carry out linear analysis, the

unidimensional individual characteristics were converted into dummy variables to make them numerical hence becoming amenable to linear correlation analysis. Thus, bivariate tests of their significance as correlates of the dependent variable were made, ending with the testing of the pertinent hypotheses derived from seven individual characteristics using multiple regression modelling. The results were presented variable by variable following the order of the self-administered questionnaire as indicated in the instrument (Appendix A, section B). First, descriptive statistics were presented (Table 14) followed by Student's t-Test and ANOVA to establish differences in work engagement according to the different individual characteristics' variables, and there after correlation and regression analyses.

Table 4.14: Individual characteristics

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Per cent
Sex	Male	191	59.1
	Female	132	40.9
	Total	323	100.0
Age group in years	Up to 30 years	63	19.5
	30 but below 40	166	51.4
	40 and above	94	29.1
	Total	323	100.0
Highest level of education attained	Grade III Certificate	157	48.6
	Diploma	96	29.7
	Bachelors	64	19.8
	Postgraduate Qualifications	6	1.9
	Total	323	100.0
Marital status	Single never married	55	17.0
	Married	252	78.0
	Widowed	10	3.1
	Separated/ Divorced	6	1.9
	Total	323	100.0
Teaching experience	Less than 1 year	26	8.0
	1 but less than 5 years	96	29.7
	5 but less than 10 years	151	46.7
	More than 10 years	50	15.5
	Total	323	100.0
Position in the school	Head teacher, Deputy head teacher, Head of Department among others)	184	57.0
	Subject teacher only	139	43.0
	Total	323	100.0

The results on sex of the respondents showed that the greater percentage (59.1%) of the respondents was of males while the females were 40.9%. However, for both sex groups the sample was large suggesting that the findings were representative of both sex groups. The results on age groups of the teachers in years showed that the greater percentage (51.4%) was of those that were 30 but below 40 years followed by 29.1% who were 40 and above. Hence, the most of the teachers were those above 30 years. Hence, they provided responses basing on higher experience. The results on education level showed that the highest percentage (48.6%) of had grade III

certificates followed by 29.7% with diplomas degrees, 19.8% ha d bachelors and 1.9% had postgraduate qualifications. These results suggested that teacher with various qualifications participated in the study hence the results are generalizable to primary teachers with different levels of education.

With marital status, the highest percentage (78.0%) was of the married. This indicates that most of the teachers in the schools were married. Pertaining to the teaching experience of the teachers, the highest percentage (46.5%) had taught for five but less than 10 years, followed by 29.79% that had taught for 1 but less than 5 year, 15.5% who had taught for more than 10 years and the least group 8.0% had taught in the schools for less than one year. Thus, the dominant category of teachers was those who had served for more than five years hence gave information with respect to reasonable time in the schools. Concerning the positions of the teachers in the schools, the highest percentage (57.0%) had leadership positions such as head teachers, heads of departments, class teacher and heads of subject among others and 4.0% were only subject teachers. Thus, most teachers had extra roles beyond teaching. In the next subsections, the levels of work engagement of teachers of were compared on the respective unidimensional individual characteristics (see Tables 4.15 – 4.19).

4.2.1 Work Engagement of Teachers by Sex

To establish whether there existed differences in work engagement of teachers according their sex, Student's t-Test analysis was done (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Student's t Test Results for Sex and Work Engagement

Categories	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	P
Male	191	3.39	0.63132	1.132	0.048
Female	132	3.24	0.66720		
Total	323	3.32	0.64926		

The descriptive findings in Table 4.15 reveal that on average, males (mean = 3.39) had a higher mean than females (mean = 3.24). The student's t (t = 1.132) was high with a low ($p = 0.048 < 0.05$) significance level. Therefore, work engagement of teachers significantly differed according to sex with male teachers having higher work engagement levels.

4.2.2 Work Engagement by Age Groups

To evaluate variations in work engagement of teachers depending on their age, an ANOVA test was done (Table 4.16).

Table 4. 16: ANOVA Results for Age Groups and Work Engagement

Categories	Mean	STD	F	P	LSD Post hoc test significantly different pairs (p = 0.05 level)
Up to 30 years	3.42	0.65	5.385	0.005	
30 but below 40	3.22	0.66			(Up 30 but below 40 years < 40 and above years)
40 and above	3.47	0.57			
Total	3.33	0.65			

The descriptive findings in Table 4.16 reveal that the mean score on work engagement was the higher for the teachers that were 40 and above years (mean (3.47), followed by those up to 30 years (mean (3.42) and with those that were 30 but below 40 years having the lowest (mean (3.22). The observed F-statistic (F =

5.385) was large with a significant level of significance ($p = 0.0005 < 0.05$). Thus, the variation in work engagement of teachers by age groups was significant. An LSD posthoc test indicates that teachers above 40 and above years (mean (3.47) had a significantly higher mean than those who were 30 but below 40 years (mean (3.22). Therefore, work engagement of teachers differed according to their age groups with older teachers having higher engagement levels.

4.2.3 Work Engagement by Levels of Education

To evaluate variations in work engagement of teachers depending on levels of education, an ANOVA test was done (Table 4.17).

Table 4. 17: ANOVA Results for Levels of Education and Work Engagement

Categories	Mean	STD	F	P
Grade III Certificate	3.36	0.65	0.332	0.802
Diploma	3.32	0.65		
Bachelors	3.28	0.64		
Postgraduate Qualifications	3.22	0.75		
Total	3.33	0.65		

The descriptive findings in Table 4.17 indicate that the mean score on work engagement was the higher for teachers with grade III certificates (mean= 3.36), followed by those with diploma (mean = 3.32), then those with Bachelor degrees (mean = 3.28) and those with postgraduate qualifications had the lowest work engagement (mean= 3.22). The observed F-statistic ($F = 0.332$) was low and level of significance ($p = 0.802$, $p > 0.05$) high. Thus, the variations in work engagement of teachers according to levels of education were low. Therefore, work engagement levels did not differ according to levels of education.

4.2.4 Work Engagement by Marital Status

To evaluate variations in work engagement of teachers depending on marital status, an ANOVA test was done (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18: ANOVA Results for Marital Status and Work Engagement

Categories	N	Mean	STD	F	P
Single never married	55	3.29	0.64	0.486	0.692
Married	252	3.35	0.66		
Widowed	10	3.14	0.62		
Divorced	6	3.26	0.13		
Total	323	3.33	0.65		

The descriptive findings in Table 4.18 show that on average, teachers who were married (mean = 3.35) had higher work engagement, followed by those who were single but never married (mean = 3.29), then those were divorced (mean = 3.14) and those who widowed had the lowest (mean = 3.14). The observed F-statistic ($F = 0.486$) was small with a high the level of significance ($p = 0.692$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, the variations in work engagement of teachers by their marital statuses were not significant. Therefore, work engagement of teachers did not differ according to marital statuses of teachers in primary schools.

4.2.5 Work Engagement by Teaching Experience

To evaluate variations in work engagement of teachers depending on teaching experience, an ANOVA test was done (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19:ANOVA Results for Teaching Experience and Work Engagement

Categories	Mean	STD	F	P
Less than 1 year	3.46	0.513	1.971	0.118
1 but less than 5 years	3.44	0.679		
5 but less than 10 years	3.26	0.66		
More than 10 years	3.26	0.59		
Total	3.33	0.65		

The descriptive findings in Table 4.19 show that on average, teachers who had worked for less than 1 year (mean = 3.46) had higher work engagement, followed by those who had served for 1 but less than 5 years (mean (3.44) with those who 5 but less than 10 years and more than 10 years have equal lower means (mean = 3.26). The observed F-statistic (F = 1.971) was small with a higher level of significance ($p = 0.118$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, the variations in work engagement of teachers by their teaching experience were not significant. Therefore, in work engagement of teachers according to teaching experience did not exist.

4.2.6 Work Engagement of Teachers by Position the School

To establish whether there existed differences in work engagement of teachers according their positions in the schools, Student's t-Test analysis was carried out and the results are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Student's t-Test Position in the School and Work Engagement

Categories	Mean	STD	F	P
Administrative position (Director of studies, Head of Department, Class teacher among others)	3.30	0.67	4.321	0.038
Subject teacher only	3.37	0.62		
Total	3.34	0.65		

The descriptive findings in Table 4.20 reveal that on average, subjects' teacher only (mean = 3.37) had higher mean than those in administrative positions (mean = 3.30). The student's t (t = 4.321) was high and the probability or level of significance (p = 0.038) was lower than $\alpha = 0.05$ ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, work engagement of teachers significantly differed according to position in the schools with subject teachers only having higher work engagement levels.

4.2.7 Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy which was identified as the seventh individual characteristics was studied using eight indicators (Table 4.21).

Table 4.21: Descriptive Results for the Individual Factor of Self-Efficacy

Self-Efficacy	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means
I am always able to find solutions to challenging issues at work in this institution	11 3.4	25 7.7	40 12.4	171 52.9	76 23.5	3.85
In this school, even if someone is against me, I can still find a way to achieve my goals	14 4.3	60 18.6	64 19.8	150 46.4	35 10.8	3.41
I have confidence that I can handle unforeseen circumstances at this institution with grace	5 1.5	26 8.0	52 16.1	171 52.9	69 21.4	3.85
I maintain my composure in the face of challenges at this institution	6 1.9	19 5.9	16 5.0	203 62.8	79 24.5	4.02
I am sure that my skills match or surpass those of my peers at this institution	6 1.9	23 7.1	43 13.3	185 57.3	66 20.4	3.87
My prior experiences give me more faith that I will succeed in this institution	9 2.8	10 3.1	17 5.3	190 58.8	97 30.0	4.10
My prior successes give me more faith that I will succeed in this school	5 1.5	16 5.0	16 5.0	189 58.5	97 30.0	4.11
My work at this institution meets my needs and expectations	34 10.5	61 18.9	35 10.8	133 41.2	60 18.6	3.38

The descriptive findings in Table 4.21 pertaining teachers managing to solve difficult problems of their jobs combined showed that the significant percentage (76.4%) concurred while 11.1% did not and 12.4% were not sure. The high mean (3.98) close to code four suggested that teachers could always manage to solve difficult problems of their jobs in the schools. Considering if someone opposed them, they could find the means to get what they wanted in the schools, the greater percentage (57.2%) concurred while 22.9% did not and 19.8% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.41) indicated that fairly, teachers could find the means to get what they wanted in the schools even if someone opposed them.

As to whether teachers remained calm when facing difficulties in the schools, the significant percentage 89.3% concurred while 7.8% did not and 5.0% were not sure. The high mean (4.02) meant teachers indicated that they remained calm when facing difficulties in the schools. With reference to the teachers feeling confident that their abilities were equal or exceeded those of their colleagues in the schools, the significant percentage (88.8%) concurred while 8.1% did not and 13.3% were not sure. The high mean (3.87) implied that teachers concurred that they teachers felt confident that their abilities were equal or exceeded those of their colleagues in the schools.

Considering the teachers past experiences increasing their confidence that they performed successfully in the schools, the significant percentage (88.8%) concurred while 5.9% did not and 5.3% were not sure. The high mean (4.10) indicated that the teachers ascertained that their past experiences increased their confidence that they performed successfully in the schools. As to whether the teachers past accomplishments increased their confidence that they could perform

successfully in the schools, the significant percentage (88.5%) concurred while 6.5% did not and 5.0% were not sure. The high mean (4.11) implied that the teachers indicated that past accomplishments increased their confidence that they could perform successfully in the schools.

About whether the teachers' jobs in the schools satisfied their expectations, the greater percentage (59.8%) concurred while 29.4% did not and 10.8% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.38) indicated that the teachers indicated that fairly, the jobs in the schools satisfied their expectations. To find out whether, the indicators in Table 4.21 were valid and thus measured the self-efficacy component, the indicators were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to confirm their validity. The results are as given Tables 4.22 and 4.23.

