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**The impact of human resource
development policies
on lecturers' job engagement.
A university case study in Viet Nam**

by

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**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education**

University of Warwick

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Declaration

The study reported in this thesis was solely developed and undertaken by the author from October 2015 to September 2019. I declare that, except for the work whose authors are explicitly acknowledged, this thesis is my original work. I confirm that this thesis has not been submitted for a degree at any other universities.

Abstract

The university under examination has a strategic objective of integrating into global higher education (HE) and being a pioneer of Vietnamese HE innovation. Therefore, it is having to face profound changes in global and national HE which create pressures on lecturers who perform vital jobs in the university. This may lead to lecturers' overload and stress (Bowen, Rose and Pilkington, 2016), reducing their job engagement in their key job responsibilities (Byrne and MacDonagh, 2017). This can diminish staff's well-being and performance, leading to worse outcomes for the organization (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002; Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010). This is because employees who are engaged in their job are more productive, creative, and willing to do extra work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008), while disengaged ones present a lack of commitment and motivation which can negatively affect organizational success (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010; Gallup, 2018). Thus, lecturers' job engagement should be a key concern of the university.

Because engagement is a two-way relationship, organizations need to create the right work environment for employees' engagement, e.g. workplace relationships and values (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008). This can be done through organizational tools such as human resource development (HRD) policies (i.e. interventions to develop employees) (Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi, 2014). This research aims to examine the psychological mechanism of how HRD policies can affect lecturers' job engagement from a Self-Determination Theory (SDT) perspective. Specifically, it is argued that, through satisfying lecturers'

basic psychological needs at work (BPNW) (i.e. needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness), HRD policies can enhance their job engagement. Two main research questions were developed, namely: 1. How are current HRD policies affecting lecturers' BPNW, and through this, their job engagement at Tiên Phong University? 2. How can the university use HRD policies to enhance its lecturers' job engagement?

406 out of 1570 lecturers returned useable responses to the online questionnaire of this study. 43 out of 84 volunteers also participated in in-depth interviews.

Twelve findings of the study indicate a positive relationship between job engagement and lecturers' overall evaluation of the positive impact of the university's HRD policies on their psychological needs at work. In other words, lecturers who have higher level of job engagement tend to say that the HRD policies more satisfy their needs for autonomy, competence, and a trustworthy and supportive work environment. The findings also indicate reasons for lecturers' job engagement and confirm the mediating role of BPNW in the relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement. Specifically, the way that the contents and implementation of HRD policies do or do not satisfy lecturers' BPNW links to the reasons for their job engagement or disengagement. Finally, specific solutions related to all groups of HRD policies, namely training, work system, support to competence development, career development, performance management, organizational communication, and recognition/reward/compensation/punishment were recommended by lecturers in order to keep lecturers' job engagement at the right level, helping the university keep effective.

Abbreviations

A-JE	Average of job engagement based on Utrecht work engagement scale
AMOS	A statistical software used for Structural Equation Modeling
BPNW	Basic psychological needs at work
BPNWS	Basic psychological needs at work scale
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
ComD	Competence development
CulD	Culture Development
EFA	Explorative factor analysis
GD-ĐT	Giáo dục – Đào tạo [Education – Training]
GOV	The Government of Viet Nam
HE	Higher education
HR	Human resource
HRD	Human resource development
HRM	Human resource management
JD-R	Job Demands – Resources Model
KPI	Key performance indicator
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
SDT	Self – Determination Theory
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UWES	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale
VND	Vietnamese currency

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Research problem

Gleason (2018) points out that technological developments in hardware, software and networking have affected both human life and the working environment. Furthermore, automation is changing the requirements of the labour market and moving it towards a knowledge economy (Gleason, 2018). Thus, the skills demanded from employees in the future will be different from the past and even from today. For example, by 2020 social skills (e.g. persuasion, emotional intelligence and teaching others) will be required more by employers than narrow technical skills (e.g. programming or equipment operation and control) (World Economic Forum, 2016). Additionally, not only universities and academics but also other types of organizations and even individuals are now able to create and disseminate knowledge and information on the internet for others to quickly access and then apply in flexible ways (Trần and Marginson, 2014; Arvanitakis and Hornsby, 2016). These developments ask global higher education (HE), particularly universities, to change in order to provide human capital which is able to adapt to the new context. Therefore, universities need to be active actors in the knowledge economy to satisfy diverse societal needs (Göransson and Brundenius, 2011).

The profound change required of universities places a huge pressure on their staff, especially academics. Academic work has become more complex. Academics are being asked to work not only as teachers, researchers, and supervisors, as traditionally, but also as curriculum designers, administrators,

communicators, counsellor and funding competitors (Debowski, 2017); and even as facilitators and marketers (Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000).

Like many other universities in Viet Nam and in the world, the university under examination has experienced considerable changes as a result of globalization and the current reform of the national economy (Tran and Nguyen, 2011). To safeguard the anonymity, the university has been given the pseudonym Tiên Phong University. Its mission includes providing high-quality graduates who can help develop the country; being a leading university in research, technology and knowledge transfer so that it can contribute to the national industrialization and modernization; and being recognized internationally (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014a). To pursue the mission in an ever-changing context, lecturers at the university play a critical role because they are in charge of two of the key activities of the university, i.e. teaching and research. In Vietnam, academics who work in universities and are engaged in teaching and research are called lecturers (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2012), thus, “lecturer” will be used interchangeably with “academic” meaning the incumbents of the job roles generally in HE institutions, particularly in the university under investigation. Lecturers at the university have come under pressure as their roles have expanded and become more complex. They are subject to greater expectation in teaching delivery to prepare graduates for employers’ requirements, and in research publication to gain international recognition. Therefore, the quality of lecturers’ performance has become more important than ever for the university to implement its mission as well as possible.

The plethora of responsibilities is problematic when it leads to academic overload and stress (Bowen, Rose and Pilkington, 2016). This challenges lecturers to maintain their engagement in the job roles. Indeed, a study by Byrne and MacDonagh (2017) indicates that academics cannot engage simultaneously in all three job roles, namely teaching, research, and services. Job engagement, hereforth, is understood as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 74). Specifically, the authors define vigor as an individual’s high energy, mental resilience and persistence when working; dedication as a feeling of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge; absorption as being fully focused and engrossed in work.

Lecturers’ job engagement may affect universities’ performance because there is evidence that job engagement has a positive link to employee accomplishment leading to improved organizational outcomes (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002; Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010). This is because engaged employees are more productive, creative, and willing to do extra work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008), while disengaged ones present a lack of commitment and motivation which can negatively affect organizational success (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010; Gallup, 2018).

Furthermore, job engagement helps maintain employees’ well-being. Research indicates that engaged employees experience positive feelings towards work and their organization and suffer less from depressive symptoms (Ahola and Hakanen, 2014) and psychosomatic complaints, and even take positive benefits from stressful work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). Hence, enhancing job engagement can help not only improve organizational outcomes, but also

support individual well-being (Schullery, 2013). Therefore, lecturers' job engagement is something the university should take seriously in the pursuit of its challenging mission.

Importantly, although employees have the right to decide if and how much they engage in their job roles (Kahn, 1992), this decision depends not only on employees, but also on organizations (Imperatori, 2017). In this two-way relationship, organizations can put in place important conditions, such as harmonious workplace relationships, work-life balance, values, leadership, and job characteristics, which encourage employees to actively engage in their jobs (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008). Therefore, enhancing employee job engagement in order to keep organizations effective has become a priority for human resource (HR) managers (Arrowsmith and Parker, 2013). Thus, to pursue their highly challenging mission, organizations such as the university under investigation should consider employees' job engagement as a strategic concern in their human resource management (HRM) system.

In HRM, HR development (HRD) has emerged as a promising tool to obtain the most effective performance from employees in order to support organizational strategies (Garavan, McGuire and O'Donnell, 2004). This suggests organizations such as the university need to look at the relationship between HRD and its lecturers' job engagement to investigate whether and how the university can use HRD policies/activities to enhance lecturers' job engagement. Generally, HRD covers a system of activities of developing people in line with the organizational goals. For example, HRD includes training and development, organization development (e.g. culture, leadership, and work system), and career development to improve the effectiveness of individuals, groups and

organizations (McLagan, 1989). Thus, HRD can contribute to organizational conditions that increase employee engagement, e.g. workplace relationship, leadership, and values as pointed out by Wildermuth and Pauken (2008). In other words, universities can use organizational HRD activities in order to improve employees' job engagement.

How HRD can affect employees' job engagement and, especially, the psychological mechanism underpinning this relationship, has received little attention from researchers (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). Macey *et.al.* (2009) claim that although people come to work for pay, they become engaged because of the meaningfulness of their job and a good organizational environment, e.g. competent managers, organizational fairness and good workplace conditions. In other words, the meaning of work includes not only extrinsic rewards in the form of money, promotion, status, and visibility; but also intrinsic rewards such as a sense of achievement and autonomy, recognition by others (Kerr 1975 and Deci 1975, cited in Kahn, 2010); as well as employees' perception of fair outcomes resulting from the organization's effective measurement system (Kahn, 2010). As such, the psychological mechanism of how HRD as well as other organizational activities impact on employees' job engagement is very complicated rather than just focusing on improving tangible rewards, e.g. increasing salary and other types of benefits.

Clearly, the reasons for job engagement mentioned above relate to employees' basic psychological needs at work (BPNW). BPNW is systematically developed within Self-determination theory (SDT), a theory which include three needs, namely autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2014). For instance, employees' sense of autonomy as a reason

for their job engagement relates to the need for autonomy (i.e. feeling of autonomously deciding how work is done); employees' sense of achievement links to the need for competence (i.e. feeling of being competent to complete the job well); and employees' perception of fairness is associated with the need for relatedness (i.e. feeling of being connected, cared by and caring about others) (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). As a result, it is necessary to understand the relationship between job engagement and BPNW, between the needs and HRD/other organizational activities and the role of the needs in the relationship between HRD and job engagement. By understanding these relationships, we can better understand how HRD affects job engagement, both positively and negatively. Although this topic is necessary and valuable, there is little research in the field of HRD investigating job engagement through the lens of BPNW (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). Thus, more research on the topic is imperative. This explains why the relationship between HRD policies/activities and lecturers' work engagement through satisfaction of lecturers' BPNW was selected for the current study. It is hoped that the findings will contribute to theory and the university's practical need.

1.2. Background

1.2.1. Overview of Vietnamese HE

In April 2019, Vietnam had over 96 million people, making it the third largest country (by population) in Southeast Asia after Indonesia and the Philippines, and the fifteenth largest in the world (Ban Chỉ đạo Tổng điều tra dân số và nhà ở trung ương [National Executive Board], 2019, p. 45). The labour force aged 15 and above reached 55.4 million people in 2018, accounting for

about 58% of the population in the same year (General Statistics Office, 2017, p. 13, 2018, p. 47).

The socio-economic development of Vietnam has positively changed. The economic growth rate in 2018 was 7.08% - the highest increase during the last eleven years (General Statistics Office, 2018, p. 19). The poverty rate decreased from 9.2% (2016) to 7.9% (2017) and 6.8% (2018) (General Statistics Office, 2018, p. 400). The unemployment rate of labour force of working age reduced from 2.3% (2016) to 2.24% (2017) and 2.19% (2018). The rate of trained employees of working age who hold qualifications and certificates slightly increased from 20.6 (2016) to 21.4 (2017) and 21.9 (2018) (General Statistics Office, 2017, 2018). To maintain these positive results, the quality of the labour force must remain high, which requires adequate development of the national education system, particularly HE and vocational education.

Vietnam has 54 ethnic groups with their own languages. Vietnamese is the official and common language of communication and instruction in the country (Đỗ and Đỗ, 2014). The nation's human development index (HDI) was 0.694 (2017), making it 7th out of eleven countries in the Southeast Asia, and 116th in the world (General Statistics Office, 2018, p. 449).

After a thousand year of being invaded by China, Vietnam was invaded and occupied by Japan, and France as the principal colonial power (Trần and Marginson, 2014). The nation achieved its independence from France in 1945. However, after that, France went back to invade the country until 1954. Based on the Peace Agreement signed in Genève (Switzerland) in 1954, France was defeated and officially left Vietnam (Welch, 2010), and Vietnam had been divided into two countries of which the Republic of Vietnam in the South was

assisted by the United States, while the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in the North was assisted by the Soviet Union (Welch, 2010). Finally, Vietnam achieved national unification in 1975 following victory by the North (Trần and Marginson, 2014). The victory created a barrier in the international relationships between Vietnam and Western countries who were allies of the United States. Because the country became underdeveloped leading to a socio-economic crisis after the war, the government of Vietnam decided to deploy a comprehensive socio-economic reform and diplomatic opening known as “Đổi mới” [Reforming and Opening door] in 1986. The government invested a huge effort to replace central planning in the Soviet tradition with a regulated market economy, industrializing and modernizing the country; developing cooperation with all Western and non-Western countries; and actively integrating into globalization (e.g. the country’s accession to the World Trade Organization in 2007) (Hayden and Lam, 2010) . These main historical milestones have affected the national HE in the following ways: the influence of Confucianism from China’s education; of French education during France’s colonial time, of American education in the South before the nation’s unification, and of the Soviet governance style (Welch, 2010); as well as the changes and challenges created by the integration to global trends/standards.

In the long history of being invaded by China, Confucianism has had a significant impact on Vietnam’s society. For example, examinations based on Confucianism were used for the recruitment of officials in Vietnam from 1075 to 1919 AD (Yang, 1993, cited in Welch, 2010). As a part of the Confucian tradition, Vietnamese people/families are still highly committed to learning, leading to the fact that teachers have been held in high esteem by the community

through the long history of the nation (Trần and Marginson, 2014). This seems to ensure a plentiful pool of students for Vietnamese HE as well conferring a high social status on teaching jobs, which affects all universities, lecturers and students.

During the French colonial time, French education was accessible to a small number of Vietnamese (Welch, 2010). Alexander de Rhodes developed a new Roman script form for modern Vietnamese language which has been used to date as the official language of the country (Welch, 2010). Catholicism was imported to Vietnam. Most institutions of higher learning were established by the French, e.g. School of Medicine and Pharmacy in 1902, and Teacher Training College in 1920. However, France allowed only 3% of Vietnam's population to enroll in the education system, while over 95% remained illiterate (Pham, 1998; cited in Welch, 2010).

American education had an influence on Vietnam's HE in the Southern half of the country through the establishment of Western-styled universities and community colleges there. These were at an early stage of development from 1954 to 1975 with the nation reunification (Welch, 2010).

With the assistance of the Soviet Union after 1954, many specialist HE institutions, e.g. in agriculture, forestry, and pharmacy, were established in the North of Vietnam based on the Soviet model (Welch, 2010). This contributed significantly to the development of Vietnam's HE at that time. However, the Soviet governance style (characterized by State centralization) affected Vietnamese HE system. Specifically, the HE system was associated with the bureaucracy of the State and under the State control until the early 1990s (Dao, 2015), e.g. universities operated as governmental agencies. Although Vietnam

has changed from the Soviet model of HE to a Western model (Harman, Hayden and Pham, 2010), the Soviet style still continues to have a strong influence on the HE system, becoming one of the main challenges for the reform of Vietnamese HE (Dao, 2015), e.g. challenging the development of private HE and autonomy of public universities.

The country's adoption of a more market-oriented economy as result of globalization since "Đổi mới" reform led to the transformation of other sectors. For instance, in HE, private and international universities have been developing, which promotes high competition in HE (Le, 2014). As a result, new forms of education and training have been developed simultaneously with traditional public forms (Le, 2014), both of which adopt more global standards.

According to the latest-approved Law on Education, Vietnamese education system includes four levels, i.e. level 1- pre-school education [Giáo dục Mầm non]; level 2 – general education [Giáo dục phổ thông] (including primary, lower secondary and upper secondary school); level 3 – vocational school [Giáo dục nghề nghiệp] (including preliminary, intermediate and college qualifications; and other vocational programmes); and level 4 – higher education [Giáo dục đại học] (including bachelor, master and doctoral degrees) (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2019). Levels from pre-school education for 5 year-old children to lower secondary education are compulsory and operate in full-time mode only. Upper secondary schools are offered full-time as well. Levels 3 and 4 may be operated in both full-time and part-time/short courses/distance learning modes.

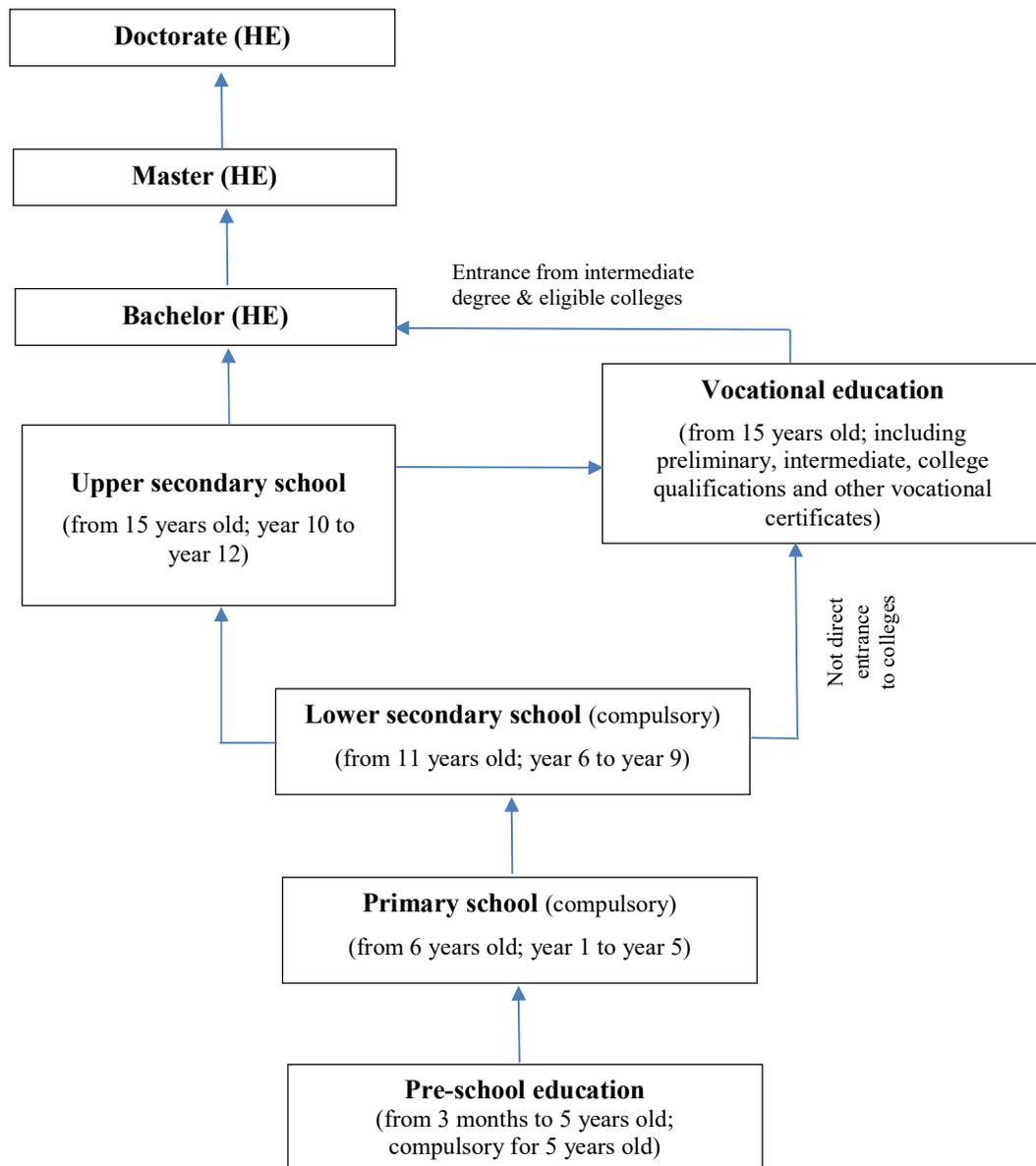


Figure 1.1. Vietnam's education system

After completing lower school education, pupils can choose to enter upper secondary schools or vocational schools/centres. After completing upper secondary school or eligible college degrees, they can study bachelor

programmes in universities. The criteria for university entrance are mainly based on the applicants' graduation scores at lower levels.

HE in Viet Nam has changed significantly since the government promulgated the Resolution on fundamental and comprehensive reform of Vietnam's HE 2006-2020 and Strategy for education development 2011-2020. Specifically, the government wants to improve the quality of the HE system so that it provides graduates who can adapt to complicated changes in the labour market and compete in an international environment, as well as contributing the knowledge resource to the national industrialization and modernization (Thủ tướng [Prime Minister], 2012).

According to the Law on amendments to the law on higher education (2018), there are two types of institutions in Vietnam's HE, which are public and private. The public institutions are funded and tightly controlled by the State. The State is their representative owner. The private ones are funded and run by individuals and private organizations, including domestic and foreign investors. Based on the competence and the requirement of socio-economic development, HE institutions determine their goals and orientation of performance which is research-oriented or application-oriented. HE institutions can choose to be ranked in national or international league tables (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2018).