Table 4.22: Components/ Factors on Indicators of Self-Efficacy

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.855	48.183	48.183	3.855	48.183	48.183
2	1.185	14.812	62.995	1.185	14.812	62.995
3	0.774	9.669	72.664			
4	0.622	7.779	80.444			
5	0.489	6.109	86.552			
6	0.443	5.533	92.086			
7	0.346	4.331	96.416			
8	0.287	3.584	100.000			

The descriptive findings in Table 4.22 show that Factor Analysis reduced the indictors identifying self-efficacy were reduced to as many components/ factors. The factor had Eigenvalues of 3.855 and 1.185 meaning that the factors accounted for 3.855/8 x 100 = 48.183% and 1.185/8 x 100 = 14.812% of the total variance among the eight indicators given in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Factor Loadings for the Individual Factor of Self-Efficacy

Indicators	Component	
	1	2
I am always able to find solutions to challenging issues at work in this institution		0.615
In this school, even if someone is against me, I can still find a way to achieve my goals		0.762
I have confidence that I can handle unforeseen circumstances at this institution with grace		0.867
I maintain my composure in the face of challenges at this institution		0.714
I am sure that my skills match or surpass those of my peers at this institution.	0.677	
My prior experiences give me more faith that I will succeed in this institution	0.830	
My prior successes give me more faith that I will succeed in this school	0.821	
My work at this institution meets my needs and expectations	0.724	

The loadings in Table 4.23 show that four indictors loaded highly above 0.50 on the first component and another four loaded highly above 0.50 on the second component with rotation converging in 3 iterations. Hence, all the eight indicators were valid measures of self-efficacy. To find out the overall rating of self-efficacy by the teachers, an average index was calculated for the eight indicators identifying the concept. The summary on the same was as presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Individual Factor of Self-Efficacy Summary Analysis

	Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Self-efficacy	Mean		3.82	0.04
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.75	
		Upper Bound	3.90	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.86	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		0.42	
	Std. Deviation		0.65	
	Minimum		1.50	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		3.50	
	Interquartile Range		0.63	
	Skewness		-0.98	0.14
	Kurtosis		1.55	0.27

Table 4.24 indicates a high mean (mean = 3.82) close to the median = 4.00 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.65). The high mean implied that the teachers indicated that their self-efficacy was high and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.4.

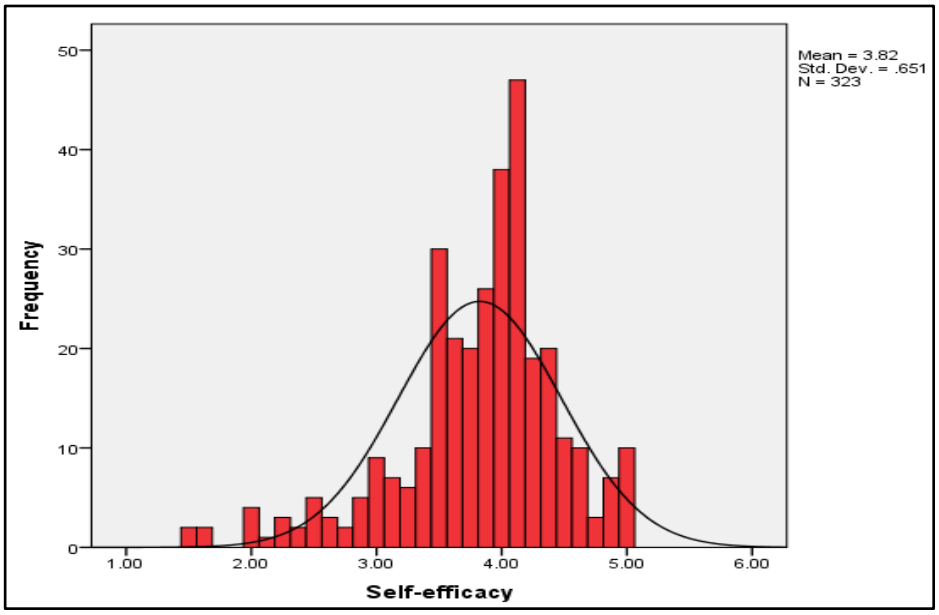

Figure 4.5: Histogram for the Individual Factor of Self-Efficacy

Figure 4.4 indicates a high mean (3.82) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.65). The high mean indicated that self-efficacy of the teachers was high while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.2.8 Correlation of Individual characteristics and Work Engagement

To establish whether there was a relationship between work engagement and individual characteristics, that is, to test sub hypotheses H1-H7 in this study, the unidimensional individual characteristics were converted into dummy variables to make them numerical and hence amenable for correlation analysis. A dummy (SD = SD = sexdummy) was made from Table 4.13 for sex of the respondents using the males as the comparison group (1 = Male) and the females as the reference group (0 = Female). The rationale behind this was that student's t-Test results (Table 4.14) indicated that males had higher engagement levels that females (mean = 3.24). Another dummy (AD = Agegroupdummy) was created for age groups using the older ones as the comparison group (1 = old ones "40 and above") and young ones as the reference groups (0 = young ones i.e. "up to 30" and "30 but below 40"). This was premised on the factor that the student's test results (Table 4.15) revealed that the older ones had higher work engagement levels.

Further, another dummy was created for highest level of education attained (ED = EducationLeveldummy) using Grade III Certificate as the comparison group (1 = Grade III) and the other groups as the reference group (0 = Diploma, Bachelors and Postgraduate Qualifications). The basis for this was that ANOVA findings divulged that the Grade III Certificate had a higher mean (Table 4.16) than the other categories. Also, a dummy (MD = Maritalstatusdummy) was created for marital status using the married as comparison groups (1 = married) and the others as the reference group (0 = Single never married, Widowed and Divorced). This was because the ANOVA results indicated that the married (Table 4.17) had a higher mean than the other groups.

A dummy (TE = Teaching experience dummy) was also created for teaching experience of teachers using teachers of less than 1 year and 1 but less than 5 years as comparison groups because they had higher means (Table 4.18) than those with Less than 1 year and 1 but less than 5 years) and the other groups as the reference group (0 = 5 but less than 10 years and more than 10 years). This was because the comparison groups had higher means than the other groups (Table 19). Last but not least, another dummy (PD = Positiondummy) was created for position in the school using subject teacher only as the comparison group (1 = subject teacher only and those in administrative position as (0 = Administrative position). The rationale was because subject teachers had a higher mean those with administrative positions (Table 24). However, for the individual characteristic of self-efficacy, was numerical, the data was not converted. The correlation and regression results follow in Tables 25 and 26.

Table 4.25: Correlation of Individual characteristics and Work Engagement

	WE	**SD**	**AD**	**ED**	**MD**	**TE**	**PD**	**SE**
WE	1							
SD	0.530**	1						
	0.000							
AD	0.566**	0.339**	1					
	0.000	0.000						
ED	0.568**	0.443**	0.643**	1				
	0.000	0.000	0.000					
MD	-0.026	0.109	-0.022	0.133*	1			
	0.644	0.051	0.689	0.016				
TE	0.316**	0.572**	0.411**	0.482**	0.251**	1		
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000			
PD	0.589**	0.490**	0.501**	0.777**	-0.121*	0.232**	1	
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.030	0.000		
SE	0.468**	0.208**	0.423**	0.374**	0.123*	0.178**	0.337**	1
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.027	0.001	0.000	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Key: WE = work engagement, SD = sex dummy, AD = Age group dummy, ED = Education Level dummy, Marital status dummy, TE = Teaching experience dummy, PD= Position dummy, SE = Self-efficacy

The correlation results presented in Table 7.25 show that six out of the seven individual characteristics examined had a positive and statistically significant relationship with work engagement among primary school teachers. Specifically, sex ($r = 0.530$, $p = 0.000$), age groups ($r = 0.566$, $p = 0.000$), educational level ($r = 0.568$, $p = 0.000$), teaching experience ($r = 0.316$, $p = 0.000$), position in the organisation ($r = 0.589$, $p = 0.000$), and self-efficacy ($r = 0.468$, $p = 0.000$) all demonstrated meaningful associations with teachers' work engagement. These findings suggest that a variety of personal and professional attributes are positively linked to how engaged teachers feel in their work. In contrast, marital status showed a weak, negative, and statistically insignificant relationship with work engagement ($r = -0.026$, $p = 0.644$). This indicates that marital status does not play a meaningful role in predicting or influencing the engagement levels of primary school teachers.

At this preliminary stage of analysis, sub-hypotheses one to three and five to seven (SubH1-SubH3 and SubH5-SubH7) were supported, while sub-hypothesis four (SubH4), related to marital status, was not supported. Overall, these findings provide initial support for the importance of several individual characteristics in shaping teacher work engagement and suggest that demographic and psychological factors may serve as key influences in future research and practice.

4.2.9 Regression of Work Engagement of Teachers on Individual characteristics

At the confirmatory level, to find out whether individual characteristics were high antecedents of work engagement of primary teachers, that is, to test sub-hypotheses (Sub H1-H7) in this study, the dependent variable namely, work engagement of primary teachers was regressed on the independent variables (individual characteristics). The individual variables were sex (Sex dummy), age groups (Age group dummy), education level (Education level dummy), marital status (Marital status dummy), teaching experience (Teaching experience dummy), position in the school (Position dummy) and self-efficacy. The results are as in Table 4.22.

Table 4. 26: Regression of Work Engagement on Individual characteristics

Individual characteristics	Standardized Coefficients Beta (β)	Significance P
Sex dummy	0.333	0.000
Age group dummy	0.246	0.000
Education level dummy	0.107	0.182
Marital status dummy	-0.057	0.185
Teaching experience dummy	-0.089	0.104
Position dummy	0.158	0.034
Self-efficacy	0.225	0.000
R^2 Adjusted = 0.538 F = 54.535, p = 0.000		

a. Dependent Variable: Work Engagement

The regression analysis presented in Table 4.26 reveals that six individual characteristics collectively explained 53.8% of the variance in work engagement among primary school teachers, as indicated by the adjusted R^2 value of 0.538. This suggests that the remaining 46.2% of the variation in work engagement was due to

other factors not addressed in the current study. The overall model was statistically significant ($F = 54.535$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), indicating that the predictors included were relevant and the model was a good fit for the data. Among the six individual characteristics examined, four were found to have a significant positive influence on work engagement: sex ($\beta = 0.333$, $p = 0.000$), age group ($\beta = 0.246$, $p = 0.000$), self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.225$, $p = 0.000$), and position in the organisation ($\beta = 0.158$, $p = 0.034$). These results support sub-hypotheses H1, H2, H6, and H7.

Conversely, educational level ($\beta = 0.107$, $p = 0.182$) showed a positive but statistically insignificant relationship with work engagement. Marital status ($\beta = -0.057$, $p = 0.185$) and teaching experience ($\beta = -0.089$, $p = 0.104$) both had negative but also insignificant effects on work engagement. Therefore, sub-hypotheses H3 and H4 were not supported. Among the significant predictors, sex emerged as the strongest individual characteristic influencing work engagement, followed by age group, self-efficacy, and position in the school. These findings suggest that demographic and psychological traits, particularly those related to personal identity and confidence, play a substantial role in shaping teachers' engagement levels. Individual characteristics do significantly influence work engagement, though not all characteristics contribute equally.

4.3 Organisational Factors and Work Engagement of Teachers

Organisational factors conceived as the moderating variable were measured using two constructs, namely organisational leadership support and psychosocial factors. The results on the same follow.

4.3.1 Organisational Leadership Support

Organisational leadership support which was conceived as the first organisational factor was studied using eight indicators (Table 4.27).

Table 4.27: Organisational leadership support

Organisational leadership support	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means
We often share ideas on effective teaching resources with senior teachers to enable me do better	55 17.0	38 11.8	26 8.0	140 43.3	64 19.8	3.37
School management always provides resources and structures to help me achieve my profession goals	41 12.7	39 12.1	75 23.2	113 35.0	113 35.0	3.32
My HOD gives me professional development opportunities to enable me become an effective primary school teacher	30 9.3	33 10.2	39 12.1	157 48.6	64 19.8	3.59
School management often provides me practical viewpoints on how to better engage pupils in learning	35 10.8	60 18.6	23 7.1	142 44.0	63 19.5	3.43
I receive training from senior teachers on better ways to provide quality classroom instruction	39 12.1	58 18.0	57 17.6	127 39.3	42 13.0	3.23
My school gives recognition (allowances, appreciation) to teachers upon successful completion of teaching tasks	24 7.4	41 12.7	37 11.5	161 49.8	60 18.6	3.59
School management provides written feedback on how I can improve my pedagogical practices	29 9.0	66 20.4	23 7.1	146 45.2	59 18.3	3.43
Experienced colleagues in my department always give me oral feedback on how I can have achieving learners	31 9.6	66 20.4	57 17.6	123 38.1	46 14.2	3.27

The descriptive findings in Table 4.27 on whether often there was sharing of ideas on effective teaching resources with senior teachers to enable teachers do better, the high percentage (63.1%) concurred while 28.8% did not and 8.0% were not sure.

The moderate mean (3.37) close to code three suggested that often there was sharing of ideas on effective teaching resources with senior teachers to enable teachers do better. Considering if management schools always provided resources and structures to help teachers achieve their profession goals, the greater percentage (70.0%) concurred while 24.8% did not and 23.2% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.32) indicated that fairly, management schools always provided resources and structures to help teachers achieve their profession goals.

As to whether heads of departments gave teachers professional development opportunities to enable teachers become effective primary school teachers, the significant percentage (68.4%) concurred while 19.5% did not and 12.1% were not sure. The high mean (3.59) meant teachers indicated that heads of departments gave teachers professional development opportunities to enable teachers become effective primary school teachers. With reference to school management often providing teachers practical viewpoints on how to better engage pupils in learning, the greater percentage (19.5%) concurred while 29.4% did not and 7.1% were not sure. The high mean (3.43) implied that teachers concurred that school management often provided teachers practical viewpoints on how to better engage pupils in learning.

Considering the teachers receiving training from senior teachers on better ways to provide quality classroom instruction, the significant percentage (52.3%) concurred while 30.1% did not and 17.6% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.23) suggested that fairly, teachers received training from senior teachers on better ways to provide quality classroom instruction. As to whether school gave recognition (allowances, appreciation) to teachers upon successful completion of teaching tasks,

the significant percentage (68.4%) concurred while 20.1% did not and 11.5% were not sure. The high mean (3.59) implied that the teachers indicated that teachers received training from senior teachers on better ways to provide quality classroom instruction.

About whether school management provided written feedback on how they could improve their pedagogical practices, the greater percentage (63.5%) concurred while 29.4% did not and 7.1% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.43) indicated that fairly, school management provided written feedback on how they could improve their pedagogical practices. About whether experienced colleagues in the department always gave teacher oral feedback on how they could have achieving learners, the greater percentage (30.0%) concurred while 52.3% did not and 17.6% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.27) indicated that the teachers indicated that fairly, experienced colleagues in the department always gave teacher oral feedback on how they could have achieving learners. To ascertain whether, the indicators in Table 4.25 were valid and thus measured the organisational leadership support component, the indicators were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to confirm their validity. The results are as given Tables 4.28 and 4.29.

Table 4.28: Components/ Factors on Indicators of Organisational leadership support

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.686	58.578	58.578	4.686	58.578	58.578
2	1.588	19.854	78.432	1.588	19.854	78.432
3	0.732	9.155	87.587			
4	0.583	7.283	94.870			
5	0.378	4.728	99.598			
6	0.019	0.233	99.831			
7	0.009	0.112	99.942			
8	0.005	0.058	100.000			

The descriptive findings in Table 4.28 show that Factor Analysis reduced the indictors identifying organisational leadership support were reduced to as many components/ factors. The factor had Eigenvalues of 4.686 and 1.588 meaning that the factors accounted for 4.686/8 x 100 = 58.578% and 1.588/8 x 100 = 19.854% of the total variance among the eight indicators given in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Factor Loadings for the Individual Factor of Organisational Leadership Support

Indicators	Component	
	1	2
We often share ideas on effective teaching resources with senior teachers to enable me do better	0.845	
School management always provides resources and structures to help me achieve my profession goals	0.691	
My HOD gives me professional development opportunities to enable me become an effective primary school teacher	0.891	
School management often provides me practical viewpoints on how to better engage pupils in learning		0.933
I receive training from senior teachers on better ways to provide quality classroom instruction		0.749
My school gives recognition (allowances, appreciation) to teachers upon successful completion of teaching tasks	0.890	
School management provides written feedback on how I can improve my pedagogical practices		0.938
Experienced colleagues in my department always give me oral feedback on how I can have achieving learners		0.757

The loadings in Table 4.29 show that four indictors loaded highly above 0.50 on the first component and another four loaded highly above 0.50 on the second component with rotation converging in 3 iterations. Hence, all the eight indicators were valid measures of organisational leadership support. To find out the overall rating of organisational leadership support by the teachers, an average index was calculated for the eight indicators identifying the concept. The summary on the same was as presented in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30: Overalls for Organisational leadership support

	Descriptives		**Statistic**	**Std. Error**
Organisational leadership support	Mean		3.40	0.05
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.30	
		Upper Bound	3.51	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.44	
	Median		3.63	
	Variance		0.89	
	Std. Deviation		0.94	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.38	
	Skewness		-0.57	0.14
	Kurtosis		-0.33	0.27

Table 4.30 indicates an average mean (3.40) close to the median = 3.63 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.94). The moderate mean implied that the teachers indicated that organisational leadership support was fair and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.6.

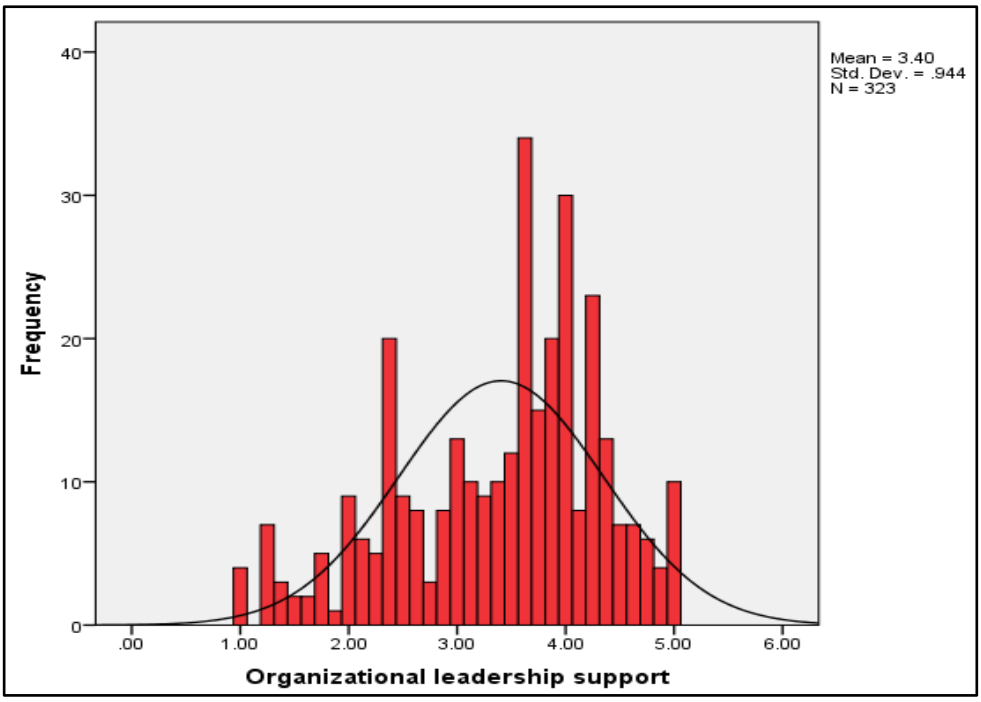

Figure 4. 6: Histogram for Organisational leadership support

Figure 4.6 indicates an average mean (3.40) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.94). The moderate mean showed that organisational leadership support for teachers was fair while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.3.2 Organisational Social support.

Organisational social support which was conceived as the second organisational factor was studied using eight indicators (Table 4.31).

Table 4.31: Organisational Social Support

Organisational Social support	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means
Senior teachers in my school have enabled me come up with more effective ways of managing difficult pupils	34 10.5	82 25.4	39 12.1	126 39.0	42 13.0	3.19
My HOD gives me constructive ideas on how to balance work and life roles	42 13.0	74 22.9	80 24.8	110 34.1	17 5.3	2.96
School management shows me how to manage daily teaching challenges	56 17.3	104 32.2	74 22.9	74 22.9	15 4.6	2.65
I get regular training on effective ways of managing my self	44 13.6	86 26.6	81 25.1	93 28.8	19 5.9	2.87
Senior teachers in my school usually give me techniques to improve my wellbeing	33 10.2	44 13.6	63 19.5	131 40.6	52 16.1	3.39
School management always discusses with me how I can solve work related problems	44 13.6	118 36.5	72 22.3	76 23.5	13 4.0	2.68
Often get reassurance from my HOD when the going gets tough	40 12.4	92 28.5	79 24.5	95 29.4	17 5.3	2.87
I have been made to feel a very valued member of my school community	27 8.4	50 15.5	61 18.9	137 42.4	48 14.9	3.40

The descriptive findings in Table 4.31 on whether senior teachers in the schools enabled teachers come up with more effective ways of managing difficult pupils cumulatively showed that the greater percentage (52.0%) concurred while 35.9% did not and 12.1% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.37) close to code three suggested that senior teachers in the schools enabled teachers come up with more effective ways of managing difficult pupils. Considering head of departments

giving teachers constructive ideas on how to balance work and life roles, the greater percentage (39.4%) concurred while 35.9% did not and 24.8% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.96) indicated that fairly, head of departments gave teachers constructive ideas on how to balance work and life roles.

As to whether school management showed teachers how to manage daily teaching challenges, the greater percentage (49.5%) concurred while 27.5% did not and 22.9% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.65) suggested that fairly, school management showed teachers how to manage daily teaching challenges. With reference to teachers getting regular training on effective ways of managing themselves, the greater percentage (40.2%) objected while 34.7% did not and 25.1% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.87) implied that teachers concurred that teachers got regular training on effective ways of managing themselves.

As to whether senior teachers in the school usually gave teachers techniques to improve their wellbeing, the significant percentage (57.7%) concurred while 23.8% did not and 19.5% were not sure. The high mean (3.39) implied that senior teachers in the school usually gave teachers techniques to improve their wellbeing. About whether school management always discussed with teachers how to solve work related problems, the greater percentage (50.1%) concurred while 27.5% did not and 22.3% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.68) indicated that school management always discussed with teachers how to solve work related problems.

About whether heads of department often gave reassurance when the going got tough, the greater percentage (40.9%) concurred while 34.7% did not and 24.5% were not sure. The moderate mean (2.87) indicated that the teachers indicated that fairly, heads of department often gave reassurance when the going got tough.

Considering teachers being made to feel very valued members of the school communities, the greater percentage (57.3%) concurred while 23.9% did not and 18.9% were not sure. The moderate mean (3.40) suggested that fairly, teachers were made to feel very valued members of the school communities. To ascertain whether, the indicators in Table 4.25 were valid and thus measured the organisational leadership support component, the indicators were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to confirm their validity. The results are as given Tables 4.32 and 4.33.

Table 4.32: Components/ Factors on Indicators of Organisational Social support

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.686	58.578	58.578	4.686	58.578	58.578
2	1.588	19.854	78.432	1.588	19.854	78.432
3	0.732	9.155	87.587			
4	0.583	7.283	94.870			
5	0.378	4.728	99.598			
6	0.019	0.233	99.831			
7	0.009	0.112	99.942			
8	0.005	0.058	100.000			

The descriptive findings in Table 4.32 show that Factor Analysis reduced the indictors identifying organisational social support were reduced to as many components/ factors. The factor had Eigenvalues of 4.686 and 1.588 meaning that the factors accounted for 4.686/8 x 100 = 58.578% and 1.185/8 x 100 = 19.854% of the total variance among the eight indicators given in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33: Factor Loadings for Organisational Social support

Indictors	Component	
	1	2
Senior teachers in my school have enabled me come up with more effective ways of managing difficult pupils	0.625	
My HOD gives me constructive ideas on how to balance work and life roles	0.770	
School management shows me how to manage daily teaching challenges	0.904	
I get regular training on effective ways of managing my self	0.793	
Senior teachers in my school usually give me techniques to improve my wellbeing		0.938
School management always discusses with me how I can solve work related problems	0.892	
I often get reassurance from my HOD when the going gets tough	0.786	
I have been made to feel a very valued member of my school community		0.937

The loadings in Table 4.33 show that six indictors loaded highly above 0.50 on the first component and two loaded highly above 0.50 on the second component with rotation converging in 3 iterations. Hence, all the eight indicators were valid measures of organisational leadership support. To find out the overall rating of organisational social support by the teachers, an average index was calculated for the eight indicators identifying the concept. The summary on the same was as presented in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34: Organisational Social support Summary Analysis

	Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Organisational social support	Mean		2.95	0.05
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.85	
		Upper Bound	3.05	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.95	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		0.89	
	Std. Deviation		0.95	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.50	
	Skewness		-0.02	0.14
	Kurtosis		-0.78	0.27

Table 4.34 indicates an average mean (mean = 2.95) close to the median = 3.00 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.95). The moderate mean implied that the teachers indicated that organisational social support was fair and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.7.

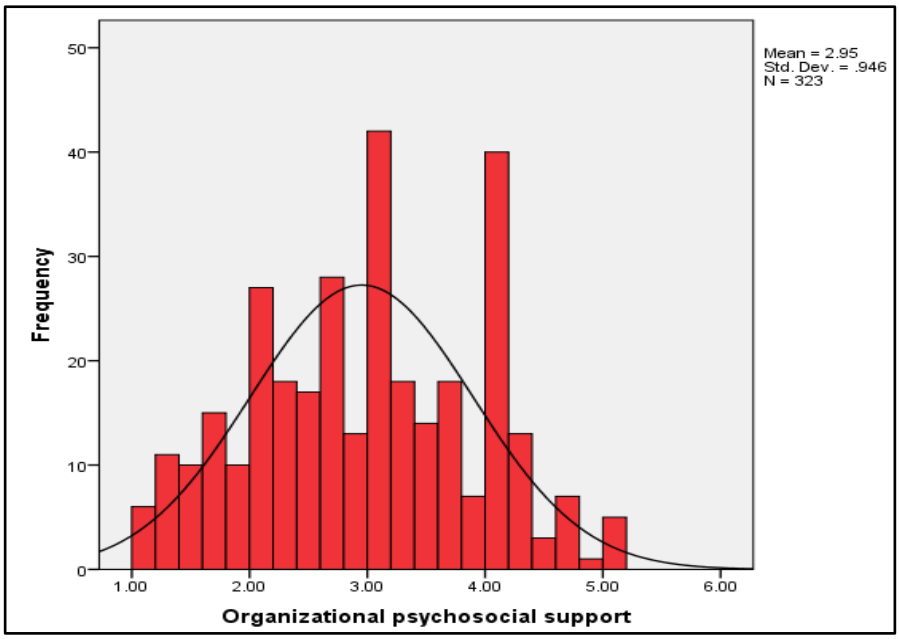

Figure 4. 7: Histogram for Social support

Figure 4.7 indicates an average mean (3.40) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.95). The moderate mean showed that social support for teachers was fair while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.3.3 Organisational Index.