There are two types of universities in Vietnam's HE. The first type is an independent university focusing on one discipline (i.e. single-discipline university) (Lâm, 2013), e.g. university of economics, university of pedagogy, etc. The second one is a combination of one-discipline universities and research institutions in multi disciplines (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2012). The latter are often called multi-area universities, e.g. the two national universities, the

regional universities. More specifically, an area is defined as a group of disciplines having common aspects (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2018). The single-discipline universities embedded in a multi-area university are called affiliated or member universities of the latter.

Vietnam HE system is composed of the following institutions:

- 5 key public universities: two national universities located in the two biggest cities of Vietnam (Ha Noi and Ho Chi Minh city) and three regional universities in Thai Nguyen province, Hue city, and Da Nang city. They include 36 public affiliated universities in total.

- 162 multi- and single-discipline universities and HE institutions, including both public and private types.

- 29 local public universities which are managed by the provincial People's Committee and offer two kinds of programmes: (1) several key programmes for local residents only; and (2) other programmes for the public.

- Other universities/institutions belonging to Ministry of National Defence and Ministry of Public Security.

In 2017, there were 170 public universities compared with 65 non-public ones; 59,300 teachers working for public universities and 15,700 for non-public ones; 1432.6 thousand students in public universities and 263.3 thousand in non-public ones (General Statistics Office, 2018). Vietnam's HE has been expanding rapidly to provide the required labour force for the country. The government has projected that by 2020 there will be 450 students per 10,000 persons, meaning about 4.5 million students (Chính phủ [GOV], 2005); and 70% of labour force will have been trained at vocational and HE levels (Thủ tướng [Prime Minister],

2012). This goal has required the expansion and restructure of HE (Harman, Hayden and Pham, 2010).

Public HE institutions can be autonomous when they meet the government's requirements of competence for autonomy such as having regulation system for operation and organization; having required organizational structure; publishing quality assurance and graduate reports. Autonomous institutions are allowed to make their own decisions in academic activities, i.e. issuing and implementing criteria, quality policies; opening new training programmes; student recruitment; scientific and technological activities; domestic and foreign cooperations. They can also be autonomous in organizational and HR management, i.e. issuing and implementing internal regulations on organizational structures, HR structure, job specifications, staff recruitment and assignment, and employment termination; and deciding management boards. Autonomy is also allowed in finance and property, i.e. issuing and implementing internal regulations on revenue (including grants from national budget), financial management; attracting external investments for development; tuition and scholarship policies and other policies. Alongside this autonomy, the institutions must comply with regulations on accountability, e.g. quality policies and commitment, online published annual reports, reporting reward and compensation policies for management boards in annual staff meetings, and financial auditing (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2018). However, autonomous public institutions still have to comply with the government's regulations on performance management (e.g. standard of minimum teaching and research hours per year for lecturers), reward and recognition (e.g. reward titles and attached bonus system), compensation (e.g. fix salary framework) and punishment and

other HR functions (e.g. training certificates and staff criteria). Autonomous institutions can develop their own regulations as long as they do not conflict with the government's ones. Public HE institutions that do not meet the requirements for autonomy are not allowed to have autonomy in these areas of their operation.

In such general context of HE, there are several factors having considerable influence on HRM, especially HRD in Vietnamese universities.

In 2015, the government announced the criteria for ranking Vietnamese HE institutions into three levels based on their quality from 1 (the best) to 3 (the lowest) (Chính phủ [GOV], 2015b). However, to date, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has not published any official university ranking report based on the criteria up to date. Thus, several Vietnamese HE universities are registering themselves for international ranking, e.g. QS World University Rankings, Ranking Web of Universities (Webometrics) and Nature Index; or in a ranking report conducted by an independent group of Vietnamese researchers (Nhóm xếp hạng đại học Việt Nam [Group of Vietnam University Ranking], 2017). Ranking helps the government evaluate the quality of HE institutions and motivate universities to improve themselves, but it may create a competition for high performers. This is because the quality of academics is an important factor in deciding the quality of a university (Debowski, 2017). Universities with high-quality lecturers and a higher rank may be more attractive to prospective students. Therefore, ranking promotes and at the same time puts pressure on universities and lecturers to continuously develop their competence/quality (Erkkilä and Piironen, 2018).

The government wants to focus on developing the two national universities into leading, excellent, and internationally-recognized universities; and several

other internationally-recognized universities (e.g. Vietnam-Germany University, Vietnam-Japan University, and University of Science and Technology of Hanoi previously called Vietnam-France University) (Chính phủ [GOV], 2005; Thủ tướng [Prime Minister], 2015). This provides the universities with more support from the government, e.g. funds and other priorities (e.g. cheaper land hiring), to develop themselves. This aims to promote the development of the whole HE. Nonetheless, it challenges the other universities to compete for high-quality academics and student enrolment to maintain or upgrade to the higher rank. The competitiveness has become fiercer for all public universities because of the increase in the number of both public and non-public universities (e.g. 65 non-public universities out of 235 universities nationwide in 2017, compared to 60 out of 229 in 2016 and 50 out of 188 in 2010) (General Statistics Office, 2016, 2017).

To obtain its strategic goal, the government has made developing academics and HE managers one of its key strategies. Together with the greater expectation of quality for academics in both teaching and research, the government set up quantitative targets until 2020 such as 100% of university lecturers hold a master degree or higher; of which 25% hold a doctorate; and 100% of university lecturers can use a foreign language fluently in teaching and research (Thủ tướng [Prime Minister], 2012). The government's strategy did not mention what happens if the targets have not been achieved. However, at the national level, the government has developed programmes to support lecturers in public universities to study at postgraduate level in Vietnam and abroad, e.g. offering doctoral scholarships (Thủ tướng [Prime Minister], 2010). At the organizational level, public universities (e.g. the university under examination)

provide their lecturers with full or partial financial support for postgraduate study and non-financial supports, e.g. reducing the required number of teaching hours so that they can have more time to study. These supports give lecturers valuable opportunities to develop their competency in the context that lecturer salaries in public universities are fixed by the government and deemed as relatively low. This will be discussed later.

When public universities are eligible for autonomy as mentioned before, MOET and other relevant governmental agencies still assure quality through different forms of state management such as promulgating laws, regulations, legal instructions, plans and criteria for quality management in terms of university performance (Chính phủ [GOV], 2015a). As such, universities' decisions regarding HRM/HRD can be more relevant and suitable for the organizations to make them more effective. However, there have been still challenging limits in the policy. For instance, public universities have to comply with the government salary scale which is improving but still “inadequate to cover day-to-day living costs” (Nguyen, Klopper and Smith, 2016, p. 80). This challenges universities who want to attract and retain high performers. They have to find alternative mechanisms by which they can offer attractive benefits to high performers, e.g. accommodation during working time, and other types of bonus. The salary framework for public HE set by the government may be considered a sign of Soviet-style centralization, which may prevent public universities from adjusting their salary policies. Thus, it challenges universities to reform and innovate their performance (Dao, 2015).

Additionally, when the government increases the basic salary, there is no support from the national budget. Instead, universities have to prepare themselves

for the increase (Chính phủ [GOV], 2015a). This may lead to universities' reducing their budget for HRD programmes, e.g. training. HRD programmes are often one of the first areas to be dropped when budgets need cutting because, for managers, the programmes are often seen just as “nice-to-have’s” when financial resource becomes tight (Gosney, 2015, p. xiv).

In short, although the government and the institutions have tried hard to improve the HE system and develop lecturers, it is very challenging to achieve the strategic goals of lecturer development.

1.2.2. Lecturer job and key policies for lecturers

There has been a gradual increase in the number of lectures in Vietnamese public universities.

Year	Number of teachers (Public university and college education)				Number of teachers (Public university education)				
	2000	2003	2005	2007	2010	2014	2015	2016	2017
1000s of people	27.9	34.9	42.0	54.4	43.4	52.7	55.4	57.6	59.3

Table 1.1. Number of teachers in public universities

Source: General Statistics Office (2007, 2018)

This has resulted in the increase in budget for developing public university lecturers at both national and organizational levels. This is because training teaching methods and other necessary professional skills for lecturer is required by laws in Vietnam (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2012).

In Vietnam, lecturers are mainly asked to deliver teaching and research to the required standards. It is noteworthy that a lecturer can have part-time teaching

and/or research contracts with other HE institutions at the same time as their full-time contract with their main institution (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2012 provision 55). This means that lecturers' second or third or more job is officially accepted despite the limit of teaching hours for the second or more job to ensure the maximum required by laws. As mentioned earlier, this may negatively affect lecturer engagement with their full-time job.

According to Law on Higher Education (2012), lecturer job titles include lecturer assistant, lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor, and professor. There are three job levels, including level 3- lecturer, level 2- senior lecturer, level 1- superior lecturer (Bộ trưởng Bộ GD-ĐT [Minister of MOET], 2018).

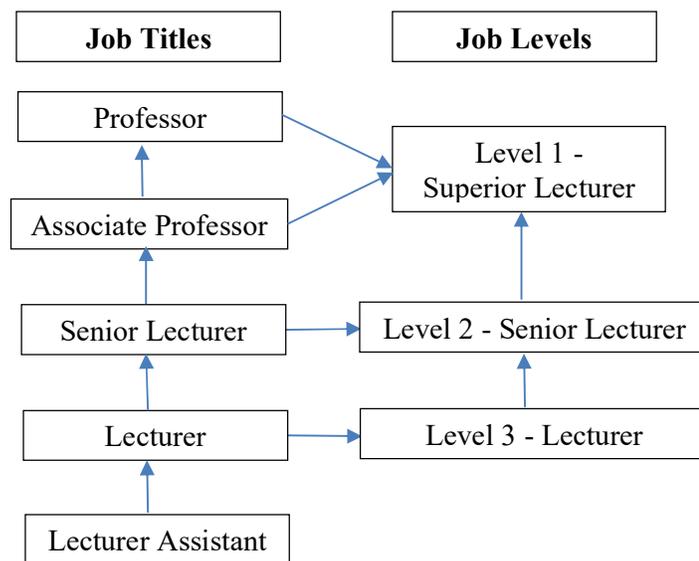


Figure 1.2. Lecturer Job Titles and Levels

MOET defines specific criteria on professional competence, requirements and qualifications for each job title. Ministry of Home Affairs regulates the list,

codes and levels of job titles (Bộ trưởng Bộ Nội vụ [Minister of Home Affairs], 2012).

Associate professor and professor are the highest and lifelong titles which are assigned to lecturers by the decision of a national panel. Meanwhile, the titles of lecturer assistant and lecturer are assigned automatically to job holders when they are recruited. That is why, in reality, people often use associate professor/professor as job titles, while seeing lecturer and lecturer assistant as job roles (i.e. the kind of work done). According to the governmental regulations, associate professor and professor are compatible to level 1- superior lecturer. Thus, when lecturers are awarded the titles, they are automatically assigned to job level 1. However, senior lecturers may take an exam to upgrade to job level 1 to be superior lecturers but they are not automatically awarded the highest job titles.

It is not easy for a lecturer to meet the requirements for being awarded the titles of associate professor/professor in Vietnam, e.g. being the principal author of publications in prestigious (international) journals or recognized research projects; principal editor/author/co-author of textbooks for HE level; (co)-supervisor of postgraduate candidates who then are successfully awarded the degrees (Thủ tướng [Prime Minister], 2018). Hence, some universities (including the university under examination) offer significant financial rewards and other benefits, e.g. higher research grants, for those who are able to get these titles. This usually encourages lecturers to develop themselves in their career.

At the national level, MOET promulgates working requirements which includes annual key performance indicators (KPIs) in teaching and research for lecturers and how to apply the KPIs. Specifically, the total working time for a lecturer in an academic year is 1760 hours, of which 270 should be standard

hours for teaching and at least one third for research (Bộ trưởng Bộ GD-ĐT [Minister of MOET], 2014). According to the autonomy policy, universities can decide their specific KPIs for lecturers which cannot conflict with the MOET regulations. For instance, they can ask lecturers to spend 50% of their total working time on research if they are aiming to be a research-oriented university. KPIs are an important force for lecturers and universities in developing lecturers to be able to complete the KPIs. This is because KPIs aligns employee daily actions to what management wants towards the organizational strategy (Parmenter, 2015).

The law on recognition and reward was promulgated in 2003 and amended in 2005, 2009 and 2013. Accordingly, there is a hierarchy of recognition awards and procedures to recognize and reward individuals and organizations. For instance, awards for individuals include good performers [Lao động tiên tiến]; excellent performers at organizational level [Chiến sỹ thi đua cấp cơ sở]; excellent performers at ministry/industry/provincial levels [Chiến sỹ thi đua cấp bộ/ngành/tỉnh/thành phố]; and excellent performers at the national level [Chiến sỹ thi đua toàn quốc] (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2003).

Together with the policy of offering scholarships for lecturers' postgraduate study, MOET has made other policies on training and developing lecturers, e.g. compulsory pedagogy training curriculum, regulations for periodical training in HE development, HE governance, and issues regarding lecturers' subject disciplines. Additionally, the government has promulgated other policies on compensation, reward and recognition for lecturers, e.g. support of 25% of salary and regularly increasing salaries for lecturers completing annual KPIs (seniority-based) (Quốc hội [National Assembly], 2012), and scientific and technological

reward for young lecturers (below 35 years old) (Bộ trưởng Bộ GD-ĐT [Minister of MOET], 2017). All of these policies aim to encourage lecturers and universities to develop their competence to provide high-quality HE services for society.

1.2.3. Overview of the case study university

Tiên Phong University is a public, research-oriented, multi-area and multi-discipline university in Vietnam. The university was founded over 20 years ago by merging some universities established before. The University has been designated by the government as a key university and pioneer in reforming the HE. Therefore, it has been given remarkable levels of autonomy.

The university's organizational structure is abstracted as follows:

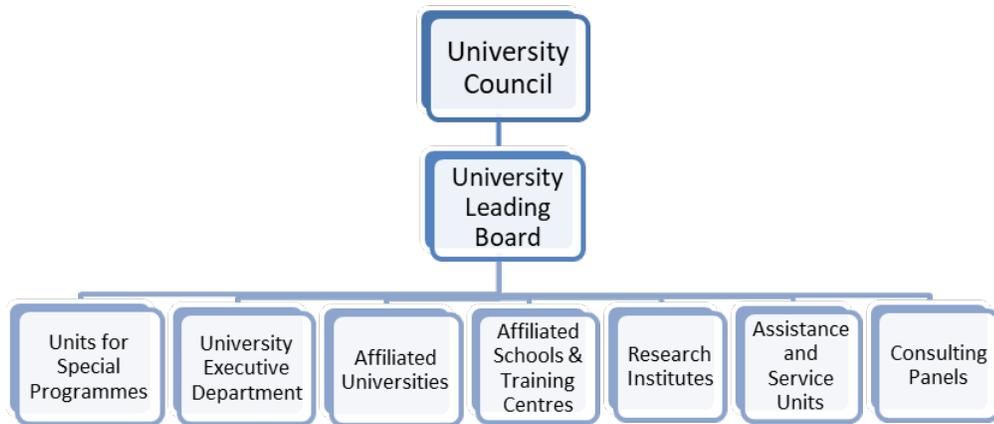


Figure 1.3. The university organizational structure

(Source: Abstracted from the university's website)

The university has nearly 2000 lecturers with both full-time and long-term contracts. Of these more than 400 are professors and associate professors (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2018c). It offers bachelor and post-graduate programmes and others, e.g. different types of short courses, in various

areas, e.g. science, social sciences, technology, economics, medical study. The university has over 30,000 full-time students (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2018b).

In terms of HRM/HRD policies, before approving new policies which affect the whole or a large number of staff, the university sends the policy draft to its staff and managers to get their comments and recommendations. This aims to not only enhance democracy in the university, but also collect staff's good ideas to make the policies more suitable in practice, as well as getting staff support in the implementation phase. For example, in 2017, the university collected its full-time lecturers' and researchers' opinions on the draft of working regime for lecturers and researchers in the university. This document is very important for lecturers and researchers because it includes the regulations on how much work they have to do per year and how to evaluate their work. After that, the university reviewed the draft and issued the official document.

Like many universities in Vietnam, there are two ways that the university recruits new lecturers. One way is to cultivate good and excellent students who have taken a bachelor programme at the university and then support them to study for postgraduate degrees. The other is to recruit externally. For external recruitment, the university asks applicants to hold a doctoral degree or at least a master degree accompanied by being studying a doctoral programme. This is because the standard to become the university's lecturer is a holder of a doctoral degree (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014c).

As mentioned earlier, Tiên Phong University's mission includes providing high-quality HR, developing talent for the country; being a leading university in research, technology and knowledge transfer contributing to the national

industrialization and modernization; and being recognized internationally. One of its important strategic goals is to become a high-quality university which is well recognized in Asia (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014a).

To pursue this mission, the university has spent a great deal of time and effort developing its academic staff. Research expectations at this university are greater than MOET's regulations. Lecturers of the university need to publish in international academic journals or at peer-reviewed conferences every three years (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2017). This challenging requirement aims at improving the quality of lecturers' publications through meeting the higher standards of international publishers, thereby, improving their research ability.

Additionally, committing to MOET's policies, Tiên Phong University encourages its lecturers to study for doctorates, especially abroad, and to complete all required training to meet the legal standards.

However, together with the general challenges facing Vietnamese HE, the university has been dealing with its own difficulties. For instance, less than 20% of HR managers and officers in its affiliated departments hold a degree relating to HRM, education management, business and administration, or management science (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2018a). The others come from other backgrounds which are not relevant to their current HRM job. This challenges the university to improve the quality of its HRM services, including HRD, as well as costing more in regularly retraining the staff in HRM professional.

The university states its core values including high-quality, creative, pioneering, integrating, responsible, and sustainable development based on knowledge (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014a). Because of many current challenges, it is not easy for the university to transfer these values into practice at both university and unit/department level.

1.3. Research aim and questions

The study aims to investigate the impact of HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement by analyzing how the policies satisfy lecturers' BPNW.

To achieve this aim, two main research questions and two sub-questions have been developed as follows:

1. How are current HRD policies affecting lecturers' BPNW, and through this, their job engagement at Tiên Phong University?

1.1. What are the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement?

1.2. How does the lecturers' satisfaction of BPNW by the HRD policies relate to the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement?

2. How can the university use HRD policies to enhance its lecturers' job engagement?

The first main question and its two sub-questions focus on the way that the current policies have influenced lecturers' BPNW which then affects their job engagement. The second main research question focuses on how the policies can better meet the needs of lecturers and thereby increase their job engagement.

1.4. Researcher position

I have been a lecturer at the research site for more than 10 years, meaning I belong to the group I am researching. Therefore, I am an insider researcher (Breen, 2007; cited in Unluer, 2012). As an insider researcher, I have my own knowledge and experience about the general culture/politics and particular research topics of the institution (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; cited in Unluer, 2012). Furthermore, I have an established intimacy with the research participants which may help me to elicit sensitive information (Unluer, 2012). However, this may also affect how my study is conducted. For instance, my interviewees may ask me to share my own opinions about my chosen topic because they know my insider status. Thus, on the one hand, I have tried to uphold the ethical requirements concerning researcher integrity and honesty when contacting the participants (British Educational Research Association [BERA], 2018). On the other hand, I have tried to act like an outsider researcher as much as possible when conducting the study, particularly at the data collection stage in order to avoid my own biases to the research problems leading to invalid and unreliable findings. The effort to balance insider and outsider roles result from an explicit awareness of the possible effects of ethical issues and research biases as an insider researcher (Smyth & Holian, 2008; cited in Unluer, 2012). As a result, I commit myself to approaching the topic from the participants' perspectives, respecting what they provided me as the whole data of the study, while simultaneously trying to exclude my own experience as a lecturer as much as possible. This will be reported in more detail in chapter 3 – Methodology and methods.

1.5. Thesis structure

After this introductory chapter, chapter 2 synthesizes the key concepts, authors and approaches with respect to the topics of job engagement, BPNW, and HRD policies. It concludes with the working definitions and measurements selected for the study and what aspects the thesis can contribute to the body of knowledge.

Chapter 3 presents the research design, including research paradigm (i.e. interpretivism), approaches and methods (i.e. case study approach, and mixed-method approach achieved by questionnaire and face-to-face interview) as well as how the methods have been conducted in reality. Ethical issues relating to the study are also explained in this chapter.

Chapter 4 reports all the quantitative and qualitative results.

Chapter 5 discusses the key issues raised by the findings and provides in-depth analysis of the results and a comparison with previous literature.

Chapter 6 summarizes the study's findings, contributions and limitation. It also makes recommendations based on the findings.

Chapter 2. Literature review

The research questions give rise to three key sub-topics, namely job engagement, HRD, and basic psychological needs at work (BPNW). This chapter will provide an overview of these sub-topics and their relationship based on which the research problem has been determined. Specifically, the first section of the chapter will focus on the definitions, measurements, antecedents and consequences of job engagement. The second section will review definitions and levels of analysis of HRD, theories that form the foundation of HRD, and HRD policy. The third section will summarize research on definitions of three basic psychological needs within Self-determination Theory (SDT), measurements, antecedents and consequences of the needs. Based on the reviews, the current study will adopt the most appropriate definitions and measurements to address the research questions. Studies written in Vietnamese and English about Vietnamese HE will also be reviewed in the final section to provide the local picture of the topics. The gaps in the literature will be highlighted to indicate where the present study can contribute to the body of knowledge.