To determine how overall the teachers rated their work engagement, an overall index was calculated for the indicators of the two measures, namely organisational leadership support and social support. The results on the same follow in the summary table (Table 4.35) below.

Table 4.35: Organisational Factors Summary Analysis

	Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error
Organisational Factors	Mean		3.20	0.05
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.11	
		Upper Bound	3.30	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.22	
	Median		3.31	
	Variance		0.74	
	Std. Deviation		0.86	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.25	
	Skewness		-0.35	0.14
	Kurtosis		-0.45	0.27

Table 4.35 indicates a high mean (mean (3.20) close to the median = 3.31 with minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.86). The high mean implied that the teachers indicated that organisational factors of the schools were fair and the mean being close to the median and minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. The normal distribution is diagrammatically shown in Figure 4.7.

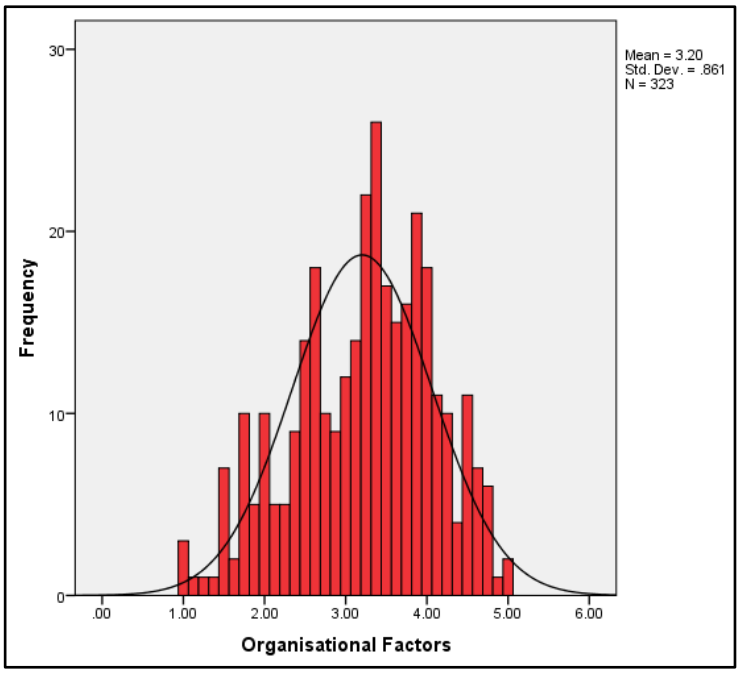

Figure 4. 8: Histogram for Organisational Factors

Figure 4.8 indicates an average mean (3.20) and minimal standard deviation (Std. = 0.86). The moderate mean indicated that organisational factors of the schools were fair while the minimal standard deviation meant that the results fulfilled the normality parametric principle. Therefore, the results were fit for linear analysis.

4.3.4 Correlation of Individual and Organisational Factors on Work Engagement of Teachers

At the preliminary level, to determine whether there was a significant relationship between organisational factors and work engagement of teachers' primary teachers, the hypothesis (H_2) proposing that organisational factors positively and significant influence work engagement of primary teachers was subjected to a correlation test. The hypothesis was divided into two sub-hypotheses proposing that organisational leadership support (Sub-hypothesis eight) and organisational social support (Sub-

hypothesis nine) have a positive significant influence on work engagement of primary teachers. The results were as indicated in Table 4.36.

Table 4. 36: Correlation of Individual characteristics and Work Engagement

	Work Engagement	**Organisational leadership support**	**Organisational social support**
Work Engagement	1		
Organisational leadership support	0.622** 0.000	1	
Organisational social support	0.541** 0.000	0.635** 0.000	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation results presented in Table 4.36 indicate that organisational factors, specifically organisational leadership support and organisational social support, are positively and significantly related to work engagement among primary school teachers. Organisational leadership support demonstrated a strong positive correlation with work engagement ($r = 0.622$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), while organisational social support also showed a significant positive relationship ($r = 0.541$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). These findings suggest that teachers who perceive higher levels of support from leadership and colleagues tend to exhibit greater engagement in their work. At the preliminary analysis level, these significant positive relationships provide initial empirical support for sub-hypotheses eight and nine (Sub-H8 and Sub-H9), which posited that both organisational leadership support and social support are positively associated with teachers' work engagement. These results underscore the importance of a supportive organisational environment in promoting teacher motivation and involvement in their professional roles.

4.3.5 Regression Work Engagement of Primary Teachers on Organisational Factor

At the confirmatory level, to ascertain whether organisational factors influenced of primary teachers, the hypothesis (H_2) proposing that organisational factors have a positive significant influence on work engagement of primary teachers was subjected to a regression test. The hypothesis was divided into two sub-hypotheses proposing that organisational leadership support (Sub-hypothesis eight) and organisational social support (Sub-hypothesis nine) have a positive significant influence on work engagement of primary teachers. The results were as indicated in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37: Regression of Work Engagement on Organisational Factors

Organisational Factors	**Standardized Coefficients**	**Sig.**
	Beta	P
Organisational leadership support	0.467	0.000
Organisational social support	0.245	0.000
$R^2 = 0.440$ F = 117.059, P =0.000		

a. Dependent Variable: Work Engagement

The regression analysis presented in Table 4.37 indicates that organisational leadership support and social support factors together accounted for 44.0% of the variation in work engagement among primary school teachers, as reflected by the adjusted R^2 value of 0.440. This implies that the remaining 56.0% of the variance in work engagement was due to other factors not considered in this study. The overall model was statistically significant ($F = 117.059$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), confirming the model's fitness and the relevance of the predictors included. Both organisational

leadership support and social support factors were found to be significant positive predictors of teacher work engagement. Specifically, organisational leadership support had a stronger predictive influence ($\beta = 0.467$, $p = 0.000$) compared to social support ($\beta = 0.245$, $p = 0.000$), suggesting that leadership-related organisational dynamics play a more influential role in fostering engagement than social support alone. These findings support sub-hypotheses eight and nine, which proposed that both organisational leadership support and social support are significant antecedents of teacher work engagement. The results highlight the critical role of supportive leadership and collegial relationships in enhancing teachers' motivation and emotional investment in their work. While both organisational leadership and social support significantly contribute to work engagement among primary school teachers, leadership support appears to exert a greater impact.

4.4 Individual Characteristics and Work Engagement of Teachers Moderated by Organisational Factors

To test whether organisational factors had a moderating effect on the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of teachers in primary schools, moderation test was carried. Therefore, the hypothesis proposing that organisational factors have no moderating effect on the influence of individual characteristics on work engagement of teachers in primary schools was tested. The results follow in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38: Individual and Work Engagement of Teachers Moderated by Organisational Factors

Variables				β	P
Individual characteristics (X)				0.3502	0.003
Organisational Factors (W)				0.4542	0.000
Individual characteristics x Organisational Factors (XW)				0.0946	0.150
Model Summary	R^2 Adjusted	F	P		
	0.482	98.9674	0.0000		

The results presented in Table 4.38 reveal that the combined influence of individual and organisational factors accounted for 48.2% of the variance in work engagement among primary school teachers, as indicated by the adjusted R^2 value of 0.482. This suggests that over half (51.8%) of the variation in work engagement remains unexplained by these factors, pointing to the existence of other potential antecedents not included in the current study. Both individual characteristics and organisational factors emerged as significant predictors of teachers' work engagement. Specifically, individual characteristics demonstrated a statistically significant positive effect ($\beta = 0.3502$, $p = 0.003$), as did organisational factors ($\beta = 0.4542$, $p = 0.000$). These findings lend support to Hypotheses One (H1) and Two (H2), confirming that both sets of factors play a meaningful role in shaping work engagement. Notably, organisational factors had a stronger predictive power compared to individual characteristics, suggesting that contextual, workplace-related influences may exert a more substantial impact on teacher engagement.

However, the interaction effect between individual and organisational factors was found to be positive but statistically insignificant ($\beta = 0.0946$, $p = 0.150$). This indicates that the presence of organisational factors does not significantly moderate

the relationship between individual characteristics and work engagement. As a result, Hypothesis Three (H3), which posited that organisational factors would moderate the influence of individual characteristics, was not supported by the data and was therefore rejected. In summary, while both individual and organisational factors significantly influence work engagement independently, with organisational factors exerting a greater effect, their interaction does not produce a significant moderating effect.

CHAPTER FIVE:DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

The discussion individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers moderated by organisational factors is covered in this chapter. This involved comparing the study's findings with previous literature and showing the importance of the study's findings.

5.1 Discussion of the Findings

The results on individual characteristics and work engagement are discussed first followed those on organisational factors work engagement. Thereafter, the results on the moderating effect are discussed.

5.1.1 Work Engagement of Teachers

The descriptive findings divulged that the work engagement of teachers was moderate. Thus, the engagement of teachers at work was somehow low. This was supported by the ground on which this study was developed that was low indicated by teachers not expending the required effort in preparing for teaching and mostly conducting ineffective lessons hence significant disparities between intended instruction time and the time actually spent on teaching, because of lack of commitment and enthusiasm for their work. Teachers' curriculum fidelity was low and teacher absenteeism was high while teachers hardly completed the syllabus. Still, many teachers exhibited lack knowledge proficiency and adequate pedagogical skills which results. In many schools, teachers did not comply with school standards and procedures (Poro et al., 2019a; World Bank, 2020). Many teachers were involved in over drinking of alcohol instead concentrating on their learners. Some

teachers in the region had been arrested for being involved in drinking alcohol during work hours (Ayugi & Openytho, 2023).

Further, the teachers were dissatisfied with their jobs (59.0%) with only 16 per cent aspiring to remain in the profession over the next two years (Kamonges, 2021). Also, the finding was in agreement with Bhuvanaiah and Raya (2016) who reported that work engagement was moderate among information technology (IT) workers in India. The finding was also consistent with Daqar et al. (2019) who using employees working in organisations in the service sector in Palestine revealed that employees in governmental sector organisations was low. Also, Sypniewska et al. (2023) indicated an average mean which meant that employee engagement was moderate. However, the study was inconsistent with the finding by Mugizi et al. (2020) who established that while absorption was moderate, in-service teachers' levels of employee vigour and dedication were high.

The study was also inconsistent with Rana et al. (2019) reported a high extent of dedication converse to two other engagement measures. Similarly, the finding was contrary to Sharma and Rajput (2021) revealed that lecturers' levels of engagement were above average. In the same vein, Sudibjo and Riantini (2023) reported that means for the different work engagement of teachers' variables were high. Also, Zhang et al. (2021) indicated that while dedication and absorption high. However, with the findings of the study support by most scholars, it can be surmised that work engagement of workers was low.

5.1.2 Individual Characteristics and Work Engagement of Teachers

The first hypothesis, which posited that individual characteristics significantly influence the work engagement of primary school teachers, was supported by the findings of this study. This result aligns with a substantial body of literature affirming the relevance of individual differences in shaping engagement in the workplace. From the perspective of Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997), such individual characteristics influence behaviour through the mediating role of self-efficacy, which refers to one's belief in their capability to perform specific tasks successfully. Bandura emphasized that behaviour is the result of a dynamic interaction among personal factors, environmental influences, and behavioural patterns. In educational settings, self-efficacy functions as a core personal factor that enables teachers to interpret challenges as surmountable and to sustain motivation and persistence, both of which are essential components of work engagement.

Supporting this theoretical lens, Han and Wang (2021) highlighted self-efficacy as a strong psychological predictor of work engagement, especially among educators. Similarly, Xiao et al. (2022) reaffirmed that self-efficacy enhances engagement by acting as a personal resource, allowing teachers to effectively cope with dynamic and often demanding school environments. These findings are consistent with Social Cognitive Theory's proposition that perceived capability can significantly shape motivation and behaviour, thereby influencing how individuals engage with their professional roles. Beyond self-efficacy, demographic variables such as age, education, and experience, which are recognized within Social Cognitive Theory as elements that shape personal efficacy beliefs, were also shown to influence engagement levels. For instance, Marcus and Gopinath (2017) reported

that older employees exhibited higher engagement, possibly due to accumulated experience and refined coping mechanisms that contribute to stronger self-efficacy beliefs.

Further, Rana et al. (2019) and Sharma et al. (2017) also identified educational attainment and age as meaningful predictors of engagement, though the effects of sex, marital status, and income were found to be inconsistent across studies. According to Social Cognitive Theory, these demographic factors do not directly cause behaviour but influence how individuals perceive and respond to their environment, thereby indirectly affecting work engagement through the self-regulatory mechanism of efficacy beliefs. Sunita et al. (2015) and Inceoglu and Warr (2016) found that traits such as conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness significantly contribute to sustained engagement. These stable characteristics may enhance an individual's sense of control and competence, reinforce their self-efficacy and subsequently influence their engagement levels.

Nevertheless, some studies have challenged the deterministic role of individual characteristics. For example, Jha and Nair (2019) found that demographic factors had limited predictive power for engagement, attributing greater influence to organizational elements such as leadership and support systems. Similarly, Sharma et al. (2017) suggested that contextual factors might override the effects of individual traits. These findings align with Social Cognitive Theory's emphasis on reciprocal determinism, where the environment interacts dynamically with personal factors to shape behaviour. Kim and Kweon (2020) further argued that individual traits only become influential in environments that support and reinforce them, highlighting the importance of contextual alignment. Macey and Schneider (2008)

echoed this complexity by advocating for a multidimensional view of engagement that incorporates both dispositional and situational factors.

Generally, the study's findings consistent with Social Cognitive Theory and most prior literature affirm that individual characteristics, particularly self-efficacy, age, education, and personality traits, serve as significant antecedents of work engagement among teachers. Social Cognitive Theory provides a comprehensive framework for understanding these relationships by emphasizing the interplay of personal beliefs, environmental conditions, and behavioural outcomes. However, the discrepancies in the literature suggest that these relationships may be moderated by broader contextual or cultural variables. Therefore, future research may benefit from longitudinal or mixed-method approaches to more deeply explore how personal factors interact with environmental influences in shaping teacher engagement over time.

On the other hand, to ascertain whether there were discernible disparities in the different individual characteristics in relation to work engagement of teachers, Student t-Tests and ANOVA tests were carried out besides correlation and regression analyses. Considering there being discernible disparities in work engagement according to sex, Student t-Tests results indicated that work engagement of teachers significantly differed according to sex with male teachers having higher work engagement levels. This was also confirmed by regression results which revealed that sex were high antecedents of work engagement of teachers in agreement with Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) who indicated distance of notable sex-based differences in work engagement. The finding also agreed with Gulzar and Teli (2018) who divulged that females' work engagement

level were higher. Also, Shukla et al. (2015) indicated that female employees had more discernible work engagement disparities than males.

Contrastingly, other studies present a divergent view. Hartman and Barber (2020) for instance, found no statistically significant differences in work engagement between male and female employees, suggesting that engagement is more influenced by organizational culture and leadership support than by sex. Similarly, Rana, Pant, and Chopra (2019) concluded that work engagement levels did not vary significantly by gender, attributing this to changing gender norms and equitable access to professional development. Sharma and Rajput (2021) also found no notable gender differences in work engagement among Indian public-school teachers, asserting that engagement levels were more closely tied to factors such as job autonomy and institutional support.

Also, to the contrary, Tshilongamulenzhe and Takawira (2015) in their investigations on gender differences in engagement within the South African public sector reported no discernible variation in engagement levels by sex. They argued that the lack of significant difference could be due to standardized employment practices and diversity policies that create similar workplace experiences for both genders. These divergent findings reflect the lack of consensus in existing literature on whether sex is a definitive predictor of work engagement. While the current study aligns with a segment of scholars who emphasize gender differences (e.g., Chaudhary & Rangnekar, 2017; Gulzar & Teli, 2018), it also stands in contrast with a significant body of research asserting no such disparities (e.g., Hartman & Barber, 2020; Rana et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2017). The inconsistencies suggest that sex

may interact with other contextual and organizational variables such as school type, cultural expectations, workload, and leadership style.

Therefore, it is prudent to conclude that there is no universally harmonized position regarding the impact of sex on work engagement. Each study must be interpreted within its unique sociocultural and institutional context. As Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) caution, engagement is a multifaceted construct influenced by personal, job-related, and organizational factors, with individual demographics such as sex being only one piece of a complex puzzle. Thus, policymakers and educational managers should adopt a context-sensitive approach when addressing gender disparities in teacher engagement.

With respect to age, the findings indicated that engagement of teachers differed according to their age groups with older teachers having higher engagement levels. The regression results also revealed that age was a strong antecedent of engagement of teachers. This finding aligned with a growing body of literature that underscores the influence of age on employee engagement. For instance, Douglas and Roberts (2020) found that employees above 50 years exhibited notably higher engagement levels, attributing this to accumulated experience, emotional maturity, and professional stability. Similarly, Mori et al. (2024) noted a linear relationship between age and engagement, asserting that older workers often possess a deeper psychological connection to their roles, derived from long-term career investment and institutional knowledge. In agreement, Rana et al. (2019) reported discernible differences in engagement across age brackets, with more experienced staff showing higher dedication and vigour.

Sharma et al. (2017) further supported this by revealing that employee engagement levels significantly varied with age, particularly emphasizing that senior staff often displayed stronger work-related absorption and resilience. Likewise, Sharma and Rajput (2021) highlighted that age predicted substantial variation in engagement, suggesting that older individuals are more likely to experience fulfilment and meaning in their work due to higher levels of role clarity and job security. Morrison and Nolan (2020) echoed this sentiment, finding that older employees are typically more engaged as they value job stability and organizational loyalty.

However, this relationship is not universally affirmed. For example, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) found that age did not significantly affect engagement levels, implying that personality traits or organizational dynamics may have greater influence. Similarly, Shukla et al. (2015) contradicted the dominant trend by reporting no significant differences in engagement across age groups. These authors suggested that engagement is more tightly linked to intrinsic motivation or managerial support than demographic factors like age. Barkhuizen et al. (2019) also pointed out that engagement is mediated by job fit and perceived career progression opportunities, factors that can transcend age.

On their part, Zhang and Farndale (2022) found that while age can predict engagement, younger professionals may also exhibit high engagement levels when exposed to stimulating work environments and growth opportunities. Their research highlighted that younger employees are typically more adaptable, technologically adept, and innovation-oriented, which can drive engagement under the right conditions. In the same vein, Ng and Feldman (2015) found that although

engagement tends to rise with age, the pattern may plateau or reverse in cases where older employees face burnout, role stagnation, or organizational neglect. Further complexity is added by Kim and Kang (2021), who proposed that generational factors, not merely chronological age, play a role in shaping engagement. They argued that Baby Boomers and Millennials may engage with their work differently due to varying values, expectations, and work ethics.

Further, Green et al. (2020) emphasized that workplace engagement should be examined through a life-stage perspective, taking into account not only age but also career phase, personal responsibilities, and psychological needs. Additionally, Ahmed and Hussain (2021) found that job satisfaction and alignment with personal values often explain age-related engagement differences better than age alone. Generally, while some studies point to the minimal impact of age, the prevailing evidence including the current study's findings suggests that older teachers are generally more engaged, likely due to greater professional competence, intrinsic motivation, and emotional resilience. However, exceptions in the literature indicate that age-related engagement may be influenced by contextual, cultural, and organizational variables. Therefore, while age can be considered a significant factor, it is best interpreted in conjunction with other predictors such as job design, leadership style, and personal goals. Understanding the dynamics of age and engagement is essential for education administrators seeking to maintain high motivation and performance across generational cohorts.

Regarding education level and work engagement, work engagement levels did not differ and this was also supported by regression analysis. The study's findings revealed that teacher work engagement did not significantly vary according

to education level. This lack of variation was confirmed by both inferential and regression analyses, which consistently showed that educational attainment was not a statistically significant predictor of work engagement among primary school teachers. These findings resonate with a number of existing studies that have similarly concluded that education level does not meaningfully influence engagement levels. For instance, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) reported that employees' level of education bore no significant relationship with their engagement, emphasizing that engagement is more closely linked to individual psychological factors such as intrinsic motivation, job fit, and perceived organizational support. In a related study, Mahboubi et al. (2015) also reported a lack of discernible disparities in engagement among employees based on their academic qualifications, noting that daily job experiences and leadership interactions often had a stronger influence.

Further supporting this view, Sharma and Rajput (2021) found no significant difference in engagement levels across various educational backgrounds, suggesting that teachers' commitment and energy at work are driven more by the quality of the school environment and leadership than by formal qualifications. Ng and Feldman (2010) similarly asserted that while education may enhance job skills, it does not automatically translate to greater psychological engagement unless matched with meaningful job roles and growth opportunities. In this context, Rana et al. (2019) emphasized that the alignment between one's role and intrinsic values often plays a more crucial role in fostering engagement than educational credentials. This implies that a teacher with a diploma could be just as engaged as one with a master's degree, provided both find their work meaningful and are supported in their roles.

Nonetheless, contrasting views exist. Hakanen et al. (2019) found that individuals with higher academic qualifications, such as doctorates, tended to report higher levels of work engagement, particularly in intellectually demanding professions like education and research. Their study suggested that advanced education may increase autonomy, job complexity, and opportunities for professional growth, all of which are known contributors to work engagement. In agreement, Sharma et al. (2017) reported that teachers with postgraduate qualifications exhibited higher levels of engagement compared to those with lower academic backgrounds. These findings are supported by Khan and Bibi (2020), who argued that more educated employees are often more self-driven and tend to seek and find meaning in their roles more readily than their less-educated peers.

Further, Ahmed and Malik (2021) noted that while education may not directly affect engagement, it may influence it indirectly through factors such as job satisfaction, career development opportunities, and access to leadership roles. Mohammed and Saeed (2023) also pointed out that higher education may enhance cognitive resources such as problem-solving and decision-making skills, which can positively impact how teachers navigate challenges, thereby indirectly contributing to sustained engagement. Similarly, Bakotić (2016) suggested that individuals with higher education levels often have higher expectations of their jobs, and if these expectations are met, their engagement can significantly increase.

On the other hand, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) found no consistent pattern linking education with engagement in their study of public sector employees, proposing that cultural and organizational variables may moderate the relationship. Lambert et al. (2022b) similarly concluded that educational level did not predict

engagement when variables like leadership style, organizational support, and work-life balance were controlled for. Taken together, the evidence remains mixed, but the current study aligns with the larger body of literature indicating that educational attainment is not a significant standalone predictor of work engagement. In primary education settings, where job roles and expectations are often standardized regardless of qualifications, this trend may be even more pronounced. Therefore, while higher educational attainment may bring additional skills or perspectives, it does not necessarily lead to increased engagement unless complemented by supportive environments, clear role expectations, and intrinsic motivational factors.

Concerning marital status and work engagement, it was divulged that work engagement of teachers did not differ according to marital statuses and regression analyses results consistently indicated it had no discernible impact on work engagement. The findings of the study revealed that marital status did not significantly affect the work engagement of primary school teachers. This conclusion was consistently supported by regression analysis, which showed no discernible variation in engagement levels between married and unmarried teachers. The results align with a substantial body of scholarly literature indicating that marital status is not a meaningful determinant of employee engagement. For instance, Köse (2016) reported that marital status did not significantly influence teacher engagement in Turkey, highlighting that organizational factors such as leadership and job satisfaction played a more decisive role than personal demographics. Likewise, Prasad and Sandhyavani (2019) found no significant differences in work engagement when comparing single, married, and divorced

employees in the educational sector, emphasizing that engagement is more likely shaped by workplace culture than civil status.

Further corroborating this view, Sharma and Rajput (2021) concluded that there were no discernble variations in work engagement attributable to marital status, noting that intrinsic job motivation and professional identity were stronger predictors of engagement than personal life variables. Similarly, Sharma et al. (2017) found that marital status bore no statistical significance in predicting engagement levels, a finding echoed by Willmer et al. (2021) in their multinational study, which concluded that engagement is more closely tied to organizational trust and psychological safety than to an employee's domestic situation. In the same vein, Yousaf and Khan (2020) observed that marital status had no measurable impact on the engagement of teachers across different institutional types. They argued that both single and married employees face professional demands that influence engagement similarly.

Further, Sulaiman and Saif (2018) reached comparable conclusions, stating that while marital status might influence personal wellbeing, it does not translate into consistent changes in workplace behaviour such as engagement. Additionally, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) emphasized that engagement is fundamentally a psychological state driven by job meaning and autonomy rather than static demographic characteristics such as marital status. However, some dissenting studies provide a more nuanced perspective. Chan et al. (2020) reported statistically significant differences in work engagement across marital status groups, suggesting that married employees might experience greater engagement due to increased stability, emotional support, and motivation to provide for dependents. This finding

implies that personal responsibilities can sometimes enhance professional commitment.