2.1. Overview of job engagement

2.1.1. Definition of job engagement

Engagement has received much attention from both academics and practitioners because there has been a considerable increase in employee disengagement, e.g. the worldwide percentage of full-time employees who engage in their job is low (just 15%) (Gallup, 2018, p. 5). This leads to organizations needing employees who are passionate and emotionally involved in

work to “do the right work” rather than only to “do the work right” in order to help organizations succeed (Imperatori, 2017, p. 2).

Engagement is a complicated and multifaceted phenomenon. To date, academics have not reached a consensus on how engagement should be defined (Imperatori, 2017). Therefore, engagement has been used to refer to personal traits (e.g. proactivity and conscientiousness), behaviours (e.g. organizational citizenship behaviour, role expansion), and psychological states (e.g. involvement, empowerment, commitment) (Macey and Schneider, 2008).

Kahn (1990), the first person to conceptualize work-related engagement (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010), defines personal engagement as “the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles” (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). Specifically, when employees invest their own cognitive, physical, and emotional energy in their work performance, they are engaged workers (Kahn, 1990). Therefore, cognitive, physical and emotional engagement are seen as the three dimensions of work engagement. As such, Kahn’s definition means *psychological presence* at work and thus considers engagement as a state of mind. Self-expression is the key to engagement. Engaged workers will openly express their thoughts and feelings rather than hiding or withdrawing them during their work performance (Kahn, 2010). Additionally, Kahn (1990) defines the opposite phenomenon, disengagement, as “the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances” (1990, p. 694).

Rothbard (2001) follows Kahn’s conceptualization but lists only two key components of engagement, namely attention and absorption. Specifically, attention involves “cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends

thinking about a role”, and absorption refers to “being engrossed in a role and ... the intensity of one’s focus on a role” (Rothbard, 2001, p. 656). Rothbard (2001) develops a scale to measure the two components of engagement. Because this scale does not assess all the dimensions of engagement developed by Kahn (1990), it has not been widely used in the literature.

Approaching engagement through the lens of burnout, Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) define burnout as “a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job” characterized by exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy (p.397). Accordingly, engagement is the positive opposite end to burnout on the same continuum and is characterized by energy, involvement and efficacy (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Consequently, as a positive state of mind, engagement can be measured through the opposite scores of the three burnout dimensions (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

However, later, Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) argue that burnout is not exactly the opposite end of engagement although the two concepts are related to each other. One of the key reasons for the argument is excessive engagement can cause exhaustion leading to burnout (Hallberg et al. 2007; cited in Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008). Thus, engagement should be considered and measured as an independent term with its own construct rather than the opposite of burnout (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002).

Despite recognizing the relationship between engagement and burnout, Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) define engagement independently as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p.74). According to the authors, vigor is characterized by the high level of energy, mental resilience and persistence which a person is willing to

invest in their work, even when facing difficulties; dedication involves “a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge”; and absorption refers to “being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, pp. 74–75). The authors also emphasize that engagement is a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state, not a momentary and specific emotional one (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). As such, this definition covers the three aspects described in Kahn’s definition, e.g. cognition and emotion (included in dedication and absorption), physical energy (included in vigor). However, the two operationalizations are not totally the same.

In an effort to synthesize the dimensions proposed in literature, Macey and Schneider (2008) broadly define engagement as “a desirable condition, has an organizational purpose, and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy” (p. 4). The authors then offer an integrated model in which employee engagement consists of three elements, namely (1) trait engagement (i.e. positive views of life and work; e.g. conscientiousness, trait positive affect, proactive personality); (2) state engagement (i.e. feeling of energy, absorption; e.g. satisfaction, involvement, empowerment); and (3) behavioural engagement (i.e. extra-role behaviour; e.g. proactivity, role expansion). The model also includes work conditions (i.e. work attributes, variety, challenge, and autonomy) and transformational leadership affecting employee trust, all of which influences the engagement elements.

Research investigating trait engagement has focused on the five traits of the Five-Factor Model, namely neuroticism (i.e. “individual’s general tolerance for stress”), extraversion (i.e. individual’s “general sociability and tolerance for

sensory stimulation”), openness to experiences (i.e. “individual’s general range of interests, comfort with change, and fascination with innovation”), agreeableness (i.e. “service orientation, harmony seeking, and the propensity to defer to others”), and conscientiousness (i.e. “methodicalness and discipline”) (Wildermuth, 2010, p. 198). Some studies have confirmed a negative relationship between engagement and neuroticism, and a positive relationship between engagement and extraversion and conscientiousness (Wildermuth, 2010). Thus, it is recommended that organizations attract those who are predisposed to engagement (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010). However, no study has found a relationship between engagement and the other two traits (i.e. openness to experiences and agreeableness) (Wildermuth, 2010). Therefore, although personal traits can affect employee engagement (Imperatori, 2017), there is a need for more research to see whether traits are components of engagement or antecedents of engagement.

Moreover, the inclusion of the behavioural component in the construct of engagement has been criticized because employees can display positive behaviours, e.g. working hard, extra-role performance, due to the influence of situational factors, e.g. job security and better rewards (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010) not because of engagement. Furthermore, positive work-related behaviours have been empirically confirmed to be engagement’s outcomes rather than its element (Saks 2006, Rich et.al 2010, Christian et al. 2011, cited in Imperatori, 2017).

It seems that the integrated model offered by Macey and Schneider (2008) has not been broadly supported by other academics because it tries to embed many things in the construct that may dilute the key dimensions of engagement.

For example, Saks (2008, cited in Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010, p. 20) complains that such a broad conceptualization means that “engagement serves as an umbrella term for whatever one wants it to be”.

From the evidence cited above, it would appear that engagement is a psychological state. Albrecht (2010) claims that the construct of engagement needs to encompass two essential qualities, including “(i) a positive and energized work- related motivational state, and (ii) a genuine willingness to contribute to work role and organizational success” (p.4). It can be seen that the definitions offered by Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) have embedded these qualities. Thus, Meyer *et al.* (2010) contend that both the definitions are the best consideration of state engagement. As a result, my study adopts the perspective of considering engagement as a positive work-related state of mind.

It is noted that Kahn (1990) uses the term *personal engagement* but emphasizes employee job role performance, while Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) use the term *work engagement* with a note that they want to make the concept specific to the work domain. As such, both the terms take the same scope of working with one’s specific job roles, thus, they both mention job/work engagement of workers. Additionally, in the literature, job/work engagement has often been used interchangeably with employee engagement (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). However, Saks (2006) distinguishes job engagement from organizational engagement as two different constructs even though they are related to each other. Therefore, employee engagement is the parent term of the constructs. As a result, job/work engagement is used in my study to mean the engagement state of employees whilst their working in specific roles of lecturer job within their organizational context.

**Job engagement and some related concepts*

The question of whether job engagement is old wine in new bottles has been raised in the literature (Macey and Schneider, 2008). This is because it shares some parts with related constructs previously investigated, e.g. job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and workaholism (Imperatori, 2017). Therefore, it is important to clarify the main differences between the constructs. Job satisfaction and job engagement both mean positive affect, but the former involves satiation and contentment with one's achievement, while the latter focuses on "going after, seeking, striving" (Macey *et al.*, 2009, p. 4). Therefore, job satisfaction is about low intensity affect, whereas job engagement is about high intensity affect (e.g. excitement) (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010).

Similarly to job satisfaction, organizational commitment is characterized by more passive positive feelings (e.g. comfort) instead of "activated/motivated, high- arousal, and positive feelings at work" of job engagement (e.g. energy, vigor and enthusiasm) (Inceoglu and Fleck, 2010 cited in Albrecht, 2010, p. 6). Furthermore, organizational commitment is about one's identification with their organization, not with their work roles as job engagement is (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010).

Job engagement and job involvement share the part of cognition about the abilities of the job to satisfy employees' needs at work (May *et al.*, 2004, cited in Saks, 2006), and the importance of the job to the person's self-image (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). However, the former term focuses on the emotional and behavioural parts in addition to the cognitive one of the process of how

individuals employ themselves in doing the job (May et al. 2004; cited in Saks, 2006).

Work addicts work hard because of a compulsive drive while engaged workers fully employ themselves in job performance due to a strong inner urge and a feeling of challenging and fun work (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). Having provided a deeper explanation of the difference, Gorgievski and Bakker (2010) claim that work engagement links to harmonious passion, whereas workaholism relates to obsessive passion. In both cases, employees find the job important and are willing to spend their time and energy on the job. With harmonious passion, the employee controls the work and the work “occupies a significant, but not overpowering space” in their lives. By contrast, with obsessive passion, the job controls employees and “takes disproportionate space” over the other domains in the employee’s life (Gorgievski and Bakker, 2010, pp. 264–265). Hence, the two concepts are quite distinct from each other.

Because of the difference above, it is not possible to reduce job engagement to job satisfaction and job involvement (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010) or to use interchangeably job engagement and organizational commitment and workaholism.

** Levels of job engagement:*

As mentioned earlier, Kahn (1990) defines disengagement as the opposite of engagement on a continuum. In greater detail, Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova (2010) determine three levels, i.e. disengagement, contingent engagement, and full engagement, in their proposed model of employee engagement based on SDT and the three-component model of commitment. Accordingly, disengagement

refers to “amotivation” meaning “the absence of intentional regulation or goal directed activity” (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010, p. 67). Meanwhile, full engagement involves being autonomously regulated, meaning that employees find their work enjoyable and/or meaningful so that they have intrinsic motivation to work. Between the two poles, contingent engagement is where employees recognize the necessity of doing their job as a means to achieve desired outcomes, e.g. compensation and job security, largely controlled by others; thus, joy and meaningfulness of the job are not their motivation (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010).

Krueger and Killham (2006, cited in Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008, p. 124) note that disengaged employees are not merely dispassionate, as is the case with not-engaged employees. They are also “disgruntled enough to undermine the work of their team members”. This fits with Kahn’s description of disengagement (1990) in which employees withdraw their cognitive, physical, and emotional energy from their work performance, which may lead to weakening their group work. Thus, being not-engaged is not a sufficient term to describe the opposite of being engaged on the continuum. As a result, my study adopts the term “disengaged” instead of “not-engaged” to get the continuum properly measured.

2.1.2. Measurement of job engagement

The qualitative methods of interview and focus group have been used in a few studies aiming to construct the definition of job engagement and elicit in-depth information related to the topic. For example, Kahn (1990) conducted semi-structured interviews to find out three psychological conditions of engagement, namely meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Similarly, Johnson

(2010) used interview and focus group to investigate the differences in drivers of employee engagement and leadership engagement.

However, the majority of research has taken a quantitative approach with a scale to measure the construct of job engagement. Because job engagement has been conceptualized in different ways, it has different measurements. Regarding job engagement as a state of mind, Kahn (1992) develops a comprehensive model of job engagement (i.e. physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement), although, he does not operationalize the construct (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). Following his conceptualization, Rothbard (2001) proposes a measurement of engagement which focuses only on two dimensions of engagement, namely attention and absorption. Rich *et al.* (2010) develop a scale to measure all three facets of Kahn's conceptualization. Specifically, the authors use items as follows:

- six items to measure physical engagement, i.e. (1) "I work with intensity on my job", (2) "I exert my full effort to my job", (3) "I devote a lot of energy to my job", (4) "I try my hardest to perform well on my job", (5) "I strive as hard as I can to complete my job", (6) "I exert a lot of energy on my job";

- six items to measure emotional engagement, i.e. (7) "I am enthusiastic in my job", (8) "I feel energetic at my job", (9) "I am interested in my job", (10) "I am proud of my job", (11) "I feel positive about my job", (12) "I am excited about my job";

- and six items to measure cognitive engagement, i.e. (13) "At work, my mind is focused on my job", (14) "At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job", (15) "At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job", (16) "At work, I am

absorbed by my job”, (17) “At work, I concentrate on my job”, (18) “At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job” (Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010, p. 634).

Because of its alignment with Kahn’s conceptualization of engagement, this measurement has been adopted in some research, e.g. Shuck and Reio 2011, Alfes *et al.* 2013 (Imperatori, 2017); and Pham-Thai *et al.* 2018. However, it is not clear that items within each dimension of engagement aim to measure different characteristics (variables) of one dimension or different levels of a characteristic representing the dimension. For example, items 14, 15, and 18 seem to have the same meaning but different levels of intensity from the weakest of attention to the strongest, respectively. If the focus is the levels, what is the difference between, say, point 5 (of Likert-scale) assigned for the lower level (e.g. (14) “At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job”) and point 1 assigned for the higher level (e.g. (18) “At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job”). Furthermore, it is not easy for people who are non-native English speakers to distinguish the differences or levels between items which are worded differently but seem to have similar meaning, especially when the scale is translated into other languages, e.g. between (13) “At work, my mind is focused on my job”, and (17) “At work, I concentrate on my job”; or between (3) “I devote a lot of energy to my job” and (6) “I exert a lot of energy on my job”. Due to these concerns, this measurement has not been adopted in my study.

Schaufeli *et al.* at Utrecht University, Netherlands (2002) develop and test the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) to measure work/job engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p.74). As a result, the scale includes seventeen items, with six items for vigor, e.g. “At my work, I feel that I am bursting with

energy”; five items for dedication, e.g. “I am enthusiastic about my job”; and six items for absorption, e.g. “It is difficult to detach myself from my job” (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 89) (full UWES in section A of Appendix 1).

UWES has been available in 21 languages, tested in samples from nine countries, and compiled into an international database with engagement records of over 60,000 employees (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). Although the three-factor structure of engagement is superior to the one-factor or two-factor models in the majority of studies using UWES, there have been some studies that did not confirm the three-factor model, e.g. Sonnentag (2003) (cited in Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010), Wefald and Downey (2009), and Klassen *et al.* (2012). The UWES authors (2002; 2010) explain this by saying the three dimensions are very closely related even though the items are confirmed internally consistent and not loaded on one general factor in many studies. In other words, their research provides evidence for the explanation that “being fully immersed in one’s activities goes along with high levels of energy and vice versa”, i.e. high correlation between absorption and vigor (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 85). Therefore, the authors recommend the use of the total score of UWES to assess job engagement as Sonnentag (2003) did when the three-factor model was not found.

Rich *et al.* (2010) criticize UWES for including some items tapping into the job, not engagement per se. For instance, “My job inspires me” and “To me, my job is challenging” (dedication) seem to focus on the job itself. This is the reason that Rich *et al.* (2010) develop their own measurement as discussed earlier. Although the wording of these items seems to be about the job, then the message of the whole statements does not focus on the job/job characteristics but asks

about the emotion (inspired feeling or not) and cognition (understanding and feeling of challenge or not) of the respondents towards their job. Therefore, they are used to measure dedication as “a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge” (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 74), not the job characteristics. This still reflects the logic between the conceptualization of dedication and its operationalization. Thus, the wording is acceptable.

Imperator (2017) argues that UWES does not focus as fully on the cognitive side of job engagement as on the emotional and physical aspects (i.e. the three dimensions as defined in Kahn’s construct). However, Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) emphasize that they use dedication which covers cognitive or belief state and affective dimension as well. Therefore, it can be seen that the characteristics of the cognitive state are implied in the items that measure dedication, e.g. item “I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose” (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 89). As can be seen, although both Kahn’s (1990) and Schaufeli *et al.*’s (2002) conceptualization define engagement as psychological state, the two constructs are different in operationalization and wording.

Albrecht (2010) claims that no measurement is perfect. Hence, researchers should carefully select a measurement which is suitable for their research questions and context. With good justification, UWES has been the most widely cited and used tool to investigate job engagement (Bakker *et al.* 2008, cited in Albrecht, 2010). More importantly, “UWES has the advantages of being grounded in theory, of clearly reflecting core aspects of the correspondent definition ... and of being validated in many different countries with the use of sophisticated statistical data analytic methods” (Albrecht, 2010, p. 6). Therefore, my study has selected the original UWES (17 items) to investigate lecturers’ job

engagement in the university case in Vietnam. UWES is aligned with the definition of engagement offered by Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) which has also been adopted in my study.

2.1.3. Antecedents of job engagement

Kahn (1990) explains how engagement occurs as follows: When three psychological conditions, namely the feeling of meaningfulness, the sense of safety, and the availability of one's self and other resources to do the job, are simultaneously satisfied, people will become engaged in their job and vice versa. This means job engagement can be caused or changed when the conditions are met or not. Fleck and Inceoglu (2010) also claim that employee job engagement can vary from time to time due to individual employees as well as situational factors. Specifically, the two factors predicting job engagement, namely personal factors (e.g. self-interest, personal traits) and external ones (e.g. job characteristics, organizational environment) will affect how the conditions are met, thereby affecting employee job engagement leading to engagement fluctuation and differentiation. As such, predictors play a key role in helping organizations create solutions to enhance employees' job engagement (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010). Therefore, both academics and practitioners have been interested in what factors belonging to employees and their context drive job engagement.

It is challenging to compare and generalize research on antecedents of job engagement because of the different ways job engagement is defined and measured (Imperatori, 2017). In an effort to review job engagement predictors,

this section will organize them into employee personal antecedents and contextual ones based on the claim by Fleck and Inceoglu (2010) above.

** Employee personal antecedents*

Personal antecedents of job engagement include personality and personal resources which can facilitate or inhibit employee engagement with their job. For instance, the trait of extraversion is characterized by one's being energetic, enthusiastic, and action oriented to socialize and tolerate sensory stimulation in which energy and enthusiasm connect logically with physical and emotional dimensions of engagement, respectively (Wildermuth, 2010). Moreover, conscientious employees tend to be more focused, goal oriented and persistent in overcoming difficulties (Wildermuth, 2010). These characteristics often develop employees' positive states at work, e.g. being willing to take responsibilities (availability of the self) and to master the environment for safety. Thus, the characteristics encourage them to strongly engage with work to obtain their work goals. Conversely, neuroticism/cynicism can lead to job disengagement (Wildermuth, 2010; Imperatori, 2017). Specifically, people with high neuroticism perceive their working environment as more threatening (Wildermuth, 2010). As a result, the psychological condition of safety is not met, leading to employees' emotional disengagement from their job.

Personal resources is an additional element proposed by Xanthopoulou et al. (2007, 2009) to the original Job Demands – Resources (JD-R) Model - a key theoretical framework to investigate job engagement (Durán, Extremera and Rey, 2010). Personal resources can be described as positive self-evaluations which involves "individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment effectively" (Durán, Extremera and Rey, 2010, p. 210). These

resources, which include self-efficacy, optimism, resilience, active coping style, internal locus of control, and emotional stability and intelligence, have a positive relationship with job engagement (Durán, Extremera and Rey, 2010; Imperatori, 2017). For example, people with self-efficacy and proactivity believe in their competence at work, thus, they are willing to engage with work despite facing difficulty. Bringing such psychological resources to work means that employees immerse themselves in their job performance, which leads to their experience of engagement (Durán, Extremera and Rey, 2010). In some cases, traits have been considered as a part of personal resources so they are included in personal resources' components.

** Contextual antecedents*

Contextual antecedents include job characteristics and organizational factors. There have been two key theories underpinning studies on job engagement predictors, namely JD-R model and Social Exchange Theory.

According to JD-R Model, there are two categories of risk factors associated with job stress embedded in every occupation, namely job demands and job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Job demands refers to physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects of the job which require employees' sustained physical and/or psychological effort and skills (e.g. a high work pressure, an unfavourable physical condition), leading to physiological and/or psychological costs for employees (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Job demands may become negative job stressors when requiring excessive effort from employees (Mauno *et al.*, 2010).

Job resources involve physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects of the job that provide resources for employees to achieve work goals (Hakanen and Roodt, 2010). They may reduce job demands and the associated costs with the demands, promote employee learning, development and growth (Imperatori, 2017). Job resources can be available at different levels such as work organization (e.g. empowerment, role clarity); task characteristics (e.g. autonomy, task significance, performance feedback and skill variability); interpersonal and social relation (e.g. supervisor/co-worker support, team work climate); organizational level (e.g. pay, job security, career development) (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007); and personal resources as presented earlier (Imperatori, 2017).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), job demands and job resources have negative correlation because the mobilization of job resources may not be sufficient for high job demands. However, the authors claim that job resources can buffer the effects of job stressors/demands because resources increase the ability of employees to control the job environment and achieve the goals. Therefore, job resources can enhance intrinsic motivation when fostering employees to learn, develop and grow, and extrinsic motivation when providing instruments to obtain job goals (Leiter and Bakker, 2010). For example, feedback from colleagues and managers as a task resource can help employees learn something from their work or mistakes (intrinsic motivation) and improve their performance (extrinsic motivation). In this way, job resources satisfy employees' needs, e.g. need for resource availability for working or need for being competent to complete work, leading to their job engagement.

Social Exchange Theory (SET) is based on the rule of exchange or repayment. According to this theory, people feel obligated to take appropriate actions in response to the things that they receive from other parties in a reciprocally interdependent relationship (Saks, 2006). Engagement is the outcome of a two-way relationship between employees and employers (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008; Imperatori, 2017). This means when organizations offer the things that employees consider as valuable for their jobs (e.g. resources and benefits), employees feel obliged to respond so they will repay the organization by investing their cognitive-affective energy in organizational performance (Saks, 2006). Hence, the level of job engagement may depend on organizational offers. As such, organizational factors become important antecedents of job engagement.