Similarly, Çemberci et al. (2022) found that while overall engagement did not differ, the engagement dimension of absorption, the state of being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work varied based on marital status. Married employees were found to be slightly more absorbed, potentially due to more structured daily routines and support systems at home. Nonetheless, these exceptions are not consistent across contexts. For instance, Shukla et al. (2015) found no discernible engagement disparities due to marital status, even after controlling for variables such as sex, income, and education. Mukhtar and Abbas (2020) similarly reported that marital status had no meaningful interaction with engagement when organizational commitment and job satisfaction were considered. Rahman and Naz (2021) posited that in high-demand professional environments like teaching, both married and unmarried individuals develop adaptive strategies to maintain engagement regardless of family obligations.

Overall, the findings of the present study align with the dominant scholarly consensus that marital status does not significantly influence work engagement. Although a few studies suggest some subtle differences, particularly in specific engagement dimensions, the majority indicate that professional engagement is largely independent of marital status. This underscores the importance of focusing on organizational and psychological drivers of engagement, rather than static demographic variables.

With respect to experience and work engagement, no discernible variations were established due to the variable. The findings of the current study indicated that

teachers' work engagement did not significantly vary according to their prior teaching experience. This outcome was substantiated by regression analysis, which revealed no statistically significant relationship between years of teaching and the overall levels of work engagement. In essence, whether a teacher had been in the profession for a few years or several decades did not appear to affect their levels of vigour, dedication, or absorption. This result aligns with a substantial number of empirical studies that have also found teaching experience to be an inconsistent predictor of work engagement. For instance, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) concluded that job tenure had no notable effect on engagement levels in academic settings. They argued that the sense of engagement stems more from work environment factors such as autonomy, leadership support, and recognition, than from mere duration of service.

In a similar study to the above, Prasad and Sandhyavani (2019) found no meaningful engagement differences among teachers grouped by years of experience. They emphasized that engagement is largely psychological and situational, meaning it can manifest regardless of whether an employee is new or seasoned. Likewise, Sharma and Rajput (2021) supported these findings, reporting that job experience did not significantly influence engagement in their study of educational professionals. Sharma et al. (2017) also noted no statistical significance in engagement across different experience levels, suggesting that motivational factors and institutional support play a larger role in shaping engagement than tenure.

Also, Yousaf and Khan (2020) added that job engagement is not merely a byproduct of professional maturity but is better explained by the presence of job

resources, such as supportive leadership, clarity of roles, and opportunities for growth. They found that both novice and experienced teachers showed comparable engagement levels when these conditions were met. Ahmed and Hussain (2021) also highlighted that organizational culture and teacher autonomy can mediate the impact of experience on engagement, leading to varied results across contexts. However, other studies present contrasting evidence. Çemberci et al. (2022) found that teachers with longer experience reported significantly higher engagement scores, particularly in the dimension of dedication. They hypothesized that seasoned teachers develop stronger coping mechanisms, deeper professional identities, and a more internalized commitment to their roles, which may elevate their engagement. Similarly, Rana et al. (2019) reported a distinguishable impact of job experience on engagement, indicating that accumulated years in the profession can translate into emotional stability, refined pedagogical strategies, and greater job satisfaction—factors that enhance engagement.

Echoing the above view, Shukla et al. (2015) revealed that employees with greater work experience exhibited significantly higher levels of engagement compared to their less experienced counterparts. They attributed this to greater institutional knowledge, professional networks, and increased job security. Mori et al. (2024) added that experienced educators often feel a stronger sense of responsibility and ownership toward institutional outcomes, thereby demonstrating heightened engagement behaviours. Additionally, Hartman and Barber (2020) argued that with time, teachers often find ways to align personal values with institutional goals, which deepens their psychological commitment to work. Conversely, other researchers caution against assuming a linear relationship

between experience and engagement. Ng and Feldman (2015) reported that engagement could plateau or even decline with excessive tenure due to burnout or career stagnation.

Given the mix of evidence in the literature, the current study's findings suggest that the relationship between teaching experience and work engagement is not universally consistent. While several studies report no clear correlation supporting the present study, others highlight meaningful differences tied to experience, suggesting that the impact of tenure may be context-dependent. Factors such as institutional support, leadership style, workload, recognition, and access to professional development likely mediate the relationship. Therefore, it is important to interpret the role of experience in engagement within specific educational, cultural, and organizational contexts rather than adopting a one-size-fits-all assumption.

About position in the school and work engagement, engagement of teachers significantly differed according to position in the schools with subject teachers only having higher work engagement levels. This also confirmed the regression results which revealed that position in the school had a significant influence on work engagement of teachers. This finding agreed with Borkowska and Czerw (2017) indicated that organisational roles performed by employees influenced the way shaped their organisational engagement. Therefore, being in a higher position in the organisational hierarchy provides understanding of the organisation leading to increased employee engagement. Similarly, Chaudhary and Rangnekar (2017) noted no distinguishable variations in work engagement due to position in organisational hierarchy. Also, Jaworek (2017) indicated discernible variations in work

engagement due to demographics including job position. In the same vein, Monje and Calvo (2023) reported disparities in work engagement according to position in the hierarchy of an organisation. Also, Rana et al. (2019) divulged that demographic characteristics including designation significantly affected employee work engagement. However, the study disagreed with Mahboubi at al. (2015) divulged no significant variations in engagement due to position (administrative versus others). However, the discussion above implies the research's results were in agreement with those of most scholars, which means job position is imperative in terms of work of engagement.

With respect to employee self-efficacy and work engagement, self-efficacy it was deemed a discernible antecedent of teacher engagement consistent with Carter et al. (2018) who indicated existence of positive significant linkages with work engagement. Similarly, Chan et al. (2017) indicated that self-efficacy led to engagement of workers. Also, Chhajer et al. (2018) indicated that significant self-efficacy levels strongly predicted higher levels of work engagement. Also, Han and Wang (2021) demonstrated that self-efficacy had a substantial association with work engagement. In the same vein, Karagkounis et al. (2020) showed that self-efficacy was positively linked to rising levels of work engagement. Similarly, Xiao et al. (2022) indicated that employee self-efficacy was a major predictor of their work engagement. The study's findings agree with previous scholars, indicating that self-efficacy had a significant and beneficial impact on the teacher work engagement.

5.1.3 Organisational Factors and Work Engagement of Teachers

The hypothesis concerning organisational factors having a significant influence on the work engagement of teachers was supported. This outcome aligns with a substantial body of research that consistently highlights the pivotal role organisational factors play in fostering employee engagement. Guided by Perceived Organisational Support Theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), the findings can be interpreted through the lens of employees' perception that their organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being. According to POST, when employees perceive that they are supported, they develop a sense of obligation and emotional attachment to their work, resulting in greater engagement (Roemer and Harris, 2018).

Also, Aninkan and Oyewole (2014) found a clear association between organisational dynamics such as effective leadership and supervisory support and employee engagement. This aligns with POST's core principle that support from leaders and supervisors' signals that the organisation values the employee, thereby fostering increased dedication and effort. In educational contexts, when teachers feel that institutional leaders genuinely care for their welfare and professional development, their commitment and emotional involvement in their work tend to rise substantially. Similarly, Chathoth et al. (2021) highlighted that organisational structures, including transparent management and inclusive workplace culture, significantly shape how engaged employees feel in their roles. These findings illustrate that organisational mechanisms that embody recognition, fairness, and support enhance perceptions of organisational support, strengthening employee commitment.

Further supporting POST, Jankelová et al. (2021) demonstrated that workplace support, particularly interpersonal and resource-based support, had a direct and measurable effect on work engagement. This supports the theoretical notion that when employees feel empowered and psychologically safe, they reciprocate with heightened levels of engagement. Jindain and Gilitwala (2024) emphasized that even the perception of support can elevate motivation and willingness to invest effort. This perception of support is a key tenet of POST, as it fosters a psychological contract in which employees feel morally inclined to repay the organisation with loyalty and productivity.

In line with these findings, Othman et al. (2019) observed that leadership quality, effective communication, and inclusive practices substantially influenced employee engagement. These organisational elements are integral forms of perceived support and contribute to a positive climate that motivates employees. Likewise, Prajapati (2022) found a significant and positive impact of organisational structures on engagement, reaffirming that institutional backing enhances both the morale and work commitment of employees. These findings are consistent with POST's assertion that support beyond contractual obligations, such as emotional encouragement, recognition, and leadership attention, fosters employee reciprocity, satisfaction, and greater work effort (Viot and Benraiss-Noailles, 2018).

Nagesh et al. (2019) also highlighted how managerial encouragement, peer collaboration, and recognition can directly influence engagement outcomes. These forms of support contribute to a culture where employees feel valued and integrated, echoing Eisenberger et al.'s (2020) view that supportive leadership and recognition are key dimensions of perceived organisational support. Rakthin et al. (2021)

similarly noted that practices related to remuneration, leadership style, and career development positively influenced employee engagement, underscoring the multifaceted ways organisations can demonstrate support.

Further, Sindhura (2022) confirmed that perceived support from the organisation significantly enhances engagement, showing that recognition and acknowledgment are powerful motivators. When employees feel seen and supported, as POST posits, a sense of reciprocity and emotional investment is activated, which in turn leads to sustained engagement and better performance (Scanlan et al., 2018). Taken together, the findings of the present study, interpreted through the framework of Perceived Organisational Support Theory, demonstrate that supportive organisational environments significantly enhance teacher engagement. When educators perceive that their institution values their contributions and well-being, they are more likely to reciprocate through heightened dedication and effort. This reinforces POST's proposition that organisational support functions as a psychological resource that strengthens employees' affective commitment and fosters enduring engagement. Therefore, cultivating a supportive institutional climate, characterised by strong leadership, recognition, collaboration, and resource availability, is essential for enhancing teacher engagement and achieving broader organisational goals.

In addition, for the two aspects of organisational factors studied namely leadership support and social support, regression results revealed that with respect to leadership support, it had a distinguishable influence on teacher work engagement. This finding is consistent with existing literature and contributes to the growing consensus that leadership support remains one of the most critical

organisational variables in enhancing employee engagement. Aninkan and Oyewole (2014) were among the early scholars who found a strong and significant connection between organisational characteristics, particularly leadership practices and support from supervisory figures and employee engagement. Their study highlights the importance of leaders who are approachable, responsive, and committed to the development of their team members, thereby creating a positive work atmosphere that fosters higher levels of engagement.

The above sentiment was echoed by Arfat et al. (2017), who revealed that supportive leadership exhibited a significantly greater and favourable influence on employees' engagement levels compared to non-supportive leadership. Their findings underscore the notion that leadership characterised by empathy, encouragement, and resource facilitation is vital in promoting a proactive and committed workforce. Similarly, Gemeda and Lee (2020) found a substantial and beneficial association between leadership behaviour and work engagement. Their research focused particularly on educational institutions and highlighted how effective leadership within schools promotes psychological empowerment and a sense of belonging among teachers, both of which are critical elements of engagement. Jawad et al. (2023) also observed a positive impact of leadership support on employee engagement, confirming that supportive leadership fosters trust and commitment, which in turn leads to higher levels of work involvement. These findings collectively indicate that the presence of strong leadership support directly enhances teachers' psychological investment in their work, promotes resilience, and boosts overall morale.

In agreement, Mehrad et al. (2020) reported that both leadership styles and broader organisational support were key organisational factors that lead to desirable workplace outcomes, including increased employee engagement, satisfaction, and productivity. They noted that transformational and participative leadership styles were especially influential in cultivating a sense of meaning, belonging, and commitment among employees. Othman et al. (2019) similarly demonstrated that leadership, along with other organisational factors such as communication and workplace climate, has a favourable and statistically significant association with employee engagement. This suggests that leadership does not function in isolation but in conjunction with other supportive structures to foster a more engaged workforce.

In line with the above perspective, Prajapati (2022) discovered that organisational characteristics, including leadership quality and accessibility, exert a beneficial and substantial effect on employee engagement across diverse work environments. The researcher further emphasised that when leadership is consistent and aligns with the core values of the organisation, employees are more likely to demonstrate discretionary effort and emotional commitment. Rahmadani et al. (2020) contributed to this discussion by showing that engaging leadership, which involves inspiring, strengthening, and connecting with employees, is a strong predictor of work engagement. Their work affirmed that such leadership styles not only improve work attitudes but also contribute to sustainable performance and well-being.

Further, Wang et al. (2023) reported that leadership positively influenced employee work engagement, with the impact being particularly strong in

educational settings where interpersonal dynamics and emotional labour are pronounced. Their study highlights that teachers are more likely to go above and beyond their job descriptions when they perceive leadership as supportive, communicative, and empowering. In the same vein, Zhou et al. (2022) revealed a favourable connection between leadership and workforce engagement. Their findings underscored the idea that when leaders act as mentors and motivators, they not only enhance performance outcomes but also foster a workplace culture conducive to learning, growth, and commitment.

Generally, the results of this study align closely with all the above-mentioned studies and indicate a strong convergence in the scholarly community regarding the importance of leadership support in driving teacher engagement. Leadership support is not merely a facilitative factor but a foundational element in promoting sustained involvement, emotional resilience, and satisfaction in the teaching profession. With the current findings supporting previous empirical evidence, it can be confidently affirmed that leadership support is essential for fostering and maintaining high levels of work engagement among teachers. This highlights the importance of investing in leadership development programs that equip educational leaders with the competencies to support, inspire, and engage teaching staff. As such, any strategic effort aimed at enhancing teacher engagement must prioritise leadership support as a central mechanism for improving teacher motivation, performance, and long-term retention in educational institutions.

With respect to social support and work engagement, the results affirmed that it had a discernible influence on work engagement of teachers. This result is consistent with an extensive body of literature that confirms the importance of social

support, particularly in the form of supervisor encouragement, peer collaboration, and general workplace social cohesion in fostering employee engagement. Social support is increasingly recognised as a vital resource that reduces occupational stress, enhances job satisfaction, and strengthens psychological resilience among employees, particularly in the educational sector. Bonaiuto et al. (2022) found that increased levels of interaction and communication with supervisors significantly predicted higher levels of work engagement among employees. Their findings emphasised the role of relational dynamics between staff and leadership in sustaining emotional and cognitive involvement in work-related tasks. According to their research, supportive communication enhances trust and contributes to a stronger identification with the organisation, which in turn nurtures engagement.

Similarly, Hamouda et al. (2018) discovered that both supervisor support and peer support were crucial determinants of work engagement. Though their study was conducted among bank employees, the implications are transferable to other professional sectors, including education, where collaboration and support are equally important. The researchers found that when employees felt emotionally and professionally supported by their supervisors and peers, they were more likely to experience higher levels of job involvement, energy, and dedication. Lin and Sutunyarak (2023) also affirmed that social support is positively and significantly associated with occupational engagement. Their study specifically examined academic institutions and confirmed that when teachers perceive they are supported by colleagues, school leaders, and their broader professional community, their emotional connection to work is enhanced. Social support serves to not only reduce job-related strain but also increase one's sense of purpose and belonging at work.

Furthermore, Olabimitan (2019) found a substantial and beneficial connection between perceived social support and employee engagement. The researcher demonstrated that employees who reported receiving consistent support from their organisational networks—including managerial guidance and collegial cooperation were more likely to invest time, energy, and creativity in their work roles. In the same vein, Stănescu and Romascanu (2023) observed that an increase in perceived social support directly resulted in an improvement in employee work engagement levels. They argued that supportive workplace environments foster psychological safety, which enhances enthusiasm and commitment toward work. Similarly, Takahiro et al. (2023) indicated that work engagement increased proportionally with the number of sources of perceived social support in the workplace. This finding suggests that diversified support—ranging from leaders, colleagues, and even institutional systems offers compounded benefits for engagement, as it builds resilience and promotes positive emotional states.

In another empirical contribution, Zhang and Guo (2023) highlighted that perceived social support had a clearly observable and measurable impact on employee engagement. Their study suggested that when employees perceive support not only from formal leadership but also from informal peer networks, they demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction and are more likely to exert discretionary effort in their professional duties. These results add to the mounting evidence that social support functions as a buffer against job burnout and a catalyst for sustained engagement. Taken together, these findings from prior studies, along with the present investigation, establish a consistent pattern showing that social

support is a critical determinant of work engagement, especially among teachers who often experience occupational stress and emotional labour.

Social support, as indicated in this study, does not merely contribute to short-term satisfaction but is foundational to long-term engagement and retention in the teaching profession. Teachers who feel socially connected and supported tend to display stronger organisational commitment, greater enthusiasm, and an enhanced capacity to manage the psychological demands of their roles. Therefore, fostering an environment of mutual support among staff, providing effective mentorship, and facilitating open communication between supervisors and subordinates should be prioritised within school leadership strategies. The alignment between this study and a wide range of prior empirical evidence suggests that educational institutions must actively promote a culture of social connectedness to ensure high levels of teacher engagement. Ultimately, it can be affirmed that social support is not simply an auxiliary feature of the workplace; it is a central mechanism by which engagement is cultivated, especially in professions such as teaching where emotional investment is deeply entwined with performance outcomes.

5.1.4 Individual and Work Engagement moderated by Organisational Factors

The third hypothesis to the effect that organisational factors have a significant moderating role was rejected consistent with Akey-Torku and Dai (2020) who rejected the hypothesis that demographic characteristics such as age and work experience significantly moderated the relationship between idealised influence (a dimension of transformational leadership) and work engagement. Their findings suggest that the connection between leadership and engagement may be more direct,

with minimal impact from certain individual-level demographic variables. Similarly, Cenkci and Özçelik (2015) found no significant moderating influence of leader sex on the relationship between leadership style and employee work engagement. This suggests that sex, as an organisational or individual characteristic, may not substantially alter how leadership behaviour translates into employee engagement outcomes. These findings collectively imply that certain organisational or personal variables may not universally moderate engagement dynamics as previously hypothesised.

Nonetheless, contrasting evidence is provided by Sulaimiah et al. (2023), who identified a significant moderating effect of perceived organisational support on the relationship between self-efficacy, a key individual factor and employee performance. This finding illustrates that under certain conditions; organisational factors can indeed enhance or inhibit the influence of individual psychological traits on work-related outcomes. Particularly in environments where support mechanisms are robust, self-efficacy may play a more pronounced role in shaping engagement and performance. Therefore, the current findings from this research exhibit both alignment and divergence with the existing body of literature. On the one hand, the non-significant moderating roles observed align with studies by Akey-Torku and Dai (2020) and Cenkci and Özçelik (2015), reinforcing the notion that some demographic or identity-based organisational variables do not significantly moderate leadership–engagement linkages. On the other hand, the contrasting perspective offered by Sulaimiah et al. (2023) highlights the contextual sensitivity of such moderating effects, especially when psychological or relational constructs like self-efficacy and perceived support are involved.

Ultimately, these mixed results point to the critical importance of context in organisational behaviour research. The impact of organisational moderators on individual work engagement appears to be contingent on a constellation of variables, including organisational culture, leadership style, and the psychological profile of employees. Therefore, it is prudent to suggest that each study carefully contextualise its findings within its specific institutional, cultural, and professional setting to draw meaningful conclusions regarding the influence of organisational factors on work engagement.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

The summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations on individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers moderated by organisational factors are presented in this chapter. Limitations and areas suggested for future research are also included.

6.1 Summary of the findings

An over of the findings on work engagement of teachers, individual characteristics and organisational factors are presented in this segment. The findings included are both descriptive and inferential.

6.1.1 Work Engagement of Teachers

Descriptive findings divulged that teachers' absorption was high (Mean = 3.69, Std = 86) but dedication was moderate (mean = 3.02, Std = 0.99), as well as teacher vigour (Mean =3.33, Std = 0.65). Thus, teachers were more absorbed in their work that they were dedicated to it and the energy they put in it. Overall, work engagement of teachers was moderate (mean = 3.33, Std = 0.65). Hence, engagement levels were still wanting.

6.1.2 Individual Factors and Work Engagement

Individual factors were studied in terms of sex, age group in years, education level, marital state, teaching experience position in the school and personal self-efficacy. Means showed that on average, males (mean = 3.39) had a higher work engagement

level than females (mean = 3.24). Inferential analysis indicated that work engagement of teachers significantly differed according to sex with male teachers having higher work engagement levels ($p = 0.048 < 0.05$). The results also revealed that the mean score on work engagement was the higher for the teachers that were 40 and above years (mean = 3.47), followed by those up to 30 years (mean = 3.42) and with those that were 30 but below 40 years having the lowest (mean = 3.22). The results further revealed that work engagement of teachers differed according to their age groups with older teachers having higher engagement levels ($p = 0.0005 < 0.05$). The mean score for work engagement was the higher for teachers with grade III certificates (mean= 3.36), followed by those with diploma (mean = 3.32), then those with Bachelor degrees (mean = 3.28) and those with postgraduate qualifications had the lowest work engagement (mean = 3.22). However, engagement of teachers according to levels of education were low ($p = 0.802$, $p > 0.05$).

On average, teachers who were married (mean= 3.35) had higher work engagement, followed by those who were single but never married (mean = 3.29), then those were divorced (mean = 3.14) and those who widowed had the lowest (mean = 3.14). Nonetheless, work engagement of teachers did not differ according to marital statuses of teachers in primary schools ($p = 0.692$, $p > 0.05$). On average, teachers who had worked for less than 1 year (mean= 3.46) had higher work engagement than others but the differences in work engagement according to teaching experience ($p = 0.118$, $p > 0.05$) were insignificant. On average, subject teacher only (mean = 3.37) had higher mean than those in administrative positions (mean = 3.30). Thus, work engagement of teachers significantly differed according

to position in the schools with subject teachers only having higher work engagement levels ($p = 0.038$, $p < 0.05$).

Regression analysis revealed that the variance in work engagement of teachers expounded by the six significant individual characteristics was 53.8% (R2 Adjusted = 0.538). Thus, 46.2% of the differences were a result of antecedents not given attention in this study. The model was good ($F = 54.535$, $p = 0.000< 0.5$). The test divulged that sex ($\beta= 0.333$, $p = 000 < 0.05$), age groups ($\beta = 0.246$, $p = 000 < 0.05$), position in the organisation ($\beta = 0.158$, $p = 034 < 0.05$), and self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.225$, $p = 000 < 0.05$) was a good high predictor of work engagement of primary teachers. While educational level ($\beta = 0.107$, $p = 182 > 0.05$) had a positive but insignificant influence on work engagement of teachers, marital status (-0.057, $p = 0.185 > 0.05$) and teaching experience (-0.089, $p = 0.104 < 0.05$) and had negative and insignificant relationships with work engagement of primary teachers. Therefore, while sub-hypotheses H1, H2, H6 and H7 were supported, sub hypotheses H3- H4 were not. As the betas (βs) divulge, that sex was a higher predictor followed by age, self-efficacy and position in the schools respectively.

6.1.3 Organisational Factors and Work Engagement of Teachers

Descriptive findings divulged that teachers rated leadership support in the schools to be fair mean (3.40, Std = 0.95, Std = 0.94) and social support was also fair (Mean = 3.40, Std = 0.94). Overall, organisational factors of the organisation were fair mean (3.20, Std = 0.86). Regression analysis revealed that organisational leadership support and social support factors explained 44.0% of work engagement (adjusted $R^2 = 0.440$). Hence, 60.0% of the differences were a result of antecedents not given

attention in this study. The model was good ($F = 117.059$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). The test findings divulged that organisational leadership support factors ($\beta = 0.467$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and social support factors ($\beta = 0.245$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) had were high antecedents of work engagement of teachers in primary schools. The betas (βs) divulged that organisational factors were a higher predictor of work engagement of teachers than social support factors. The results suggested that both sub-hypotheses eight and nine were supported.

6.1.4 Individual Characteristics and Work Engagement of Teachers Moderated by Organisational Factors

The moderation the test revealed that individual and organisational factors explained 48.2% engagement of teachers (adjusted $R^2 = 0.482$). Hence, 51.2% of the differences were a result of antecedents not considered in this study. The test findings divulged that individual characteristics ($\beta = 0.3502$, $p = 0.003 < 0.05$) and organisational factors ($\beta = 0.4542$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) were high antecedents of work engagement of teachers in primary schools. Therefore, hypotheses one and two (H1 and H2) were supported. The betas (βs) divulged that organisational factors were a higher predictor of work engagement of teachers than individual characteristics. However, the moderating effect (individual x organisational factors) was positive but insignificant ($\beta = 0.0946$, $p = 0.150 > 0.05$). Therefore, the organisational factors had an insignificant moderating effect. Hypothesis Three (H3) proposing that organisational factors had moderating effect was rejected.

6.2 Conclusions

The Summary Analysis on individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers moderated by organisational factors were the basis for the following conclusions;

1. Individual characteristics are crucial for work engagement of teachers. The individual characteristics that significantly influence how teachers engage with their work are sex, age, job position, and self-efficacy. Male teachers exhibited higher levels of engagement compared to their female counterparts, and older teachers were generally more engaged than younger ones, likely due to increased experience and emotional resilience. Teachers in subject-specific roles also reported higher engagement, suggesting that professional responsibilities within the school structure impact motivational levels. Self-efficacy stood out as a particularly strong predictor, as teachers who believed in their abilities to overcome challenges and manage their work effectively were more likely to remain dedicated and absorbed in their tasks. These results underscore the importance of individual beliefs and demographic profiles in shaping engagement, though the impact of characteristics such as education, marital status, and teaching experience appeared minimal.
2. Organisational factors in the form of leadership and social support are essential for the engagement of teachers. When school leaders actively provide professional development opportunities, recognize teacher achievements, and foster supportive work environments, teachers respond with increased work engagement. Also, leadership that is accessible,

encouraging, and empathetic helps create a climate where teachers become engaged. Social support, both from peers and superiors, further strengthens engagement by promoting collaboration, offering strategies to manage difficult students, and reinforcing a shared sense of purpose. When senior staff mentor junior teachers and colleagues acknowledge each other's efforts, a culture of mutual respect and trust is built, which directly contributes to teachers' engagement.