JD-R model and SET provide the frameworks of how antecedents have an impact on job engagement, including employees' need satisfaction by job resources and rule of exchange. Although JD-R model or SET may not be explicitly referenced, most studies on job engagement antecedents can be explained using these frameworks. For instance, employees' decision of how much they bring their selves to work (i.e. engagement) depends on how much their needs for meaningfulness, safety and availability can be met (Kahn, 1990). This reflects the influence of employees' work context (resources) on the needs, thereby, on their job engagement (JD-R model), and the repayment action as in SET (Saks, 2006).

In summary, common contextual antecedents of job engagement have been found at different levels as follows:

Level	Antecedents of job engagement	
Job level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a sustainable workload (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001); - innovative task (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007); - level of task challenge (Brown and Leigh 1996; cited in Imperatori, 2017); - autonomy, task significance, performance feedback and skill variability, empowerment, role clarity (JD-R model). 	
Organizational level	Related to organizational culture and leadership:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - fairness and procedural and distributive justice (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Saks, 2006); - value congruence (Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010); - supportive organizational culture (Dollard and Bakker 2010; cited in Imperatori, 2017) (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support, team work climate (JD-R model)). - positive leadership (e.g. transformational and empowering leadership, coaching style of leadership) (Segers, Prins and Brouwers, 2010).
	Related to HRM:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - appropriate recognition and reward (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Saks, 2006); - high-performance HR practices (i.e. selection, training and development, job security, promotion, performance-related pay, autonomy, and communication) (Pham-Thai <i>et al.</i>, 2018); - high performance work environment (Macey <i>et al.</i>, 2009);

Table 2.1. Common antecedents of job engagement

** Mediators between job engagement and its antecedents*

Motivation-related theories/models also help to explain how job engagement is facilitated. The antecedents normally affect employees' job engagement through mediators which are employee needs at work, e.g. needs for meaningfulness, safety, and availability – the three psychological conditions identified by Kahn (1990); or needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness – as identified in SDT (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Motivation-related theories explain

how the mediators work within the relationship. For example, fairness and justice in organizational culture can make employees feel safe to speak, leading to satisfaction of safety need; and perceived support from supervisors and co-workers facilitates employees' need for safety, availability and relatedness. When these needs are met, employees will be motivated to engage with their job (Imperatori, 2017). This mechanism plays a critical role in understanding job engagement. Thus, my study has taken the mechanism into account to form the research framework of the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and organizational HRD policies.

2.1.4. Consequences of job engagement

The influence of the antecedents of job engagement may lead to fluctuations in engagement (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010). When job engagement level reduces, even down to disengagement, this may lead to different consequences which may harm both employees and organizations (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010; Ahola and Hakanen, 2014; Gallup, 2018). By contrast, high job engagement can result in employee well-being and productivity, and organizational success (Schullery, 2013). As such, consequences demonstrate why organizations should pay attention to job engagement and when organizations need to take action to maintain job engagement at the right level; antecedents provide information on where and how organizations should start taking action. This explains why researchers and practitioners have been increasingly interested in both antecedents and consequences of job engagement.

** Positive consequences*

Positive consequences of job engagement can be summarized as tangible and intangible outcomes, and at employee and organization levels.

	Individual level	Organization level
Tangible outcomes	Physical health Career progression	Lower absenteeism Low staff turnover/ Employee retention Productivity and quality Profitability, financial return, shareholder value Extra role behaviour Organizational Citizenship behaviour
Intangible outcomes	Psychological health/well-being (Happiness and pleasure; Flow) Job satisfaction Mental resilience	Brand equity Customer satisfaction and loyalty Employee safety Affective commitment/ Organizational commitment Positive organization climate Employee creativity Team innovation Employees' active learning

Table 2.2. Summary of positive consequences of job engagement

Research has provided empirical evidence of the relationship between job engagement and the consequences summarized above and explained how job engagement can result in different employee and organizational outcomes. Because job engagement is a positive psychological state, engaged employees have a cognitive-affective connection with their job. They work hard (vigor), experience a feeling of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge (dedicated), and are happily engrossed in their job (Gorgievski and Bakker, 2010). Therefore, engaged employees enjoy working. These positive qualities under the influence of the antecedents (e.g. job resources) are important in creating a happy work life for engaged employees, leading to their happiness and

pleasure, flow and optimism - good psychological health and well-being (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010). Additionally, this results in a reduction of the risk of diseases (Ahola and Hakanen, 2014), thereby contributing to the engaged employees' physical health. Furthermore, under the influence of the job resources, engaged employees experience a sense of job control and success, leading to their job satisfaction and career progression (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010). Engaged employees tend to be more mentally resilient even when facing difficulty. This is because they find the job important, significant, inspiring; possess positive emotion; and pay lots of attention to getting the job done well (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). Hence, they focus on finding solutions for problems at work rather than quitting the job, contributing to low organizational turnover.

With the positive individual outcomes because of job engagement, engaged employees are willing to take on extra role performance (Imperatori, 2017); work-related behaviours (Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010), including activities to ensure work safety; and always attach themselves to the job goals (Kahn, 1990). Thus, they tend to express organizational citizenship behaviour (Saks, 2006), team active learning and innovation/creativity (Imperatori, 2017). These, together with the qualities of vigor, dedication, and absorption in job, contribute to an organization's productivity (Macey *et al.*, 2009), quality (Imperatori, 2017), positive organizational climate towards cooperation and standards for the shared goals (Schneider *et al.*, 2010). The combination of these outcomes helps organizations achieve profitability, financial return, and shareholder value; as well as customer satisfaction and loyalty, and brand equity. However, Macey *et al.* (2009) claim that engagement state cannot be automatically transferred into organizational profit and financial outcomes. This needs a process in which,

under the impact of high performance work environment (as an antecedent), engaged employees experience feelings of engagement and exercise engagement behaviours in order to contribute to the organizational outcomes (Macey *et al.*, 2009). This mechanism works with the other consequences for organizations because the types of job engagement consequences at organizational level are interrelated.

Engaged employees seem to have high organizational commitment (Halbesleben, 2010) leading to low staff turnover or high employee retention (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010) and low absenteeism (Kahn, 2010). This helps organizations save a great deal on HR costs, e.g. costs of recruitment and training new staff to replace those leaving, and reduce negative impact on organizational culture (Frank, Finnegan and Taylor, 2004).

Notably, engaged employees contribute to positive outcomes for themselves and their organizations. The outcomes, in turn, may reinforce the employees' job engagement, thereby, playing the role of antecedents as well. For instance, employees with engagement behaviours, e.g. good team-work, service-oriented behaviours to satisfy customers, and organizational citizenship behaviours, contribute to building and maintaining a high performance work environment. The environment, being characterized by respect and support for employees, fairness and justice, in turn, makes employees trust their organization, thus, satisfying employees' needs for safety (Schneider *et al.*, 2010) and relatedness (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010). This motivates them to be continuously engaged. Similarly, as mentioned earlier, optimism is a personal resource which drives job engagement. When employees become engaged with their job, they tend to be active at work and think there is a high chance of work

success. The engagement status may, in turn, promote the employees' optimism, creating a virtuous circle of reinforcement.

** Negative consequences*

Some researchers argue that job engagement is not always associated with positive outcomes. Employees who are too engaged with their work may experience the risks of suppressed negative status, adverse health effects and work-life imbalance (Imperator, 2017) – the signs of real problems which require actions to address (George, 2010). Thus, people will become aware of the problems and the need for change/improvement (George, 2011). Extreme positive emotions experienced by too highly engaged employees can result in the absence of negative affective reactions (Oishi et al. 2007; cited in Imperator, 2017), which may lead to a lack/delay of the awareness of real problems at work.

Although job engagement is claimed to be associated with employee physical health, workers who are too highly engaged with their job may suffer from adverse health effects, e.g. chronic fatigue (Dolan et al. 2012, cited in Imperator, 2017). This is because they tend to work so hard that their energy invested in job performance can reach the maximum for long periods. Without the possibility of recharging, this has a negative impact on their health (George, 2011), e.g. exhaustion and burnout (Imperator, 2017).

Too highly engaged employees tend to work long hours even forgetting the time when working. This may result in conflict with other domains of their lives. Spending more time on work means sacrificing the time and self for non-work parts of life, possibly leading to stress, overwork, and work-life imbalance (George, 2010). Similarly, a review by Imperator (2017) suggests that being

completely absorbed in work can cause poorer social relationships outside work, greater work-home interference, and lower life satisfaction.

To sum up, job engagement can be affected by personal and contextual antecedents and can result in both positive and negative consequences. To avoid the negative influence of being too engaged with one's job, employees and organizations need to define and maintain the right level of employee job engagement. To support people to keep job engagement at the right level, work-life balance solutions should receive more attention (Imperator, 2017).

2.2. Overview of HRD policies

2.2.1. Definition of HRD

It is questionable whether HRD is an independent discipline and profession which is understood and recognized by external professionals (McGuire, 2011b). The main reason for the question is the ambiguity of HRD identity and its multi- and inter-disciplinary nature. Indeed, HRD, on the one hand, shares some characteristics with other subfields of HRM (Bierema and Cseh, 2014) as well as fields which were established long before HRD (Wang *et al.*, 2017), e.g. training and development, organizational development, career development, change management, strategic management, system theory, adult learning/education, and psychology. It has also encompassed new emerging fields such as knowledge management, social capital and the learning organization (McGoldrick *et al.*, 2002, cited in McGuire, 2011b). On the other hand, HRD is clearly different to the fields cited above and has its own core foundational tenets. These have been identified as:

a strong belief in learning and development as avenues to individual growth; a belief that organizations can be improved through learning and development activities; a commitment to people and human potential; a deep desire to see people grow as individuals and a passion for learning (Swanson and Holton, 2001; cited in McGuire, 2011b, p. 2).

These lead to the absence of a consensus on how HRD should be conceptualized (Wang *et al.*, 2017).

HRD has been a controversial term since the 1960s (Hamlin and Stewart, 2011). Thus, there have been various ways to define it. One way to define HRD is to focus on its key functions. For example, HRD has been defined as:

- “the process of increasing the knowledge, the skills, and the capacities of all the people in a society” (Harbison and Myers, 1964; cited in Hamlin and Stewart, 2011, p. 205);

- “the integrated use of training and development, organization development, and career development to improve individual, group, and organizational effectiveness” (McLagan, 1989, p. 52);

- “the field of study and practice responsible for the fostering of a long-term, work-related learning capacity at the individual, group and organizational level of organizations” (Watkins 1989; cited in Bierema and Cseh, 2014, p. 126).

Most functional definitions of HRD encompass training (associated with learning), career and organizational development. However, Wang *et al.* (2017) claim that it is not feasible to obtain an exhaustive list of HRD functions due to the different contexts in which HRD operates, as well as the ongoing

development of HRD that may lead to new HRD functions. Therefore, the authors claim that any HRD definition needs to reflect open boundaries and be characterized by the key qualities of HRD rather than a list of its functions.

Another way to define HRD is to emphasize the intended purposes of HRD. For example, Werner and DeSimone (2006) (cited in Hamlin and Stewart, 2011, p. 206) define HRD as “a set of systematic and planned activities designed by an organization to provide its members with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands”. Having reviewed 24 definitions of HRD, Hamlin and Stewart (2011) synthesize the four most-mentioned purposes of HRD, namely “improving individual or group effectiveness and performance; improving organizational effectiveness and performance; developing knowledge, skills and competencies; and enhancing human potential and personal growth” (p.210). In light of these purposes, Lincoln (2012) believes the ability of HRD to help humans improve their effectiveness and efficacy at work will cumulatively impact on the quality of organizational performance. As such, there is a consensus on the purposes of HRD in defining HRD.

However, it is interesting that some authors refuse to define HRD. Lee (2014) claims that “HRD is contextual, situated, dynamic and continually negotiated through the interpretations made by organizational actors as co-creators” (p.108). In other words, the author emphasizes the contextual, situational and constantly changing characteristics of HRD practice which no HRD definition can capture. This is why, on practical grounds, it is impossible to provide a universal definition of HRD.

Additionally, there have been different ways of using the notion ‘development’ in HRD research and practice. Firstly, development is used to

mean maturation (i.e. a pre-determined, stage-like and inevitable progress which is forced by an internal process, to an end-point defined by the process itself). Secondly, development is used to mean shaping (i.e. a process of shaping individuals as tools to fit an organization in order to reach end-points defined by external forces such as senior management in the organizational hierarchy). Thirdly, development is used to mean voyage (i.e. a lifelong journey of constructing, learning and discovering individuals themselves that is owned and driven by the individual). Finally, development is used to mean emergent (i.e. a rise of the group-as-organization out of messy ways by which social aspiration is transformed into societal reality, through individuals' perception and continuous (re)construction of the reality, with no single sub-system or actor consistently forcing the process) (Lee, 2014). Thus, having no consensus over the meaning of 'development' leads to having no consensus over the meaning of 'HRD'. As a result, it is unrealistic to generate a global standardized definition of HRD (Lee, 2014).

However, without a definition, there is no way for people to be sure that they are talking about and perceiving the same object. In other words, a definition is responsible for a phenomenon that people can observe and verify (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, standardizing the variation of HRD practices is not the aim of a definitional study. Instead, the focus is "to establish a boundary and a base to capture the variation of HRD, and to show a conceptual understanding of what HRD is and is not for research and practice" (Brown 1998, Wacker 2004; cited in Wang *et al.*, 2017, p. 1171). Therefore, a definition provides the unique characteristics of the entity for human perception and for the process of theory building. This directs me to provide an applicable and consistent definition of

HRD so that the participants of my study can understand and share their thoughts about necessary activities/policies regarding HRD within their context.

Additionally, the four forms of development used in HRD defined by Lee (2014) have been criticized on the grounds that maturation as an internal process of human nature is the focus of psychology, not HRD; and voyage and emergent are simply other ways to represent the process or outcome of maturation (Ellis et al. 1999, O’Rand and Krecker 1990; cited in Wang *et al.*, 2017). Thus, there is still a need for a convincing conceptualization of ‘development’ which is sufficient to be the foundation to understand HRD.

Kuchinke (2014) claims that despite being used frequently in both HRD research and practice, the depth and variety of meaning of ‘development’ has been ignored (Kuchinke, 2014). To understand HRD, the author adopts a foundational definition as follow: development is a “progression of change events that unfold during the duration of an entity’s existence” (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; cited in Kuchinke, 2014, p. 115). Based on this definition, these authors determine four basic types of development which can be the foundation to understand HRD, namely lifecycle, dialectic, evolution, and teleology.

Specifically, the first mode, lifecycle, refers to an invariant, sequential, and irreversible movement of an entity that consists of stages such as birth/start-up, growth, maturation, and decline, withdrawal, termination/death, and is driven by internal forces such as rules, programmes, or routines. Secondly, dialectic development involves a process consisting of the recognition and articulation, and the search for a resulting resolution of the contradictions between opposite positions, or thesis and antithesis in the form of a compromise or synthesis to produce optimal functioning and progress. The third type, evolution, is defined as

the continuous iteration of variation, selection, and adoption or retention in which new forms of entities are produced and compete for survival in the environment and then compete to replace the just-newly-formed entities in a new cycle. Finally, teleology development refers to a process of so-called problem solving for the purpose of improvement that includes articulating dissatisfaction with a current situation, the decision to focus energy and resources, an analysis of root causes, goal setting, implementation, and evaluation of results (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; cited in Kuchinke, 2014).

Kuchinke (2014) worries that the major form of development which is examined and applied in HRD research and practice is teleological. The author warns that ignoring the other forms may result in sub optimization due to a lack of sufficient care about different stages, conflicts and forces in the process of solving developmental problems based on teleological approach alone.

Based on this definition, HRD can be seen as a process of changing individuals (as human capital/resource of a social system) to better work within their system. This way of conceptualization seems to be supported by scholars in HRD. For instance, Stewart and McGoldrick (1996; cited in Kormanik and Shindell, 2014, p. 688) claim that HRD “is fundamentally about change”. As mentioned earlier, Lee (2014) has found that one form of development used in HRD is shaping individuals in order to make them fit into their organization. This is exactly a change process in which organizations and its members implement the transformation of human capital as required by the organizational goals.

Wang et al. (2017) also support the idea of HRD as a change process. Thus, the authors claim that in HRD, “development is to shape or reshape individuals’ values, beliefs, behaviours, and ideology according to the host system’s

requirements” (p.1174). After reviewing 32 existing definitions of HRD, the authors contend that the shaping/reshaping mechanism is a key attribute of HRD. This mechanism can be examined from all modes of development such as the process of developing new values/beliefs within an organization (lifecycle development); resolving contradictory values/beliefs to gain optimal ones for the organization (dialectic development); selecting and retaining those values/beliefs that help the organization survive (evolution); and determining and solving problems with values/beliefs to support the organization’s pursuit of its goals (teleology).

As a key attribute of HRD, the mechanism of shaping individuals’ values/beliefs can embrace different organizational activities/functions mentioned in the extant HRD definitions (e.g. activities for organization development and career development) rather than being reduced to purely specific activities/functions (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, the attribute provides criteria so that HRD researchers and practitioners can determine which functions/activities belong to the field instead of listing activities that may not be the exhaustive list as analyzed earlier.

Moreover, Wang *et al.* (2017) infer another attribute of HRD which is the mechanism of skilling individuals to perform their required job. This quality reflects a progression in individuals’ competency, capacity and behaviour under the influence of and towards the outcomes of the shaping mechanism in order to obtain the job requirements. Therefore, it supports the conceptualization of development as a change process.

Importantly, although emphasizing that HRD is directed by the desired performance toward its host system’s goals, both the above-mentioned attributes

of HRD do not limit HRD to only technical tasks in the host system. Rather they also incorporate activities that constitute the mechanism of shaping values/beliefs and skilling people within the context of the host system, e.g. performance management, recognition and reward, organizational communication. This reflects the multi-dimensional nature of HRD leading to the consensus that HRD is an inter-disciplinary field.

All things considered so far, the way to define HRD offered by Wang et al. (2017) seems to be comprehensive in identifying the unique attributes of HRD and aligning them with a rational conceptualization of development. As a result, my study adopts the authors' definition of HRD as follows:

Human resource development is a mechanism in shaping individual and group values and beliefs and skilling through learning-related activities to support the desired performance of the host system (Wang *et al.*, 2017, p. 1175).

The authors explain that shaping mechanism can act through constructing or controlling. The former encourages individuals' active autonomy in producing human ability for creativity, while the latter forms individuals within determined values and beliefs (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Which of the two is emphasized relies on the openness of the host system and the HR quality (Wang *et al.*, 2017). This means that replacing values is not always voluntary and enjoyable, but possibly coercive and painful. This has been demonstrated in HRD practices, thus, helping people understand what HRD is rather than only what it should be (Wang *et al.*, 2017).

In the definition, ‘skilling’ is to prepare and equip people with the requisite behaviours, competency and capacity for job performance (Wang *et al.*, 2017). The authors claim that knowledge acquisition depends on whether the host system requires it or not. Thus, it is not an essential component of HRD. This explanation seems not to be convincing because to be a skilled worker means the person must be simultaneously knowledgeable and skillful in their work. In other words, without the knowledge required by a job, people cannot be skilled at doing the job. Therefore, skilling necessarily covers both knowledge and skills (although the level of knowledge coverage of skilling depends on the requirements of the job). Hence, using ‘skilling’ is sufficient to express the purpose of competence development for work. Thus, the term “skilling” is kept as a key element in HRD definition when being adopted in my study.

Notably, the use of the term ‘the host system’ instead of ‘organization’ or other specific context (e.g. nation) is useful because it eliminates the weakness of most of the existing HRD definitions which cannot embrace practices at different levels and different context such as individual, group, organization, nation/society, and even international/global; and Western or non-Western contexts. It is broadly accepted that HRD is a function of a social system and that HRD is a tool to obtain the system’s goals (Wang *et al.*, 2017). This means that HRD needs to operate within the host system’s context, under the host system’s goals, mission, and values. Hence, any HRD activities that are not consistent with the host system’s mission will be eliminated (Jacobs, 2014; cited in Wang *et al.*, 2017). As such, the use of the phrase, ‘the host system’, embeds the nature of host-system-dependence of HRD in the definition, and simultaneously avoids

tying the boundary of HRD to a specific level such as individual or organizational or national level (Wang *et al.*, 2017).

In summary, Wang *et al.*'s (2017) definition provides an appropriate direction to grasp the focus and nature of HRD. Thus, it can help researchers determine specific HRD activities/functions in designing their research.

** Differences between HRD and Human Development, and HRM*

According to Kuchinke (2014), human development is a broad, multi-faceted and interdisciplinary field which aims to improve human health, education, welfare, security, and social justice around the world. Thus, this field draws upon many fields and disciplines, e.g. ethics, public policy, and economics. The two philosophies to justify human development are equity and human rights. These criteria require a mutual obligation of ethics between the providers and recipients of development initiatives to ensure a good use of one's developed competency (Kuchinke, 2014).