3. Giving individual characteristics and organisational factors equal emphasis in schools to promote work engagement should not be an overriding factor. This is because organisational factors do not significantly moderate the relationship between individual characteristics and work engagement, suggesting that organisational support alone may not enhance or diminish the influence of personal attributes such as age, sex, or experience. While individual traits remain important in shaping how teachers approach their work, organisational structures like leadership and social support appear to exert a more direct influence on engagement outcomes. This means that schools may benefit more from strengthening organisational elements rather than relying on the interplay between individual differences and organisational factors.

6.3 Recommendations

This study suggested the following recommendations from analysis of the data on individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers moderated by organisational factors;

1. The Ministry of Education and Sports, in collaboration with District Education Officers, head teachers, and other education stakeholders, should take into account individual characteristics when designing and implementing teacher support programs. For example, female teachers may require tailored support mechanisms to enhance their engagement. Older and more experienced teachers should be encouraged to mentor junior staff, and efforts should be made to assign teachers based on subject specialisation. Additionally, deliberate strategies should be adopted to enhance teachers' self-efficacy by building their confidence in managing classroom challenges, navigating unforeseen situations, and drawing on their past accomplishments to strengthen their performance.
2. Head teachers should prioritise leadership and social support within schools. This includes providing professional development opportunities, recognising and rewarding effective teaching, and fostering collegiality. School leaders and senior teachers should actively support their colleagues by sharing strategies for managing classroom challenges, promoting teacher wellbeing, and creating a school culture in which all teachers feel valued, respected, and empowered to contribute.
3. The Ministry of Education and Sports, in partnership with education officials and head teachers should strengthen school-level systems that enhance employee engagement. While both individual characteristics and organisational factors influence teacher engagement, organisational support structures should be given greater emphasis. Organisational factors shape the context in which individual characteristics can flourish; therefore,

sustainable improvements in teacher engagement require strong institutional backing alongside attention to individual needs.

6.4 Contribution of the Study

This section presents a modified conceptual model based on the findings of the study suggesting how individual characteristics and organisational factors promote work engagement of teachers. This is a structured approach to understanding how personal and organisational elements influence teacher engagement. Rooted in Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and Perceived Organisational Support Theory (POST), the model suggests how to enhance the engagement of teachers. This is as indicated in Figure 6.1.

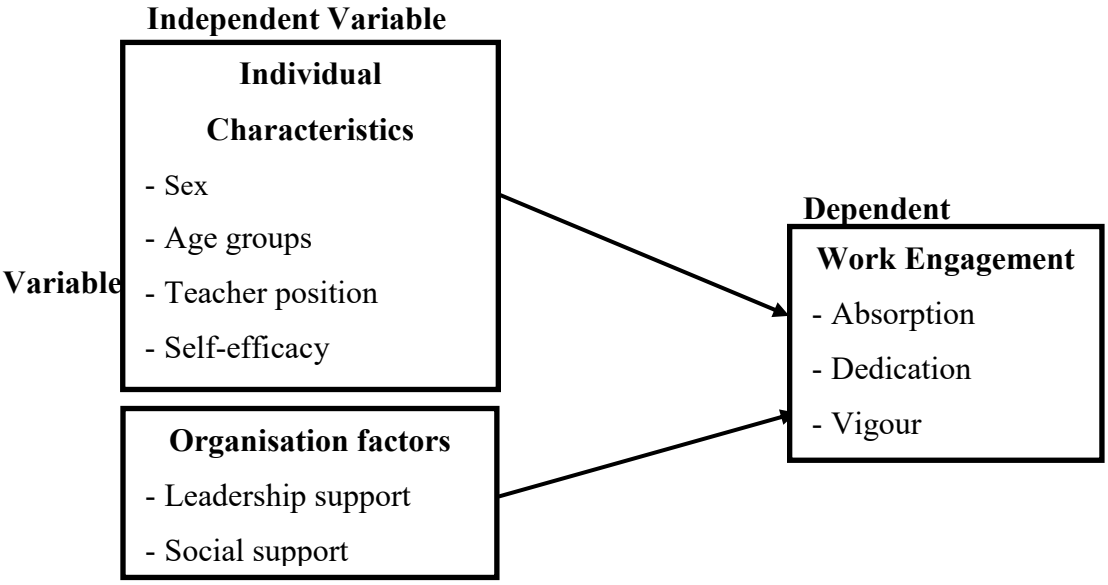

Figure 6.1: A Modified Conceptual Model suggesting how to use individual characteristics and organisational factors to promote work engagement of teachers.

The conceptual framework in Figure 6.1 illustrates how individual characteristics and organisational factors influence the level of work engagement among teachers. Individual characteristics include gender, age, teacher position, and self-efficacy,

which represent personal traits and internal capacities that may shape a teacher's work engagement. Organisational factors consist of leadership and social support and influences contribute to creating a positive work environment that affects engagement of teachers. The framework suggests that work engagement is the outcome of the interaction between these personal and organiational factors. It integrates principles from Social Cognitive Theory, which emphasizes the reciprocal relationship between personal beliefs and environmental conditions, and Perceived Organisational Support Theory, which highlights the role of organisational care and recognition in motivating employees. Together, the elements in the framework provide a comprehensive understanding of how individual characterictics and organisational factors can be leveraged to promote higher levels of engagement among teachers.

6.5 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The study highlights the significance of both individual characteristics and organisational factors in relation to work engagement. However, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the study's findings regarding some variables diverged from those of previous research. For example, unlike prior studies, this research did not find strong variations between education level, marital status, and work experience in relation to work engagement. This contrasts with earlier findings by Hakanen et al. (2019), Chan et al. (2020), Shukla et al. (2015), Çemberci et al. (2022), and Rana et al. (2019). These inconsistencies suggest the need for future scholars to further explore these demographic variables in different educational and cultural contexts to better understand their influence on teacher engagement.

Second, the hypothesis regarding the moderating effect of organisational factors on the relationship between individual characteristics and work engagement was not supported by the findings. Given the theoretical foundation for this relationship, future research should re-examine this hypothesis in varied settings and possibly with mixed-method or longitudinal approaches.

Third, the study relied solely on a quantitative research design. While this allowed for broad data collection and statistical analysis, it limited the ability to gain in-depth insights into teachers' subjective experiences and contextual situations. Incorporating qualitative methods in future studies could provide a richer understanding of how and why certain factors influence work engagement. Fourth, the study was geographically limited to one sub-region of Uganda. This restricts the generalisability of the findings to other regions of the country or to different national contexts. Work engagement is influenced by cultural, institutional, and socioeconomic variables that may vary significantly across regions. Therefore, future research should consider expanding the geographic scope to ensure more representative findings.

Lastly, the study did not distinguish between teachers from government-aided and private schools. This was due to the absence of this classification in the data collection instrument. As a result, the potential differences in work engagement based on school type were not examined. Given the structural and resource-related disparities between public and private educational institutions in Uganda, future research should intentionally include this variable to uncover possible variations in engagement levels. In summary, while the study provides valuable insights,

addressing these limitations in future research would enhance the robustness, depth, and applicability of the findings.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRIMARY TEACHERS

Kyambogo University
P.O. Box 1, Kyambogo, Uganda
February 2023

Dear Respondent,

I am currently investigating whether "individual characteristics and work engagement of teachers are moderated by organisational factors in Acholi-Sub Region, Uganda". The study also aims to offer recommendations on how to improve job engagement of teachers' effective job performance. The data given will be extremely helpful in compiling the study and improving the effectiveness of primary school teachers. Your information will not be leaked to anyone in any way. Your participation will be entirely anonymous because your name does not appear on the questionnaire. Still, data will be disseminated in aggregate form to protect your privacy.

Yours faithfully,

…….

GILBERT OLANYA

SECTION A: WORK ENGAGEMENT OF TEACHERS (DEPENDENT VARIABLE)

Please respond to each statement that best describes individual factors that may affect the extent to which a primary school teacher shows passion and commitment for the teaching job. In the cells to the right: 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (D), 3 = Undecided (U), 2 = Agree (A), and 1 = Strongly Agree (A)

ABS	**ABSORPTION**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
AB1	When working on my teaching job duties, time flies					
AB2	I lose track of anything else when working on my teaching job tasks					
AB3	When I am putting a lot of effort into my teaching job tasks, I feel joyful					
AB4	I am always engrossed in my teaching in this school					
AB5	I forget everything else when I am working on my assignments in this school					
AB6	I am insuperable to my teaching job in this school					
DED	**DEDICATION**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
DED1	In my teaching job in this school I perceive a lot of purpose and significance					
DED2	Working as a teacher in this school excites me					
DED3	I am thrilled with the work I do as a teacher					
DED4	I am pleased with the job I engage in at this school					
DED5	As a teacher in this school, my job challenges me to work harder					
VIG	**VIGOUR**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
VIG1	I am always bursting with energy when on my teaching job					
VIG2	Whenever working on my job, I feel energised and powerful					
VIG3	Every morning when I wake up, I look forward to working on my school tasks					
VIG4	When on my teaching job, I work for extended amounts of time					
VIG5	I am mentally resilient hence performing effectively					
VIG6	I constantly keep going at my work in this school, even when things are difficult					

SECTION B: INDIVIDUAL FACTORS (IF)

Supply information on the following variables;

IF1: Sex; 1) Male 2) Female

IF2: Age group in years; 1) Up to 30, 2) 30 but below 40, 3) 40 and above

IF3: Highest level of education attained; 1) Grade III Certificate, 2) diplomas, 3) Bachelor's degree, 4) Postgraduate qualifications

IF4: Marital status; 1) Single never married, 2) Married, 3) Widowed, 4) Divorced

1F5: Teaching experience; 1) Less than 1 year, 2) 1 but less than 5 years, 3) 5 but less than 10 years, 4) More than 10 years

IF6: Position in the school; 1) Administrative position (e.g. Class teacher, Head of department, and director of studies among others), 2) Strictly subject teacher only

FC7: Self-Efficacy

The following items are on your self-efficacy as an academic staff. Considering the question on the same, provide your responses using the scale; 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly Agree.

IFS	**SELF-EFFICACY**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
IFS1	I am always able to find solutions to challenging issues at work in this institution					
IFS2	In this school, even if someone is against me, I can still find a way to achieve my goals					
IFS3	I have confidence that I can handle unforeseen circumstances at this institution with grace					
IFS4	I maintain my composure in the face of challenges at this institution					
IFS5	I am sure that my skills match or surpass those of my peers at this institution.					

IFS6	My prior experiences give me more faith that I will succeed in this institution					
IFS7	My prior successes give me more faith that I will succeed in this school					
IFS8	My work at this institution meets my needs and expectations					

SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS (OF) MODERATING VARIABLE

Please respond to each statement that best describes leadership and social support that may influence the extent to which a primary school teacher might show work engagement. In the cells to the right: 5 = strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Undecided, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree)

LS	**LEADERSHIP SUPPORT**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
LS 1	We often share ideas on effective teaching resources with senior teachers to enable me do better					
LS 2	School management always provides resources and structures to help me achieve my profession goals					
LS 3	My HOD gives me professional development opportunities to enable me become an effective primary school teacher					
LS 4	School management often provides me practical viewpoints on how to better engage pupils in learning					
LS 5	I receive training from senior teachers on better ways to provide quality classroom instruction					
LS 6	My school gives recognition (allowances, appreciation) to teachers upon successful completion of teaching tasks					
LS 7	School management provides written feedback on how I can improve my pedagogical practices					
LS 8	Experienced colleagues in my department always give me oral feedback on how I can have achieving learners					

PS	SOCIAL SUPPORT	SD	D	U	D	SD
		1	2	3	4	5
PS 1	Senior teachers in my school have enabled me come up with more effective ways of managing difficult pupils					
PS 2	My HOD gives me constructive ideas on how to balance work and life roles					
PS 3	School management shows me how to manage daily teaching challenges					
PS 4	I get regular training on effective ways of managing my self					
PS 5	Senior teachers in my school usually give me techniques to improve my wellbeing					
PS 6	School management always discusses with me how I can solve work related problems					
PS 7	I often get reassurance from my HOD when the going gets tough					
PS 8	I have been made to feel a very valued member of my school community					

End

Thank you for participating