Meanwhile, HRD is bound by its host system. Therefore, it focuses on developing people as required by the system's set of values, beliefs and skills. As such, it is a special case of human development (Kuchinke, 2014). Nonetheless, HRD has a strategic role in contributing to the broader political, social and economic community through its influence on individuals' mind set and competency/capability (Kuchinke, 2014). At this level, ethics and social responsibility of corporate HRD as professional standards for HRD practitioners (Anderson, 2017) have been widely discussed in the literature. Thus, HRD and human development have a strong relationship.

HRM is often examined at the organizational level. At a strategic level in organizations, HRM focuses on human capital and the optimization of human capital to obtain organizational objectives (Tyson, 2015). At an operational level in organizations (as a specialist occupation), HRM involves managing the employment relationship from the beginning to the termination of the employment cycle (Tyson, 2015). Specifically, HRM includes organization/job design, HR planning, performance management, selection and staffing, compensation/benefit, employee assistance, union/labour relations, HR research and information system (McLagan, 1989); reward policies, talent management (Tyson, 2015); training, and career development (Werner, 2014).

There is a dominant view that HRD is a sub-system of HRM at the organizational level (Werner, 2014). This is because HRM and HRD have several shared foci (Watkins and Marsick, 2013), e.g. training and development, and career development. However, approaching from the view that HRD concerns the mechanism of shaping people's values/beliefs and skilling within the host system, HRD can be seen within larger scope such as national/social or international/global levels, not only at organizational level when saying about workforce and knowledge economic (as discussed later). Furthermore, HRD cares about how to fit individuals' values/beliefs with the host system's values, goals and mission (e.g. culture change), which sometimes belongs to wider management than the specific foci of HRM. Thus, although HRD relates to HRM, then it is not always a sub-system of HRM, but a alongside field of HRM (Werner, 2014).

** Levels of HRD analysis and practices:*

The first definition of HRD offered by Harbison and Myers (1964) focuses on national level (McLean, 2014).

HRD refers to “the process of increasing the knowledge, the skills, and the capacities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it could be described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of an economy. In political terms, HRD prepares people for adult participation in political processes, particularly as citizens in a democracy. From the social and cultural points of view, the development of HR helps people to lead fuller, richer lives” (Harbison and Myers, 1964; cited in McLean, 2014, p. 644).

However, in subsequent research, HRD has often been considered at individual, group and organization levels with the focus on improving individual work-related knowledge and skills; and collective innovation, efficiency and effectiveness (McGuire, 2011c). For example, HRD “is fundamentally about change. It covers the whole organization and addresses the whole person” (Stewart and McGoldrick, 1996; cited in Kormanik and Shindell, 2014, p. 688). Therefore, researchers have not often been interested in the interaction between government policy and organizational HRD activities (Briggs 1987, Wang & Swanson 2008; cited in Hawley, 2014).

Nevertheless, empirical work in HRD has recently recognized the relationship between workforce development, including general education development and organizational/group/individual HRD, and economic change (Hawley, 2014). As a result, there has been an effort to re-expand the scope of HRD consideration. For instance, McLean and McLean (2001, cited in Wang *et*

al., 2017, p. 1170) expand the boundary of HRD to include “community, nation, or, ultimately, the whole of humanity”. After that, McLean (2006; cited in McLean, 2014, p. 644) offered the preliminary definition of National Human Resource Development (NHRD):

NHRD is an undertaking at the top level of government and throughout the country’s society that coordinates all activities related to human development (HD) to create greater efficiency, effectiveness, competitiveness, satisfaction, productivity, knowledge, spirituality, and well-being of its residents. It includes education, health, safety, training, economic development, culture, science and technology, and any factors influencing HD.

Hence, at this level, HRD links to vocational and economic programmes and is based on the alignment of industrial development policy with educational resources and community-based support (McGuire, 2011c).

Under globalization, HRD has been examined within international environments, e.g. in multinational and transnational corporations. Scholars and practitioners have been interested in how HRD is influenced by national cultures and how standardized HRD programmes can be developed across cultures (McGuire, 2011c).

In short, to date HRD has been examined at all levels of individual, group, organization, nation/society and global/international level. Levels of analysis play an important role in HRD research because they link to the setting of the host system and contextual factors affecting HRD activities. This will be discussed further in the section on HRD policies.

2.2.2. Key theoretical foundations of HRD

Because it is interdisciplinary, HRD has been rooted in different disciplines such as economic theory, sociology, anthropology, management, physical science, philosophy, education, and psychology (Chalofsky, 2007; cited in Reio Jr. and Batista, 2014). Clearly, there are many fields contributing to building HRD interventions in order to develop comprehensively human capital within a host system. However, Swanson's (1995, 2001; cited in Hughes and Byrd, 2015) three-legged stool model claims three foundational theories of HRD, including system theory, psychology and economic theory. Later, only the former two were found as HRD foundation in a study by McGuire and Cseh (2006; cited in Reio Jr. and Batista, 2014). Hughes and Byrd (2015) contend that there have been no exact theories of HRD, albeit HRD has borrowed from other fields in social sciences and humanities. Nonetheless, the three-legged stool model has been considered and used by many scholars because of its grounding foundation (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). In addition to Swanson's three theories, Hughes and Byrd (2015) add adult learning/education as another theoretical foundation of HRD.

According to Jacobs (2014), HRD has received much more foundational support from system theory than any other theory. Instead of providing content, system theory provides its forms and structure for other theories, including HRD. The author explains that this theory sees things as systems that are operated through the interplay of their constituent parts which are identified by particular functions. The process of a system's operation requires inputs for processing to produce outputs, including both intended and unintended outcomes. The system interacts with the wider environment/context through the inputs and outputs.

Every system includes sub-systems of which each is itself a whole system. System behaviours are directed and controlled by the mechanism of feedback (i.e. returning information to, but not causing changes in, the inputs) and feed forward (i.e. returning information to, but causing changes in, the inputs) (Wiener, 1988; cited in Jacobs, 2014).

Three concepts within HRD have drawn upon the above principles of system theory, namely HRD process, HRD programmes, and HRD management (Jacobs, 2014). Specifically, HRD process includes three chronological stages: (1) Assess/Analyze (i.e. HRD strategic planning, need assessment, performance analysis, work analysis); (2) Design/Implement (i.e. programmes/activities for employee/organization/career development); and (3) Evaluate/Improve (i.e. HRD impacts, behaviour changes, people's satisfaction) (Jacobs, 2014). These three stages can be seen as an application of the operation process of a system above. The previous stages create inputs for the next stages to achieve the final goals of the whole HRD system.

Additionally, HRD programmes as a system is made up of sub-systems such as employee development (including sub-systems of training, education, locations, approaches, methods); organization development (consisting of human relation/self-awareness, individual/group change, structural redesign); career development (consisting of career planning, career management); and performance support (consisting of supporting types such as printed guides, embedded guides, FAQs) (Jacobs, 2014). Each sub-system comprises smaller systems. The sub-systems interact with each other creating the operation of HRD system.

Finally, Jacobs (2014) describes the management of HRD as a systematic process starting from determining the HRD mission statement in alignment with the organizational mission; designing HRD activities to deploy the functional mission; selecting the right staff for the activities; and allocating resources for the implementation of the activities. These four stages interact together by the mechanism of inputs-outputs as indicated above in order to produce the final outcomes for the host system. In short, applying principles of system theory can help researchers and practitioners see clearly the symbiotic relationships making up an HRD system enabling them to effectively design and manage HRD systems.

Reio and Batista (2014) claim that theories of psychology have provided theoretical principles which are useful to understand why and how HRD interventions are built and delivered. For instance, behavioural psychology, also known as learning theory, focuses on changes in observable human behaviour in different environments (e.g. home, school, and work) thanks to people's accumulation of knowledge and skills (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). It also investigates the influence of rewards and punishment on learning, and social learning mechanisms through observable learning or modeling (Reio Jr. and Batista, 2014). Additionally, cognitive theory provides knowledge on how people process information to learn (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). Furthermore, humanistic psychology concerns human intrinsic motivations to understand the way that human activity is self-regulated. This branch of psychology introduces theories of human needs, e.g. Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, and Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination motivation theory, which have been applied in many social science disciplines (e.g. adult learning, management) (Reio Jr. and Batista,

2014). With these theories, HRD can understand individual/group learning from cognitive process, as well as both the intrinsic motivations (e.g. needs for autonomy and safety at work) and extrinsic ones (e.g. incentives or punishment) to design HRD programmes such as training, coaching, mentoring that can positively impact on human learning.

Hughes and Byrd (2015) claim that human capital theory (an economic theory) can explain the value of people within the host system and the way to develop their skills and capabilities for the work-related performance. Specifically, human capital theory places economic value on the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the HR in a system. The value is based on the relationship between the host system's investment in its HRD programmes (e.g. training and organizational change) and the outcomes of the investment such as the increased revenue and earnings and individuals' satisfaction with their new skill acquisition (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). However, this theory is criticized for the accuracy of the value because it seems to be impossible to measure accurately the return on the investment in HRD (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). Nevertheless, it still provides theoretical foundations to HRD, e.g. Becker's (1993) model on costs and benefit of education, and Geroy and Venneberg's (2002) discussion of the impact of one's application of knowledge, skills and attitude acquired through HRD programmes on organizational value-added performance (Hughes and Byrd, 2015).

Because it is based on individual and collective learning within a host system, HRD strongly engages with theories of adult learning/education (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). For example, two major theories of adult education have been applied consistently in HRD, namely andragogy and learning from experience.

The former concerns adults as mature, self-directed learners with readiness and intrinsic motivation to learn, experience as a learning resource, and real-life problem orientation (Knowles, 1984; cited in Watkins and Marsick, 2013). The latter focuses on how learning occurs as a result of adult experience, e.g. four stages of experiential learning: being immersed in concrete experiences, adults undertake reflective observation, then abstractly conceptualize, and finally actively experiment (Kolb, 1984; cited in Marsick and Watkins, 2014). The theories help HRD determine suitable foci with proper training approaches/methods to working contexts, e.g. coaching related to particular jobs and real problems; creating conditions/spaces for individuals/groups' informal and incidental learning to maximize their opportunities and resources to enhance their competence (associated with the feature of facilitating the characteristic of adults' self-directed learning); developing learning organization as a culture to promote collective learning at organization level supporting organizational changes (Marsick and Watkins, 2014).

In addition, McGoldrick (1996; cited in McGuire, 2011b) claims that HRD is essentially connected with organizing and managing, as well as concerned with leadership and culture which are important topics in management and organization studies. This is because HRD is seen as a tool of its host system to obtain the system's goals (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Thus, HRD is a constituent part of the host system and operates in the way that the host system expects. Hence, the principles/theories of management (e.g. in managing change, strategic management, leadership styles, and organizational culture) play a considerable role in HRD. Notably, more theories are continually emerging to support HRD

because of the nature and relationship between HRD and working practices (Hughes and Byrd, 2015).

2.2.3. HRD Policies

‘Policy’ can be understood as a course of action relating to setting goals, defining values and allocating the resources that an organization develops to support the achievement of its objectives (Olssen, Codd and O’Neill, 2004). The use of political power and language to legitimate a particular course of action are two fundamental elements of policy (Olssen, Codd and O’Neill, 2004). In other words, policy is seen as an attempt to solve problems and to convince social actors to subscribe to specific values that delineate action (Ward *et al.*, 2016). A policy is expressed and documented as general statements and step-by-step procedures that guide the relevant agencies/departments in how to handle a range of issues within their organization (Balakrishnan and Srividhya, 2007). In other words, policy is the guidance of organizations in the form of “ready-made documents available for ready reference” (Balakrishnan and Srividhya, 2007, p. 25). Specifically in HRD, HRD policies refer to documented statements accompanied by administrative regulations used by governments or organizations to develop HR (Hawley, 2014). Thus, it can include official and documented initiatives, programmes and activities that regulate managers, HRD professionals, and all staff in the host systems. Therefore, the term ‘HRD policies’ will be used interchangeably with the term HRD initiatives/programmes/activities in this report.

In the literature, HRD policies are categorized at two levels, namely public policies managed by governments and firm-based ones deployed by organizations

within their particular contexts. At national level, HRD policies are deployed in three domains, namely preparing the new workforce, retraining workers displaced by economic change, and supporting firm-based training (Hawley, 2014). At organization level, HRD policies may pertain to training, career management, etc. (Balakrishnan and Srividhya, 2007). It is noted that policies at different levels are impacted by different purposes of the host systems. For example, public HRD policies aim to improve the well-being of all citizens, while organizational HRD policies may focus on profit for the shareholders (Hawley, 2014). Therefore, a clear determination of the level of analysis is important in studies of HRD policies.

However, governmental policies can affect organizational policies and outcomes through legal requirements and national resource allocation (Hawley, 2014). Thus, failing to understand the wide scope of relevant government actions may lead to an overly-narrow consideration of factors which are useful to understand how HRD is implemented in organizations (Barnard 2005, Choi 2009; cited in Hawley, 2014). Therefore, it is necessary to consider the relationship between the HRD policy levels, while consistently taking a focus on organizational level of analysis in research such as the current study.

** HRD policies at organizational level*

In the literature, research has focused not only on theoretical issues of HRD (e.g. HRD definition, roles, theoretical foundations and philosophy), but also on practical HRD initiatives, i.e. the host system's policies. This is because HRD is an applied discipline (McGuire, 2011b). Most applied studies in HRD have been at the organizational level and focused on HRD initiatives/programmes/activities that can be applied to the organizational context. A significant area of research at

this level is the influence of HRD initiatives on individual perception, individual and organizational performance and outcomes. This body of research has observed the positive impact of HRD programmes (e.g. managerial coaching, leadership development, professional training, career management for the whole staff/aging workers) on employee engagement and organizational commitment (Shuck *et al.*, 2014), employee satisfaction with work, employee improved outcomes, and organizational success (Kim, 2014; Hughes and Byrd, 2015). However, research and practical outcomes of the positive influence has not yet sufficiently demonstrated the competence and value of HRD (Kahnweiler, 2009; cited in Gubbins *et al.*, 2018), leading to HRD stakeholders' perception that its cost are higher than its benefit (Swanson, 1998; cited in Gubbins *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, more research is needed to test HRD credibility, trustworthiness, and professionalism (Gubbins *et al.*, 2018).

Another important research area is related to contextual factors affecting the effectiveness of organizational HRD initiatives. For instance, research on the impact of organizational culture on HRD indicates that organizational culture shapes the HRD role, the size and goals of the HRD department, and the frequency/types/delivery means of HRD in organizations (Plakhotnik, 2014). For instance, in a culture where the power of HRD practitioners is limited, the impact of HRD initiatives is restricted (Plakhotnik, 2014). Other contextual factors can impact on organizational HRD initiatives in the following ways: (1) perception, capability, styles and the degree of involvement of upper managers can affect the quality of managerial coaching programmes for employees (Plakhotnik, 2014); (2) HRM practices of organizations, e.g. performance management, reward and punishment regime, may influence employee perceptions and motivation to learn

to improve their performance (Lincoln, 2012; Russ-Eft, 2014); (3) national legal frameworks impose requirements on organizational HRD activities, e.g. mandatory training, required certificates for employees (Clardy, 2014); and (4) even different HRD programmes can mutually support each other, e.g. a professional training programme can create an informal learning network among employees.

Furthermore, HRD research tries to evaluate and ensure the effectiveness and quality of organizational HRD programmes. This is because quality and effectiveness provide convincing reasons why organizations should invest in HRD interventions. This suggests that quality management such as total quality management models can be applied to all stages of HRD projects, e.g. Juran's (1951) trilogy of quality concepts (i.e. quality planning, quality control, and quality improvement) (Hughes and Byrd, 2015). For example, to ensure the quality of planning of HRD programmes, HRD professionals have to use techniques such as training needs analysis to identify clearly who their internal/external stakeholders are, and what the stakeholders' needs are. The quality of this step will feed into the quality of the next step (developing HRD intervention features that respond to stakeholders' needs), and in turn, into the final two steps of planning (developing processes able to produce the product features, and developing process controls to operating forces) (Hughes and Byrd, 2015).

McGuire (2011a) lists seven dimensions of training interventions (i.e. learning theory, knowledge-skills mix, training transferability, degree of learner interaction, locus of initiation, degree of reflection, and cost) with which to evaluate the effectiveness of different types of training as HRD interventions (e.g.

lecture, role play, distance learning, mentoring). The list can be useful for HRD professionals in selecting a training intervention that is suitable for the training goals and organizational resources/conditions, thereby, ensuring its effectiveness.

In summary, HRD policies in the form of organizational initiatives/programmes/activities have been investigated from different aspects, namely the outcomes of HRD activities, the contextual factors affecting HRD programmes, and ways HRD initiatives can be evaluated. Previous research has either generated theoretical foundations of HRD or raised issues for HRD researchers and practitioners to examine and develop the field, e.g. how psychological mechanisms and states such as BPNW and job engagement interplay with and, thereby, affect the effectiveness of organizational HRD policies, especially based on the framework of the definition of HRD offered by Wang *et al.* (2017).

** Relationship between job engagement and organizational HRD:*

Job engagement has become a significant topic in HRD because organizations have shifted from a deficit-based approach to a strength-based one (Kim *et al.*, 2013; cited in Lee *et al.*, 2017). Specifically, instead of highlighting the dark sides (e.g. problems, crisis, conflict, and dysfunction) to make employees anxious in order to engage them in organizational improvement, organizations recognize and more emphasize the positivity at work to enhance employees' well-being and improve their performance (Sweetman and Luthans, 2010; cited in Lee *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, HRD interventions to support employees' engagement in general, and job engagement in particular, have received considerable attention from HRD researchers and practitioners.

Albrecht (2010) categorizes HRD interventions for job engagement into three levels. Specifically, at the organizational level, HRD strategies are based on organization development and focus on creating a culture/climate for engagement (e.g. promoting employees' participation, autonomy, trust, safety, fairness, feedback, recognition and reward, and opportunities for growth), e.g. Rivera and Flinck, 2011; Verghese, 2011 (cited in Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi, 2014). At the job level, HRD interventions focus on creating active jobs that are characterized by a high degree of job control, demands and support, and provide employees with experiences of job significance, autonomy, variety, feedback and challenge (e.g. job enrichment, rotation, and enlargement), e.g. Hakanen and Roodt (2010), Bakker (2010). Finally, at the individual level, HRD initiatives can facilitate and optimize employees' personal resources for their job engagement (e.g. training, and development supports), e.g. Dysvik and Kuvaas (2014), Schaufeli and Salanova (2010).

Although research has examined a range of the antecedents of engagement which relate to HRD initiatives/programmes/activities, more empirical work is needed to investigate the psychological mechanism of being engaged (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015) to determine which HRD-related antecedents are most likely to increase employee/job engagement (Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi, 2014). This opens up opportunities for studies of what mediates the relationship between job engagement and HRD initiatives, e.g. the mediating role of BPNW.

2.3. Overview of BPNW

2.3.1. Definition of ‘Basic psychological needs’

‘Basic psychological needs’ is a central concept of SDT initially developed by Deci and Ryan over 40 years ago (Gagné and Deci, 2014). SDT is a motivational theory which engages with “forward influence, independent choice and the degree to which behaviour is self-regulated, self-determined and self-motivated” (Deci and Ryan, 2000, cited in Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015, p. 4). Specifically, the focus of SDT is the effect of goal pursuit and attainment through the goal contents and regulatory processes on the degree to which people’s basic psychological needs are fulfilled when they pursue and achieve valued outcomes (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In other words, SDT concerns a person’s internalization of values and regulations of their social groups to transform their behaviours on a continuum from being amotivated (i.e. not motivated) which is associated with a non-regulatory style; to being extrinsically motivated (in one of four ways which is associated with external, introjected, identified, and integrated regulation); to being intrinsically motivated which is associated with internal regulation (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

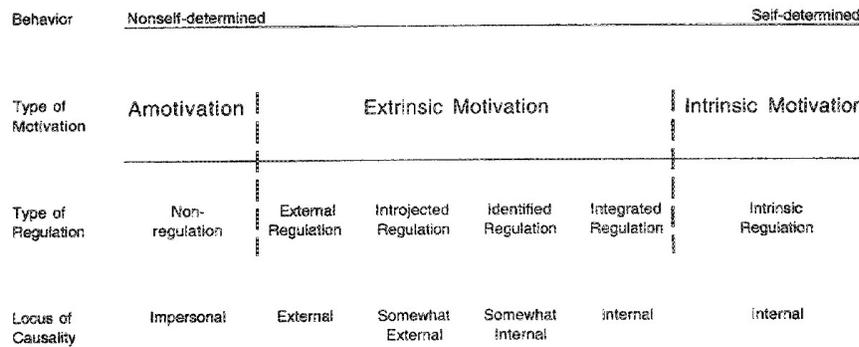


Figure 2.1. The Self-determination continuum
 (Source: (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 237))

Gagné and Deci (2005) describe amotivation as a lack of intention to act. Furthermore, two types of motivation, namely autonomous and controlled motivation, are regarded as the anchors of the internalization continuum. Autonomous motivation includes intrinsic motivation (i.e. doing an activity because of interest and enjoyment) and fully internalized extrinsic motivation (i.e. doing the activity volitionally thanks to its personal value and importance) (Deci and Ryan, 2014). Controlled motivation comprises external regulation and introjected extrinsic motivation, thus involving external or introjected contingencies that coerce or seduce people to act (Gagné and Deci, 2005). As such, the integrated extrinsic motivation is a bridge between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on the continuum. It belongs to controlled/extrinsic motivation because it is instrumental rather than autotelic (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

SDT contends that intrinsic motivation is ‘the prototype of self-determined activity’, therefore, representing ‘standards against which the qualities of an extrinsically motivated behaviour can compare to determine its degree of self-determination’ (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 237). Thus, the degree to which people

are autonomous or self-determined reflects the extent to which they act with a full feeling of volition and choice toward goals, as opposed to the sense of being controlled or pressed by external forces to achieve the outcomes (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

SDT also points out that the degree to which people are able to incorporate cultural demands, values and regulations from external environments into the self depends on how much people feel their fundamental psychological needs are satisfied when engaging with the relevant behaviours (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Therefore, satisfaction of the needs is considered as essential nutrient for the internalization and integration process, as well as the underlying motivational mechanism that directs and energizes human behaviours (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

Within SDT, Ryan *et al.* (1996; cited in Gagné and Deci, 2005, p. 337) define needs as universal requirements, “as the nutrients that are essential for optimal human development and integrity”. As such, the fulfilment of needs encourages psychological health, whereas the thwarting of needs prevents psychological health (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Based on this definition, SDT defines three essential psychological needs, namely the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness. These needs are innate rather than learnt (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

The first need for autonomy refers to the desire to have power to make one’s own decision regarding one’s actions (Gagné and Deci, 2005). In other words, autonomy involves people’s feeling of volition and sense of choice and psychological freedom when engaging with an activity (Deci and Ryan, 2000). As such, SDT sees autonomy as people’s subjective experience rather than a task characteristic. Thus, the need for autonomy can be satisfied by not only the

autonomous features of tasks, but also other external factors such as meaningful reasons to do the tasks that are given by supervisors (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010).

The need for autonomy is the most controversial concept out of the three (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010). Critics contend that autonomy is not a universal psychological need as claimed within SDT. This is because despite autonomy being a focus of Western European and North American cultures where independence and individualism are respected, it is not relevant in collective cultures, e.g. East Asia, where interdependence and deference are central (Gagné and Deci, 2014). However, Markus and Kitayama (2003) (cited in Gagné and Deci, 2014) argue that the critique seems to be based on a confusion between autonomy and independence. Autonomy emphasizes the feeling of volition and choice to carry out an activity rather than implying “a need to act independently from the desires of others” (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016, p. 1198). Therefore, as mentioned earlier, the need for autonomy can be fulfilled even by extrinsic motivation, e.g. the desires of others. Furthermore, SDT has been developed for over three decades through an empirical approach (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Hence, many empirical studies demonstrate that, regardless of cultures, the more people act autonomously, the greater psychological health they experience (Gagné and Deci, 2014). Consequently, SDT considers autonomy as a fundamental psychological need.

The second need, i.e. competence, concerns a feeling of effectiveness when interacting with the environment (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In other words, people have an innate need to feel they possess the requisite knowledge, skills, and resources to master their environment (Meyer et al., 2010; cited in Shuck,

Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). Competence satisfaction helps people adapt to complex and changing environments, thereby, motivating them to engage with the relevant activity (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010).

The last need for relatedness represents feeling cared for and caring about others, meaning a sense of being connected to others and being a member of a group (Baumeister and Leary, 1995; cited in Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010). This need derives from “the evolutionary benefits in terms of survival and reproduction” (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016, p. 1199). This need is fulfilled by a feeling of communion and acquisition of close relationship with others (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

Applying the needs to the work domain, SDT claims that people are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to do their job when they experience the sense of being free to choose to pursue the job-related activities (autonomy), being able to succeed in the job performance (competence), and being connected and supported by important people in their workplace (relatedness) (Gagné, 2003).

** Basic psychological needs in SDT compared to needs in other theories*

Deci and Ryan (2014) explain the differences between SDT and Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs theory (1943, 1970) – the best known theory of needs studying both need-strength and need-satisfaction. Firstly, SDT claims that some needs in Maslow’s theory, such as the needs for security and self-esteem, are only need substitutes, not actually basic needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Specifically, when the basic needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are satisfied, people do not search for self-esteem (Ryan and Brown, 2003; cited in Deci and Ryan, 2014). Secondly, SDT does not set the three basic needs in a hierarchy, but

sees the basic psychological needs as basic physiological drives (e.g. hunger and thirst) which operate across the life span (Deci and Ryan, 2014). Finally, SDT concerns need satisfaction rather than need strength. Hence, instead of the focus on the strength of the lower-order needs to predict the presence of the higher-order needs and other outcomes, as in Maslow's hierarchy (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016), SDT examines the degree to which the three basic psychological needs are fulfilled at work to predict work-related outcomes, e.g. job satisfaction and high-quality performance (Deci and Ryan, 2014).

Additionally, compared with McClelland's acquired needs theory (1965), SDT argues that the basic needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are present in everybody and all of them are equally important in human growth and functioning. By contrast, McClelland's three needs for achievement, power, and affiliation are not all equally pressing. One or two may dominate depending on the person and the context (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016).

Furthermore, based on empirical evidence, SDT contends that these three basic psychological needs are necessary and sufficient to encourage human growth and functioning (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Therefore, all three basic psychological needs must be satisfied for individual psychological growth, well-being, and internalization (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In light of this argument, power is a desire rather than a basic need because its absence or presence does not necessarily promote or hinder human psychological health, well-being, and internalization (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016).

The focus of the present study is SDT's BPNW of university lecturers in Viet Nam, not their physiological drives. However, physiological needs which are satisfied by extrinsic forces (e.g. salary/money to pay for essential living

costs) may affect the level of employees' internalization of other organizational policies during their work, thus impacting the level of BPNW satisfaction. Hence, physiological drives related to HRD may be taken into account in the study when required.

2.3.2. Measurement of BPNW

Although there have been several studies using qualitative methods such as diary analysis (e.g. Hetland *et al.*, 2015; Van Hooff and Geurts, 2015), the majority of published studies have used quantitative approaches such as a self-report questionnaire to develop and validate BPNW measurement (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Despite the clear definitions of SDT's basic psychological needs applied to work domain, the scales to measure the needs are various. Some ad hoc measurements have been developed but these may not have been rigorously validated (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010). Longo *et al.* (2016) summarize three scales of BPNW that have been frequently used, including the Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale, the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction scale, and the Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale.

Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale (developed by Deci et al. 2001) has been widely used but often in modified versions (Longo *et al.*, 2016). This scale is criticized for including some items that do not assess the experience of BPNW satisfaction, but the antecedents (e.g. positive feedback: "People at work tell me I am good at what I do") or consequences (e.g. intrinsic motivation: "I enjoy the challenge my work provides") of the need satisfaction (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016, p. 1200). This leads to content invalidity.

The same problem was found in the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction scale developed by Van den Broeck et al. 2010. Specifically, Brien *et al.* (2012) argue that an item such as “The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do” measures job characteristic which is an antecedent of need satisfaction, rather than autonomy satisfaction itself. Furthermore, this scale includes negatively-worded items to measure need frustration in addition to need satisfaction, e.g. “I don’t really mix with other people in my job” (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010, p. 991). Brien *et al.* (2012, p. 170) claim that such items may only reflect an absence or low level of the compatible items of need satisfaction, e.g. “At work, I feel part of a group”, leading to an inaccurate result of need frustration. Additionally, De Vaus (2002) (cited in Longo *et al.*, 2016, p. 297) claims that combining positively and negatively-worded items may make respondents confused when expressing their agreement/opinions. Thus, it is best to avoid negatively-worded statements in psychometric tests.

Brien *et al.* (2012) propose Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale (BPNWS) to address the problems of content invalidity and inclusion of negatively-worded statements. However, this scale is itself criticized for including some overly specific items (full BPNWS in section B of Appendix 1). Specifically, Longo *et al.* (2016, p. 298) argue that relatedness satisfaction is deconstructed into specific subcomponents of (1) feeling heard, (2) feeling understood, (3) feeling able to trust others and (4) feeling like a friend with co-workers in BPNWS, e.g. “When I’m with the people from my work environment, I feel understood” (Brien *et al.*, 2012, p. 175), which is not consistent with the purpose of basic needs theory. Additionally, this scale has been tested in French up to 2016, leading to a limit of the scale’s usefulness in English (Longo *et al.*,

2016). Nonetheless, because Brien *et al.* (2012) provide the English version of the scale, this should be seen as an opportunity for other researchers to test BPNWS in English or other languages rather than a limitation.

To avoid the problem with specification in BPNWS, Longo *et al.* (2016, p. 304) suggest replacing the items measuring relatedness in BPNWS by more general items, e.g. “I feel I’m perfectly integrated into a group”, “I feel very close and connected with other people”, “I feel the people I interact with really care about me”. However, Longo *et al.*’s (2016) scale is complex because it measures both need satisfaction and need frustration. Although it does not include negatively-worded items, the inclusion of so-called opposite constructs may make it complicated to interpret the responses. For instance, score 3 (in 5-point Likert scale: 1-strong disagree and 5-strongly agree) for item “Occasionally, I feel incapable of succeeding in my tasks” (i.e. slight competence frustration) may conflict with score 5 for item “I feel highly effective at what I do” (i.e. complete competence satisfaction) when they are assessed by the same respondent.

Certainly, it is difficult to reach a perfect scale. The focus of my study is need satisfaction, thus, complicated scales that measure both need satisfaction and frustration are not required. My study will adopt BPNWS developed by Brien *et al.* (2012). This is because (1) BPNWS has well addressed the problems of content invalidity and negatively-worded items; (2) the specific items of relatedness satisfaction in BPNWS are acceptable because they reflect key characteristics of the need for relatedness in the authors’ parsimonious framework; (3) BPNWS has been tested and confirmed in French in Canadian and French contexts, and recently in Portuguese in Portugal, meaning there is a

cross-cultural generalizability (Sánchez-Oliva *et al.*, 2017). This is an interesting opportunity to test the scale in Vietnamese and in the context of Vietnamese HE.

2.3.3. Antecedents and Consequences of BPNW

** Antecedents of BPNW*

Research on BPNW has investigated the predictors of BPNW in terms of three key dimensions, namely personal factors, job-related factors, and the relationship between members and their organization.

With regard to personal factors, a review of 99 studies with 119 distinct samples conducted by Van den Broeck *et al.* (2016) indicates that there was a significant, positive relationship between satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs and self-esteem and efficacy, optimism, mindfulness, agreeableness, conscientiousness, proactive personality, causality orientation and extraversion. There was also a significant negative relationship between neuroticism and need satisfaction.

For job-related factors, all three needs are negatively linked to job insecurity, job stressors and work-family conflict, whereas there is difference in the relationship between each of the needs and different aspects of job demands, e.g. autonomy and competence satisfaction negatively links to workload and emotional demands, while autonomy has no relationship with cognitive demands, competence positively links to cognitive demands (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). One of the reasons for the difference is that cognitive demands representing intellectual challenges (as a stressor) may increase employees' feeling of competence (Crawford, Lepine, and Rich, 2010; cited in Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016).

Research also indicates a significant, positive relationship between all three needs and job resources, including job autonomy, social support, skill variety, task significance, task identity, and performance feedback (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). This is because when the task difficulty matches or slightly exceeds their current competence level, employees are intrinsically motivated to do/overcome the challenge of the job (Gagné and Panaccio, 2014). This presents optimal stimulation leading to competence satisfaction. Additionally, positive performance feedback can increase employees' sense of competence and relatedness leading to higher intrinsic motivation if it is given in combination with other factors, e.g. job autonomy, and autonomy-supportive leadership (Ryan *et al.*, 1983, cited in Deci and Ryan, 2014). Relating to job resources, job design is a predictor of BPNW satisfaction. When a job is designed as autonomous where employees are allowed to craft the job with their own choice rather than a top-down redesign, they can be more intrinsically motivated to engage in the job (Gagné and Panaccio, 2014).

Researchers have paid considerable attention to the effect of the relationship between members and their organization on BPNW. Specifically, factors such as reward and compensation, leadership, training and development, organizational support, fairness perception/procedural justice, and person-environment fit have been found to significantly relate to BPNW satisfaction. Interestingly, meta-analyses indicate that tangible extrinsic rewards (including salaries and other payments) significantly undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci *et al.* 1999, Tang and Hall 1995, Wiersma, 1992; cited in Deci and Ryan, 2014). This is because the rewards that link to forms of threats, deadlines, imposed objectives, surveillance, assessment, and competition decrease employees'

feeling of autonomy (Gagné and Deci, 2014). However, it is also noted that there are some ways in which tangible rewards do not diminish and might even enhance employees' intrinsic motivation regardless of the notice of rewards before or after the task completion. Specifically, when rewards are based on performance to recognize excellent performers and administered with the autonomy-supportive interpersonal styles, they will enhance employees' senses of competence, autonomy and relatedness (Ryan, Mims, and Koestner 1983; cited in Deci and Ryan, 2014).

Leadership (meaning leader/manager autonomy support, and transformational and servant leadership styles) positively links to BPNW satisfaction. Autonomy support focuses on leaders/managers' interpersonal orientation (i.e. how leaders/managers interact with their followers and conduct their leadership, (Baard et al., 2004; cited in Gilbert and Kelloway, 2014)) rather than the decision-making process related to participative leadership (Deci et al., 1989; cited in Gilbert and Kelloway, 2014). Based on studies by Deci and Ryan (1987) and Baard et al. (2004), Gilbert and Kelloway (2014) conclude that leaders/managers with an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style provide employees with choice and flexibility to determine their behaviour, and, thus, employees' BPNW are fulfilled. They, in turn, engage in self-regulatory and internally motivated behaviours, leading to higher efficiency and productivity.

In addition, transformational leadership refers to leaders' offering idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration for their employees in order to "broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, ... generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and ... stir their employees to look beyond their own self-

interest for the good of the group” (Bass, 1985; cited in Gilbert and Kelloway, 2014, p. 186). Through intellectual stimulation (i.e. leaders encouraging employees to question the traditional and current ways of problem-solving to improve their competence and performance), transformational leaders contribute to employees’ competence satisfaction (Hetland *et al.*, 2011). Additionally, individualized consideration emphasizes leaders’ care of and support to each of their subordinate’s needs (Hetland *et al.*, 2011), expressing the core of relatedness satisfaction. Furthermore, idealized influence and inspirational motivation are conducted through leaders’ communication and explanation of the group/organization vision, and values to get them shared by employees. This leads to the employees’ internalization of the vision and values, and, thus, leaders promote intrinsic motivation in their employees (Gilbert and Kelloway, 2014). This helps the followers feel more autonomous to pursue the shared vision and values, fulfilling their need for autonomy.

Servant leadership also focuses on satisfying employees’ needs, but places more emphasis on leaders’ characteristics of altruism, empathy, ethics, and community stewardship to promote employees’ growth, empowerment and well-being (Greenleaf 1998, Liden et al. 2008, Mayer, 2010; cited in Chiniara and Bentein, 2016). The study by Chiniara and Bentein (2016) confirms that servant leadership strongly relates to the three BPNW. This is because servant leaders care for each follower’s feelings, interests, views, opinions and intrinsic values (i.e. empathy and stewardship), thus, the leaders try to enable by empowering and supporting their followers to be creative, learn from mistakes, take responsibilities, solve problems in their own way (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016). As a result, the subordinates can experience a sense of autonomy and competence

at work. Additionally, by being altruistic and ethical, servant leaders create a trustworthy environment for employees' belief in and perception of organizational fairness and safety (Ehrhart 2004, Schaubroeck et al. 2011; cited in Chiniara and Bentein, 2016), and, thus, engender a willingness to work autonomously. This helps the leaders develop the sense of relatedness in their employees.

Organizational variables such as organizational support, fairness perception (particularly perceived procedural justice), and person-environment fit positively link to BPNW (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). This is because, these factors directly contribute to a conducive, safe, meaningful and trustworthy working environment that creates opportunities for employees' BPNW satisfaction (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010). Specifically, these factors strongly foster employees' feeling of autonomy to make changes and relatedness.

In addition, organizational training and development demonstrate a positive impact on BPNW through enhancing people's capability to do their job well and to develop their fullest potential (competence). This sends a signal that the organization values its employees (relatedness), and they then internalize the requirements to learn and develop themselves (autonomy) (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2014).

HRD programmes which embody organizational support, e.g. training and development (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2014), and organizational changes (e.g. leadership, and culture) have been found to be antecedents of BPNW (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016). Thus, HRD can significantly affect the satisfaction of employees' BPNW as discussed above.

**Consequences*

At a personal level, the satisfaction of SDT's needs predicts individual well-being (Brien *et al.*, 2012). Specifically, each of the needs has positive links to positive affect, general well-being, and engagement, whereas unfulfilled needs lead to negative affect and strain (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, each of the BPNW has been found to well explain two aspects of job attitude, namely affective commitment and job satisfaction, while negatively link to turnover intention (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the more each of the BPNW is satisfied, the better individual performance measures, including task/creative/proactive performance, job crafting, organization citizenship behaviours and employee effort (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016; Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). By contrast, BPNW satisfaction negatively links to deviant behaviour at work; autonomy and relatedness fulfilment negatively predicts absenteeism whereas competence is not related (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Finally, for motivation, the more BPNW is satisfied, the less amotivated behaviours occur; autonomy and competence fulfilment reduces externally-motivated activities, while relatedness has no relation to external motivation; and all of the three needs are strong predictors of introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivation, meaning the strength of self-determined behaviours (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016).

At an organizational level, organizational productivity is a key outcome of BPNW satisfaction (Gilbert and Kelloway, 2014). This results from the impact of BPNW satisfaction on the improvement of employees' job attitude, behaviours, and motivation at an individual level as noted above.

**BPNW and job engagement:*

As mentioned earlier, job engagement is an outcome of BPNW (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). Indeed, both theoretical and empirical analyses indicate that satisfying employees' BPNW is the key to enhancing their engagement, e.g. Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova (2010), and Van den Broeck *et al.* (2016). In other words, the level of employees' job engagement depends on the degree of their autonomous motivation and self-regulation at work, meaning the degree to which their BPNW is fulfilled (Meyer, Gagné and Parfyonova, 2010). In reality, not every employee may have the chance to make changes in their job (Bakker, 2010). Thus, autonomy satisfaction may enhance employees' job engagement.

** The mediating role of BPNW*

The satisfaction of BPNW plays a mediating role in many studies. It has been used to explain the intra-psychological processes underlying the relationship between antecedents and consequences, e.g. mediating the relationship between servant leadership and individual performance (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016); between transformational leadership and performance (Kovjanic, Schuh and Jonas, 2013), and positive job attitude (Hetland *et al.*, 2015); between stress exposure and well-being (Aldrup, Klusmann and Lütke, 2017).

According to Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen (2015), although BPNW plays a critical role in understanding the antecedents of engagement at work, there has been little research in HRD applying the SDT framework. Therefore, these authors suggest that researchers and practitioners should examine, from an HRD perspective, the ways to increase/last the impact of BPNW satisfaction on the expected outcome such as job engagement.

Drawing upon this suggestion, my study aims to examine the mediating role of BPNW between lecturers' job engagement and the university's HRD policies. The study will investigate whether the university policies satisfy lecturers' BPNW, and thereby, enhance lecturers' job engagement.

2.4. Job engagement – BPNW – HRD in Vietnamese HE

Studies conducted in Vietnam (and written up in English and Vietnamese) have already been cited, when relevant, in the preceding three sub-sections (job engagement, HRD policies and BPNW) of the literature review. To avoid duplication, this section will review the main points in the results and research methods that have been found/applied in these studies.

Research on job engagement in Vietnam has focused on the relationship between job engagement and its antecedents and consequences. Specifically, the following factors have been found to have a positive effect on Vietnamese employees' job engagement: ethical and visionary leadership, and employee sociability (Mai and Nguyen, 2014); initiating structure (i.e. task-oriented) and consideration (i.e. relation-oriented) leadership (Pham, 2016); transformational leadership, and high-performance HR practices (i.e. selection, training and development, job security, promotion, performance-related pay, autonomy, and communication) (Pham-Thai *et al.*, 2018); organizational tactics, and positive work-home interaction (Bui and Tran, 2017), and job resources (e.g. salary/income, working condition, training and promotion, and coworkers) (Tran, 2016). Job engagement, in turn, can predict organizational citizenship behaviour and innovative work behaviour (Pham-Thai *et al.*, 2018).

With regard to research methods, only the study by Pham-Thai *et al.* (2018) out of the works cited was conducted with university lecturers in Vietnam, albeit it used the measurement of job engagement developed by Rich *et al.* (2010), not UWES. Some authors, such as Bui and Tran (2017), used UWES to measure job engagement of Vietnamese young employees, excluding lecturers. Other studies used their own scales (e.g. Mai and Nguyen (2014), and Tran (2016)) or measurement developed by consultancy companies, (e.g. Development Dimensions International's E3® Engagement, (Pham, 2016)). However, the measurements developed on an ad hoc basis may not have been specifically validated (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2010) and those developed by consultancy companies may combine items measuring both job engagement and other organizational factors to serve management purposes (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). Consequently, such measurements may not correctly assess the construct and/or may be suitable for application only within the restricted cases.

There is very little research adopting SDT framework to examine job engagement, e.g. Pham's (2016) study uses SDT as the theoretical foundation to investigate the relationship between leadership behaviour (i.e initiating structure and consideration) and employee engagement. Thus, there is a noticeable lack of research examining SDT's BPNW and the relationship between job engagement and BPNW in a Vietnamese context, especially in Vietnamese HE. This is an opportunity for the present study to try to fit UWES and BPNWS to a sample of Vietnamese lecturers in order to investigate the relationship and contribute to the body of knowledge on the subject.

Lecturer development in Viet Nam is a topic that has received considerable attention. Studies in both English and Vietnamese have focused on

policies/programmes to develop lecturers' competence. These studies were conducted using a mixed-method approach with a questionnaire survey and interviews/focus-groups. Several studies aims to build a competence framework for the job of lecturer and then propose corresponding HRD initiatives to develop the lecturers' competences, e.g. Nguyen (2013) and Cánh (2015). For example, Nguyen (2013) proposes a model to develop academic staff capacity based on the required competences of training, research and others (e.g. administration). Based on the model, nine recommendations were made, namely: establishing an academic staff development unit; changing the primacy of the teaching-research nexus; improving the quality of teaching/research resources; renewing incentive and award scheme; designing an introduction programme for academic staff; offering more opportunities for academics staff to study for a higher degree; establishing peer and inter-peer groups for development; diversifying the mode of academic staff development activities; and improving working condition in HE (Nguyen, 2013).

Some studies investigates problems/emerging issues related to lecturer job (both within a case study and the national level) to recommend HRD solutions for the management board, e.g. Lê (2015) and Vũ (2017). For instance, Lê (2015) reports on the quantity and quality of lecturers in a university in Vietnam, i.e. lecturers' competencies in their academic field (e.g. research, participating in academic conferences) and in pedagogy (e.g. teaching delivery, supervising students' research, curriculum development). The author also analyzes the challenges that the university has faced (e.g. increase in postgraduate training demands); and points out the weaknesses (e.g. lack of professors and doctorate holders) and strengths (e.g. lecturers' good competence, the university support to

lecturers' development) of the quantity and quality of the university's lecturers. He then recommends how the university can overcome the challenges through HRD activities (e.g. improving HR planning, compensation schemes, motivating lecturers to study for higher degrees). At the national level, Vũ (2017) discusses the weaknesses of the national policies for developing lecturers in public universities in Vietnam (e.g. unclear goals of policies for lecturer development; inability to attract high performers such as inadequate income, poor working conditions, and lack of academic climate in public universities; ineffective recruitment leading to recruitment of staff with the required degrees but without adequate competencies; applying performance appraisal for administrators to evaluate lecturers' performance, inadequate training for lecturers, and equalizing the incentive and reward schemes). As a result, the author recommends solutions such as improving policies for lecturer development in public universities and aligning this with the renovation of HE governance at the national level, improving salary and recognition and reward schemes, and assigning top universities in every field to train lecturers teaching in the field for other universities in Vietnam.

Noticeably, most of the recommendations were based on HRM functions (i.e. planning, recruitment, training and development, compensation, performance evaluation), so, the solutions did not focus on lecturers' BPNW and job engagement.

Additionally, lecturers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations that affect lecturers' teaching in Vietnamese universities have been investigated in the field of psychology. For instance, Nguyễn's (2012a) studies used questionnaire survey and in-depth interviews with lecturers from four universities in Vietnam. He

found that lecturers' motivation to teach is significantly related to four intrinsic factors, namely lecturers' values with respect to teaching, lecturers' perception of the job requirement, lecturers' teaching interest, and lecturers' sense of self-responsibility in teaching. Additionally, four extrinsic factors significantly affect lecturers' motivation to teach, namely working environment (i.e. psychological climate, spirit for academic argument, work sharing among colleagues, and leadership styles), working facilities, policies of compensation and reward, and students (e.g. students' interest in and commitment with learning) (Nguyễn, 2012b).

However, the link between these motivations (as the means to satisfy lecturers' BPNW) and lecturers' job engagement under the impact of HRD policies has hardly received any attention. Therefore, within the HRD field in Vietnam, there has been a lack of research on applying BPNW and job engagement scales to measure how far HRD policies can satisfy people's BPNW and impact on their job engagement.

In conclusion, chapter 2 has provided a literature review of the research related to my study, based on which the definitions and measurements of the relevant constructs have been determined. As can be seen from the literature, there is a need for more research on the relationship between job engagement, HRD and BPNW, especially in the context of Vietnamese HE. To respond to the call, the present study proposes a framework of the relationship with the inclusion of two scales simultaneously applied to measure lecturers' job engagement and BPNW. The study is expected to provide empirical evidence on how BPNW can explain the influence of HRD on lecturers' job engagement; and suggest

recommendations for the relevant stakeholders to optimize HRD solutions, thereby, filling gaps in the literature.

Chapter 3. Methodology and Methods

In light of the research problem, aim and questions, and the literature review, this chapter provides more details of how the research was designed and conducted. Specifically, the first two sections explain the research paradigm and the conceptual framework of the study. The next two sections elaborate the approaches and methods that were taken in the study and how they were deployed. Ethical issues relating to the study are discussed in the last section of the chapter.

*** Research questions**

As indicated in chapter 1, the aim of my research is to examine the impact of HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement by investigating how the policies satisfy lecturers' BPNW.

To address the aim, two main research questions and two sub-questions have been formulated as follows:

1. How are current HRD policies affecting lecturers' BPNW, and through this, their job engagement at Tiên Phong University?

1.1. What are the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement?

1.2. How does the lecturers' satisfaction of BPNW by the HRD policies relate to the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement?

2. How can the university use HRD policies to enhance its lecturers' job engagement?

3.1. Research paradigm

** Adopting a paradigm*

Deciding on a paradigm, i.e. ontology and epistemology, is important for social science researchers. This is because, the perception of the nature of social reality (i.e. ontology) and the way of knowing social life (i.e. epistemology) affect how researchers approach their research objects and collect and analyze data from the social world (Blaikie, 2010; Morrison, 2012). Research paradigms are often polarized (Ercikan and Roth, 2006). Within the pole represented by the positivist paradigm, the belief that the world is out there and external to the human mind leads researchers to seek out and test universal regularities of the reality (Blaikie, 2010). Thus, they adopt quantitative approaches and methods to investigate the social phenomena, collect and process data from representative sample(s) of population, e.g. using questionnaire with statistical techniques to generalize universal laws for the population (Morrison, 2012).

By contrast, the pole represented by the interpretivist paradigm assumes that social reality does not exist out there, but is constructed within the human mind (Hollis, 1994) through language and affected by the constructors' culture (Winch 1958, cited in Benton and Craib, 2011). The key aim of interpretivist research is to grasp the meanings given by social actors to their social actions (Benton and Craib, 2011). Thus, interpretivists use qualitative approaches and methods, e.g. interview and ethnography, in order to obtain social actors' rich accounts (i.e. data in word form) and in-depth understanding, while often eschewing quantitative ones (Morrison, 2012). During the process of conducting interpretivist research, the meanings constructed by social actors are subsequently

constructed by the researcher to create a type of knowledge called intersubjective knowledge – a key term of interpretivism (Hay, 2011).

Additionally, researchers can adopt a third way that does not belong to either of the dichotomous paradigms. The third way encourages researchers to utilize the strengths and overcome the limitations of the dualism (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012). An illustration of the third way is pragmatism which aims to intervene and change the social reality (Braa and Vidgen, 1999; cited in Goldkuhl, 2012). Pragmatism encourages researchers to “mix research components in ways that ... [researchers] believe will work for ... [their] research problem, question and circumstances”, as long as the combination helps them provide strong evidence to support and warrant their claims (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, p. 124). Therefore, pragmatism is associated with a mixed method approach between quantitative and qualitative research design (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989).

In short, a paradigm is seen as the philosophical stance of ontology and epistemology directing the approaches and methods in a study. The adoption of a paradigm needs to depend on the starting points of the research such as research aims, focus, and research questions (Goldkuhl, 2012).

My study has drawn mainly upon the interpretivist paradigm. This is because the aim, focus and questions of the study are to grasp the university lecturers' accounts in terms of how they think the university's HRD policies have influenced their BPNW, and thereby, how engaged in the job they feel. The research also investigates more suitable policies recommended by the lecturers. Thus, the study examines the topic from the viewpoint of the lecturers. In other words, it seeks to understand the reasons/meanings of a social phenomenon (i.e.

the relationship between job engagement, BPNW, and HRD policies) from within the minds of the social actors (i.e. lecturers). This matches the key characteristic of interpretivism as mentioned before.

Another important reason for my adoption of interpretivism is that interpretivist epistemology features a combination of atomist and holistic levels of analysis. The former level emphasizes individuals' actions during human interaction, while the latter concerns the structures and context affecting individuals' actions (Hollis, 1994).

There has been a debate about the levels of analysis of interpretivist research. On the one hand, Weber (cited in Benton and Craib, 2011, p. 77) claims that,

there are no collective entities such as classes except in a limited sense that we will consider shortly nor can we talk about social structures or overarching social phenomena which impose themselves on individuals.

Thus, the focus of interpretivist research is human agents' actions during their interaction – the atomist level is prioritized above the holistic level (Hollis, 1994). On the other hand, Tracy (2013) claims that although the purpose of interpretivist research is to grasp the meanings of individuals' actions when interacting with others, the meanings are constructed by individuals through a language shared with their community and within their particular historical and cultural setting. This implies a simultaneous presentation of holism. More specifically, Gadamar (cited in Benton & Craib 2001, p.104) tries to explain the

symbiotic relationship between the whole (i.e. holistic object) and its parts (i.e. atomistic agents) through the concept of a ‘hermeneutic circle’ as follows:

We cannot know the part without understanding the whole of which it is a part and at the same time, we cannot know the whole without understanding the parts that make it up. As a result, understanding involves a constant movement from the part to the whole and back again.

Based on the assumption that individuals, as the parts, have to interact with others within their community, as the whole, to exist, Gadamar’s argument clearly demonstrates that a combination of holistic and atomist examination is essential in interpretivist research.

Regarding my study, it is necessary to examine both the lecturers’ opinions, perceptions and affection in terms of the research topic (atomist level), and the university’s structure/context and even the context of Vietnamese HE of which the lecturers and the university are parts (holistic level). This is important because the structures and contexts can directly or indirectly impact on the university HRD policies, thereby affecting how the lecturers perceive, feel and behave, leading to their (dis)engagement. Consequently, my study has applied both atomism and holism to investigate its objects and address the research questions.

By encouraging contextual examination, interpretivism supports the case study approach adopted in my study. A key characteristic of case study is to investigate the research objects within their natural context (i.e. the case setting) (Bassey, 2012). In this way, the study can discover the influence of the university and Vietnamese HE context on the organizational HRD policies and the potential

of the policies to satisfy lecturers' BPNW and enhance their job engagement. As such, the contextual analysis of the case is associated with the interpretivist paradigm.

**** Important issue related to the adopted paradigm***

Traditionally, interpretivism has rejected quantitative approaches and methods. For interpretivists, social phenomena are all about human experiences/being, since they focus on qualitative aspects of social phenomena (meanings/reasons), the subjectivity of constructed knowledge, thick description and detailed observation of reality, not quantification and objectivity (Morrison, 2012). More generally, it has been claimed that combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches/methods under a polar paradigm such as positivism or interpretivism is neither sensible nor possible (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989).

Regarding my study, the theoretical interest in the relationship between job engagement, BPNW, and HRD policies asks me to apply scales of job engagement and BPNW to the university lecturers to measure and provide an overall picture of these phenomena, requiring a quantitative approach and methods. Additionally, my study concerns how the university can make the relationship effective; it is hoped that will include practical suggestions for university policy-makers. Policy-makers often prefer mass-evidenced recommendations to those based on individual narratives/opinions (Pawson, 2002), e.g. the narratives/opinions of a small number of lecturers. This means that quantitative evidence is more likely to convince policy-makers than qualitative one. Furthermore, the contextual analysis as an essential characteristic of interpretivism emphasizes the spatial and temporal frame of social phenomena

(Berger and Luckmann, 1966) leading to knowledge, including recommendations, bounded within the given space and time (Greeff, 2015). This may make it hard to convince the policy-makers about a later/subsequent application of the recommendations. All of these seem to challenge my adoption of interpretivism.

Nonetheless, Ercikan and Roth (2006) argue that the polarization of quantitative and qualitative design associated with positivism and interpretivism, respectively, is confused and restricts the generation of complete and strong answers, and appropriate inferences for research questions in education. Specifically, the authors advocate the simultaneous existence of both quantitative and qualitative characteristics in all phenomena, including both natural and social worlds. For example, the phenomenon of job engagement includes different types of antecedents and consequences of engagement (i.e. qualitative aspects); and the various numerical levels of engagement (i.e. quantitative aspects). The example also indicates that there are qualitative features within quantitative characteristics and vice versa. Therefore, to understand social phenomena comprehensively, researchers need both quantitative and qualitative evidence of the reality, necessitating quantitative and qualitative approaches and methods to data collection and analysis. In other words, quantitative and qualitative are not different categories of research, but “on the same scale [of research] and ... only different by degree” (Ercikan and Roth, 2006, p. 20). Hence, the polarization emphasizing the totally elimination of one pole over the other within a research design can lead to incomplete understanding about the reality (Ercikan and Roth, 2006).

As a result, Ercikan and Roth (2006) propose a continuum instead of a polarization. Accordingly, the continuum illustrates the difference in qualitative and quantitative degrees of a research design from low-level to high-level inference, respectively. The research process with low-level inference is consistent with knowledge characterized by greater contingency, particularity, being affected by context, and concretization (i.e. high in qualitative degree). Meanwhile, the high-level inference process leads to knowledge characterized by greater standardization, universality, distance, and abstraction (i.e. high in quantitative degree). Research design can run at any point on the continuum as long as the design can lead to justifiable and defensible inference to answer its research questions (Ercikan and Roth, 2006). It is noted that the authors use the term 'inference' with the meaning of generalization to population.

The continuum implies that it is possible for researchers to switch between the dichotomous paradigms, between subjectivity and objectivity, and between low and high levels of generalization during research conduct (Ercikan and Roth, 2006). Indeed, for example, a positivist devising a questionnaire survey may need to make many subjective decisions/judgments such as which measurements should be selected to collect data; which statistical models are suitable for their analytical purpose. As such, they cannot be purely objective as required by positivism. Similarly, an interpretivist conducting interviews may need to face some quantitative issues during their research process such as whether they need frequency counting of the relationship between interviewees' demographical variables and a certain statement by the interviewees. In this case, the interpretivist researcher cannot commit to purely qualitative methods. Consequently, Ercikan and Roth's (2006) argument explains the basis of mixed

method approach within a research design, despite the fact that researchers can adopt a mainly dichotomous paradigm. Applying this to my study, my adoption of interpretivism did not mean a rejection of quantitative approaches and methods within the study. Thus, within an interpretivist paradigm, mixed method approaches have been adopted in my study to maximize the chances to investigate the research phenomenon both quantitatively and qualitatively.

In summary, it is not right or wrong to adopt a paradigm for a particular study because every paradigm has strengths and shortcomings (Morrison, 2012). The most important criterion is that the paradigm can support the approaches and methods to produce the best answers for the research questions (Morrison, 2012; Punch, 2014). All things considered, I have been convinced that adopting interpretivism as the main paradigm accompanied by mixed method approach is the most appropriate way to address the research questions and obtain the aims of my study.

3.2. Conceptual framework

To address the research questions, a conceptual framework has been developed to determine the relationship among the concepts of the study as follows:

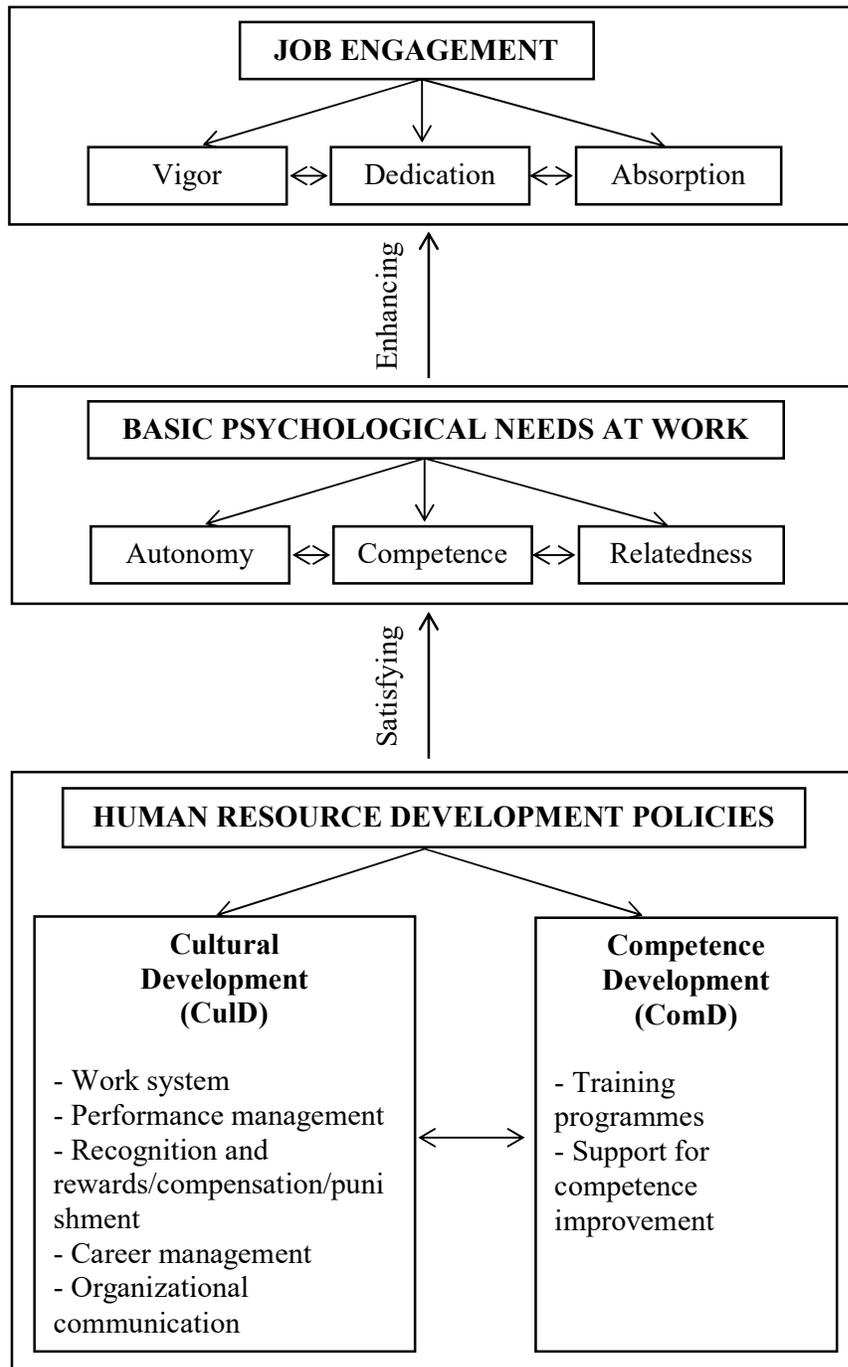


Figure 3.1. Conceptual Framework

This model proposes that the more HRD policies satisfy lecturers' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness; the more their vigor, dedication, and absorption (i.e. job engagement) in their job are enhanced. The definition and measurement of job engagement offered by Schaufeli *et al.* (2002); and the BPNW scale developed by Brien *et al.* (2012) have been used to design the first two components of the model.

The third component of the model draws upon the two key attributes of HRD identified in the definition of HRD adopted in chapter 2 (page 59). Specifically, HRD policies in the study consist of two sub-groups: (1) policies related to shaping individual and group values and beliefs (called *culture development policies* for short), and (2) policies related to skilling through learning-related activities (called *competence development policies* for short). All policies selected for the sub-groups have to meet the criterion of being supportive of the desired performance of the host system emphasized in the adopted definition (Wang *et al.*, 2017), that is, the lecturer's job in the examined university.

(1) The sub-group of culture development policies (CuID):

The adopted HRD definition has drawn upon the definition of (organizational) culture developed by Schein *et al.* since 1961 (Wang *et al.*, 2017). According to Schein (2004, p. 17), culture is “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration...”. The basic assumptions are embedded in organizational artifacts, values and beliefs, and taken-for-granted assumptions – the deepest level of culture. Shaping new values and beliefs leads to the change in

assumptions. Therefore, the short name of the sub-group is Culture development (CulD).

Shaping/reshaping values and beliefs is a complicated process involving organizational structures, procedures, and resources. The study uses the primary mechanisms of how organizations/leaders embed and transit their beliefs/values/assumptions to the organizational members, as defined by Schein (2004) in order to determine the categories of organizational HRD interventions/policies.

According to Schein (2004, p. 246), the primary embedding mechanisms includes:

- (a) What leaders pay attention to, measure, and control on a regular basis;
- (b) How leaders react to critical incidents and organizational crises;
- (c) How leaders allocate resources;
- (d) Deliberate role modeling, teaching, and coaching;
- (e) How leaders allocate rewards and status;
- (f) How leaders recruit, select, promote, and excommunicate.

Schein (2004) notes that these six mechanisms simultaneously operate so they create a complex network rather than an order.

As can be seen from figure 3.1, there are five different HRD culture development policy systems, shaping/reshaping employees' values/beliefs:

- (1) the work system (e.g. work attention/focus in regular and critical conditions, resource allocation, recruitment);

(2) the performance management system (e.g. evaluating attention/focus, measurement, and control);

(3) the recognition and reward system (e.g. rewards, punishment);

(4) career management system (e.g. job promotion, status allocation);

(5) the organizational communication system (e.g. information/value transmission, value formation through teaching, coaching).

Designing and implementing structures/procedures (including policies) based on the typology above are key parts of the second embedding mechanisms which is to articulate and reinforce the values/beliefs throughout the organization (Schein, 2004).

It can be seen that the policies embed in the systems above strongly impact on the value/belief shaping process. For instance, a policy related to the lecturer's job (i.e. the work system) is that lecturers have to publish at least one paper in an international academic journal every three years. This policy can transmit a message that the university has higher respect for international publications as compared to domestic one. They want to put pressure on lecturers to improve their foreign language ability and research competence. The policy is reinforced by another policy of rewarding lecturers who can meet the criterion with money or other benefits, e.g. professional promotion, and punishing those who do not meet it (i.e. the recognition and reward system). After some lecturers have been rewarded and others have been punished, a value/belief can be formed among lecturers that international publication is not only compulsory, but also important, value-added, beneficial and more desired than domestic publication. These regulations force lecturers' behaviour to try to meet the criterion.

As a result, the HRD policies in the conceptual framework have been categorized using the five-fold typology set out above and this has also been adopted in the questionnaire and interview schedule.

(2) The sub-group of competence development policies (ComD)

The second sub-group focuses on policies for skilling individuals through learning-related activities (Wang *et al.*, 2017), such as training initiatives and supportive programmes for individuals' competence improvement.

The two sub-groups relate to each other. Specifically, the values and beliefs defined in the mechanism of shaping values/beliefs can be embedded in the content of learning-related activities (e.g. training about organizational values/rules). By this way, the values/beliefs are the expected outcomes of the skilling activities. The shaped values and beliefs, in turn, affect the ways that the skilling activities in the next round are designed and the ways that individuals perceive, are motivated by and implement their learning. The relationship indicates that the policies of one sub-group are not fully independent to those in the other sub-group but supportive of each other.

3.3. Approaches

3.3.1. Mixed method approach

As mentioned earlier, the research aim, research focus, and research questions direct this study toward a mixed method approach. To achieve both quantitative and qualitative objectives, a questionnaire survey and in-depth face-to-face semi-structured interviews were selected. This is because a questionnaire helps me overcome the difficulties in my personal and the lecturers' resources, e.g. limited time for collecting data. Furthermore, a questionnaire is an

appropriate way to obtain a large number of responses in terms of people's opinions, attitude and beliefs (Muijs, 2012) – the lecturers' perspectives and feelings about their job engagement, their BPNW, and the impact of relevant HRD policies in the study. This provides the required data to illustrate how the relationship between the three concepts operates. Also, large-scale evidence contributes to enhancing the persuasiveness of the recommendations (Pawson, 2002).

That said, face-to-face interviews provide in-depth and rich responses about the 'why' and the 'how' of the topic, which cannot be achieved effectively with only the questionnaire (Barnham, 2015). In the study, that means, why and how HRD policies can impact on lecturers' BPNW, thereby affecting their job engagement. Therefore, the narratives/examples given by the interviewees can be used as detailed, rich and interesting evidence (i.e. the qualitative aspect) for the big picture of the topic and recommendations (i.e. the quantitative aspect).

As a result, quantitative and qualitative data are complementary to each other as two essential dimensions of a phenomenon (Ercikan and Roth, 2006). What lecturers cannot express on the questionnaire, they can tell me in the interview. Thus, a mixed method approach helps me obtain comprehensive and in-depth understanding about the topic. Additionally, the mixed-method design is valuable to enhance the trustworthiness of the research findings. This is because every method has inherent shortcomings and biases. Thus, using two or more methods that have offsetting biases in a study helps triangulate the results when the results converge or corroborate one another (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). In the current study, a questionnaire and in-depth interviews can be seen as offsetting each method's bias, given that the methods are applied to investigate

the same research foci, collect data from the same setting, and address the same research questions. Therefore, the interview data can be complementary to validate and/or explain the questionnaire findings (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014) and vice versa (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989).

3.3.2. Case study approach

The study uses a case study approach to investigate the topic. Specifically, the study has examined the topic within the current space and time boundary and a particular context (Lichtman, 2011), that is, a university in Vietnam; as well as focused on significant characteristics of the case to generate plausible interpretations and worthwhile and convincing arguments/stories (Bassey, 2012).

With regard to the significance of the case, as described in chapter 1, the university under examination has played an important role in the innovation of Vietnamese HE. It has been a pioneer in promoting high-quality education, training and research for Vietnam's economic and social development; and developing new educational solutions which can be transferred into other institutions in the country (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014a). Furthermore, the large number of lecturers in the university who come from different disciplines/departments can provide a wide range of perspectives on HRD policies and policy implementation. This may lead to interesting comparison between HRD policies for different disciplines and for the whole university. Many of the lecturers have also simultaneously worked as visiting academics at other institutions in Vietnam. This helps them possess diverse experiences to provide precious information for the study, which can enhance the transferability of the study's findings in the eyes of readers. As such, the findings

from the case promise to be worthwhile and interesting, amounting to what Bassey (2012) describes as a ‘significant’ case study.

From my personal side, as a lecturer at the university, I want to make significant contribution not only to theory but also to practice, and to support the development of the university and its lecturers. Specifically, the study hopes to develop a theoretical model, along with practical recommendations of how the university HRD policies satisfy lecturers’ BPNW, thereby, enhancing their job engagement. This means that the study aims to fulfil two key purposes of a case study, as described by Bassey (2012), namely theory seeking and theory testing through providing an example. Moreover, the approach helps me tailor the questionnaire and interview questions so that they are the most suitable for the university, serving both end-points of a) drawing the university’s own picture of the topic and b) theory seeking through the case (Bassey, 2012).

Although a case study approach does not allow researchers to generalize to a broader context, the approach may result in in-depth analysis and recommendations (Pearson, Albon and Hubball, 2015), which well supports the interpretivist paradigm and the focus of the study. In other words, the study will not generalize its findings to other universities in Vietnam as the population, but will generalize to the theoretical proposition of the social relation (Silverman, 2013). In this case, that is the mechanism of HRD policies’ impact on lecturers’ job engagement through their BPNW. This is because the choice of cases in qualitative research should be always guided by a particular theory that researchers want to test, rather than deriving from statistical grounds, leading to the possibility of generalization to theoretical proposition (Silverman, 2013).

3.4. Methods

3.4.1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire in the study aimed to measure the levels of lecturers' job engagement, their BPNW; their overall self-evaluation of the impact of HRD policies on their job engagement and their BPNW; as well as their recommendations regarding what HRD policies should be adopted in the university. It can be found in Appendix 1.

3.4.1.1. Instrument design

**** Questionnaire content***

Based on the conceptual framework in figure 3.1, the questionnaire starts with three sections as follows:

A. Section A is the UWES in its entirety with 17 items to measure the three characteristics of job engagement (i.e. vigor, dedication and absorption) of the lecturers of the university. For example, vigor is measured through items like “At my job, I am very resilient mentally”; dedication is measured through items like “I am enthusiastic about my job”; and absorption is measured through items like “I am immersed in my work”. The seventeen items are treated as manifest or observable variables, and the three characteristics as latent variables. Respondents assess every item on a 7-point Likert scale from 0 (never) to 6 (every day) as specified in the original UWES. Section A aims to provide data for an overall picture of how much lecturers in the university are engaged in their job.

B. Section B is the BPNWS in its entirety with 12 items to measure three needs (i.e. autonomy, competence and relatedness) of the lecturers of the university. For example, autonomy is measured through items like “My work allows me to make decisions”; competence is measured through the items like “I feel competent at work”; and relatedness is measured through items like “When I am with the people from my work environment, I feel understood”. The twelve items are treated as manifest or observable variables, and the three needs as latent variables. Respondents assess every item on a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) as specified in the original BPNWS. BPNW is treated as a mediating factor in the model of the relationship between job engagement and HRD policies. Section B aims to provide data on how much lecturers’ BPNW have been satisfied at the university.

More broadly, the first two sections can contribute to the literature by fitting the UWES and BPNW measurements to a sample of Vietnamese lecturers.

C. Unlike the constructs of job engagement and BPNW, ‘HRD policy’ is a distinctive element of the study. In the study, it does not mean a social phenomenon, but a tool to make social phenomena happen, i.e. “administration regulations” ... used to improve individual and organizational performance (Hawley, 2014, p. 459) or a course of action (Olssen, Codd and O’Neill, 2004) regarding problem solutions and value promotion (Ward *et al.*, 2016). Thus, the focus of the study is not to measure the characteristics of this tool. Instead, the study concerns the impact of the tool on social phenomena, these being lecturers’ job engagement and BPNW.

As a result, section C is not designed to evaluate the general effectiveness of each specific HRD policy (e.g. offering training courses), or general term

‘HRD policy’ (e.g. purposes, characteristics, and procedure), but the impact of the HRD policies on lecturers’ job engagement. Lecturers assess the impact on a 5-point scale (strongly reducing job engagement / slightly reducing job engagement / no impact / strongly increase job engagement /slightly increase job engagement).

Based on the conceptual framework, I initially designed a list of open-ended questions to ask lecturers about what policies made them engaged in their job. The list covered seven categories of HRD activities and an open box so respondents could add other policies. The seven categories were (1) enhancing lecturers’ competence, (2) providing conditions for lecturers’ training transfer, (3) designing more challenging jobs, (4) giving lecturers’ autonomy at work, (5) developing a culture with fair recognition, (6) developing comprehensive support systems, (7) building a culture of respecting employees’ values. With these categories, I expected that lecturers would provide many specific policies with detailed suggestions for how to develop them further. However, the result of a pilot with four lecturers of the university demonstrated that posing too many open-ended questions led to a considerable number of missing answers, inadequate responses (e.g. simply listing general policies while the questions expected details of the policies recommended), and a great challenge to code the data because of too much variation in the content (Reja *et al.*, 2003). This experience reinforced the importance of standardized questions in the questionnaire for the study, which has been widely endorsed by the literature on questionnaire design (Scott, 2012).

Consequently, I reviewed the current HRD policy documents of the university and its affiliated universities and schools. After that, I designed a

standardized list of the most typical HRD policies which aligned with the sub-groups of HRD in the conceptual framework (Figure 3.1). Finally, another pilot with two lecturers of the university was conducted to get their feedback on the updated list. All of the piloted lecturers were excluded from the official participants in the study.

Accordingly, in the final version of the questionnaire, the policies related to culture development are categorized into five groups as following:

- policies related to the work of the lecturer, e.g. “Reducing teaching for training attendance without loss of proper compensation. (e.g. reducing required teaching hours; teaching leave for training attendance, etc.)”; “Providing teaching assistants to reduce lecturer’s overwork”. These policies are expected to help lecturers do their job better and share values of organizational support and focus within lecturers’ work.

- policies related to performance management, e.g. “Performance appraisal based on performance outcomes”. These policies are expected to give lecturers fair evaluation and necessary feedback on their work in order to improve organizational effectiveness and efficacy. Thus, it is impossible to cite the most popular policies of lecturer performance management in this section. Therefore, a general item was used, focusing on the most generalized characteristic of the relevant policies, i.e. “Issuing regulations to ensure the performance appraisal system accurately classifies the levels and quality of lecturers’ performance”, is given to lecturers. As a result, it is necessary to accept that the purpose of this item is to obtain lecturers’ evaluation/suggestions of the university’s performance management system rather than of one specific policy.

- policies related to recognition and reward, e.g. “Recognition and reward based on seniority”. These policies are expected to motivate lecturers to work and regularly improve their work, and share values of fairness and justice.

- policies related to career management, e.g. “Providing guidance on how to develop a career plan for lecturers”. These policies are expected to help lecturers plan and control their career paths which should align with organizational career management, and motivate them to implement the aligned career plans. Thus, the policies aim to share values of organizational support, fairness and effectiveness.

- policies related to organizational communication, e.g. “Developing platforms to receive lecturers’ opinions regarding organizational work and give lecturers detailed feedback on their opinions”, “Publishing lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies”. These policies are expected to help lecturers to connect well with the organization during their work and share values of organizational support, effectiveness, fairness and transparency.

The second sub-group of HRD policies, i.e. competence development, included policies on training programmes, e.g. “Offering training programmes in teaching methods and/or research methods and skills”; and on supporting activities to improve lecturers’ competences, e.g. “Funding (wholly or partially) for other programmes to enhance lecturer’s competence (e.g. postgraduate study and/or activities related to lecturer’s competence enhancement, e.g. academic conferences)”. These policies are expected to help lecturers improve their competence in their key tasks of teaching and research, and share values of organizational support, and effectiveness and efficacy.

Based on the content and expected impact of the HRD policies, all of the policies are predicted to satisfy lecturers' BPNW, thus, enhancing the lecturers' job engagement.

It is impossible to include an exhaustive list of the university HRD policies because there are so many university-wide policies and additional ones from all of its affiliated units. Furthermore, a long questionnaire may negatively affect the respondents (e.g. feeling bored and time consuming), leading to a low response rate (Muijs, 2012). As a result, the last question of section C is an open-ended question to give lecturers the opportunity to write down any policies that they think are relevant to the topic but are not included in the list.

To assess every policy in section C, lecturers are given three choices, namely 'Being in place', 'Not being in place', and 'Do not know'. If the respondent identifies a policy as 'Being in place', a pop-up box appears for them to assess its influence on their job engagement through a 5 point scale from 1- 'Strongly reduces my engagement', 3- 'No impact', to 5- 'Strongly increases my engagement'. This scale is designed to obtain lecturers' self-evaluation of the relationship between the HRD policies and their job engagement.

If the respondent identifies a policy as 'Not being in place', then a different pop-up box appears with 4 point scale, including 1- Should be adopted as the highest priority, 2- Should be adopted soon, 3- Should be adopted when possible, and 4- Should not be adopted.

If lecturers are not sure whether a policy is in place, they can choose the column 'Do not know' for the policy.

D. Section D provides four statements for lecturers to assess the overall impact of the HRD policies on their feeling of autonomy, competence, trustworthy and supportive work environment, i.e. ‘Overall, the current HRD policies make me feel autonomous at work’; ‘Overall, the current HRD policies create conditions for me to complete my job well’; ‘Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment trustworthy’; and ‘Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment trustworthy’.

The two items on a trustworthy work environment and a supportive work environment are designed to link to the need for relatedness in BPNWS but to replace the four original items of relatedness, namely trustworthiness, being understood, being heard and being a friend with co-workers (section B). This is because it may be difficult for the respondents to see how HRD policies can directly satisfy the feelings described in the four original items of relatedness. An example item would need to be ‘HRD policies can make me feel that I am understood by my coworkers’. This might be challenging to answer.

It seems that HRD policies are likely to create a work environment encouraging those feelings of relatedness rather than directly satisfying these feelings. As can be seen from the literature review of BPNW’s antecedents, supportive environment, e.g. two-way communication, transformational leadership, and high care of employee development, works well for the purpose of the relatedness satisfaction (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Thus, although the two items that have been chosen instead do not ask explicitly about the feelings described in the four original items of relatedness, they have been worded to imply these feelings.

However, the trustworthy and supportive environment may be antecedents of all of the three needs of BPNWS, not only relatedness (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Thus, this means a multicollinearity problem among the four statements of section D (Muijs, 2011). Therefore, a multiple linear regression model that includes all of the items of section D as predictors for one continuous variable such as job engagement cannot be run. As a result, using correlation coefficients to examine the relationship between each item in section D and job engagement can be a better alternative. The link between HRD policies and initial feelings of relatedness and job engagement would be examined in more detail in the in-depth interviews.

Lecturers give their evaluation through a Likert 6 point scale (1-Strongly disagree to 6-Strongly agree). Based on section D, the relationship between the satisfaction of lecturers' needs at work by HRD policies and levels of lecturers' job engagement (section A) can be examined through correlation coefficients.

E. Finally, section E is designed to collect demographic information and determine the interview volunteers. This section enables the study to compare job engagement, needs' satisfaction and the influence of HRD policies on needs and job engagement between different lecturer groups, subdivided according to age; gender; job level (Lecturer assistant, Lecturer, Senior lecturer and Superior lecturer); academic qualification (Bachelor, Master, Professional doctorate and PhD); job title (Professor, Associate professor, and Not applicable); lecturer' working units; teaching disciplines; management or non-management position; and number of years working at the university. It is very important to find out which groups of lecturers have higher or lower levels of job engagement and

BPNW fulfillment because realistic recommendations need to take account of these differences.

The last two questions of section E ask if lecturers agree to participate in face-to-face interviews and, if so, to provide contact details. Based on the volunteer list, the sample for interview was formed.

** Sampling*

Despite the large size of the university, I decided to distribute the questionnaire to all lecturers who have been working full-time for six affiliated universities and two affiliated schools of the university (more than 1500 lecturers).

Within the university, the job of lecturer at the eight units has similar characteristics and is subject to the same university policies. Although each of the eight units can add their own policies to the job, the added policies need to be aligned with the university policies (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014b). Thus, the added ones do not break the boundary of the lecturer job among the units.

By not limiting the sample, it was hoped to receive as many responses as possible.

** Questionnaire delivery*

Qualtrics online questionnaire tools were used to design the questionnaire. Online questionnaire delivery via emails was selected since it is a convenient way to contact the respondents with respect to responding time and other resources, e.g. money and venue (Muijs, 2012). In fact, it is not feasible to physically approach the large number of lecturers who have different timetables to be

available at their offices for completing the questionnaire, especially as I have been studying abroad and have limited time to collect data in Vietnam. Thus, sending an online questionnaire to their personal emails is the most effective way for both me and them.

For the lecturers, they can respond to the questionnaire at any time they are available. In my experience, they are familiar with working in an online environment and using online research tools so an online questionnaire is not challenging for them. Moreover, they were able to email me and my supervisor if they were concerned about anything related to the questionnaire and the study.

Because the questionnaire sought volunteers for interview, the responses needed to be returned before the interviews started. With an online questionnaire, the results are available very quickly (Muijs, 2012) and can be converted automatically in an SPSS worksheet (Bell and Woolner, 2012) facilitating the use of SPSS and AMOS software for quantitative data analysis. This helps me not only save time, but also quickly determine the levels of job engagement of the interview volunteers by computing the average of all UWES items of each response (as recommended by Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). The averages, then, are categorized into three groups, namely high engagement (4 to 6), medium engagement (3 to 3.99), low engagement (below 3) (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Originally, I intended to invite representatives of each group to participate in in-depth interviews to find out reasons for the difference in their job engagement levels, suitable policies for each group and the way to develop the policies. This did not happen for reasons explained below.

Although online questionnaires may be easily ignored by email receivers, this can also be the case with paper-and-pencil questionnaires (Muijs, 2012). It

has been shown that the response rate can be improved up to 41% and 57% if respondents are contacted twice and three times, respectively (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). However, in my case, even though I reminded lecturers up to three times, the response rate was just 26%.

To be delivered to Vietnamese lecturers, the questionnaire was designed in English and then translated into Vietnamese. This may lead to respondents' being confused because sometimes it is not always easy to find an adequate translation (Brislin, 1970). In the pilots, although I tried to make the meaning of questions clear by adding some glosses, the piloted respondents still commented that they had not been sure they understood correctly some statements in the questionnaire. Thus, to ensure the quality of translation, I applied translation-back-retranslation procedure that "allows for multiple checks on functional and cultural validity" (Pena, 2007; cited in Klassen *et al.*, 2012, p. 322). In fact, I asked two people to check and edit the translation. One of them is an English native speaker who can speak Vietnamese and understands Vietnamese culture very well. He has published papers in Vietnamese. He studied Vietnamese in South East Asia Section, School of Languages, Culture & Linguistics, University of London for his bachelor programme and then in the University Social Sciences and Humanities, Ha Noi, Viet Nam. He completed fieldwork for his study in Viet Nam in 2017. The other person is a Vietnamese native speaker who can use English at the level of 'very good user' (8.5 out of 9 score of the International English Language Testing System). She completed her PhD in English in Australia in 2016 and published her book in English with Routledge in 2017. As a result, I feel confident of the final version of the translated questionnaire.

3.4.1.2. Data collection

I successfully sent the translated questionnaire to 1570 out of 1593 lecturers' emails. 23 emails were bounced. This was a technical issue beyond my control so I had to accept the delivery failure of 23.

The response collection was set for one month (from 1st June 2017 to 30th June 2017). Because this would be followed by the face-to-face interviews over the next two months (from 5th July 2017 to 4th September 2017), the first stage needed to be completed as planned. During the month of questionnaire delivery, I sent three more emails (every week since 1st June 2017) to remind the lecturers who had not responded to the questionnaire. I understand that the reminders may irritate the lecturers. However, re-contacting the targeted respondents up to three times is the only way to improve the response rate (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). I did apologize for the inconvenience for them in the emails.

3.4.1.3. Data analysis

Data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed in Vietnamese by SPSS version 24 for descriptive, correlation, and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and by AMOS software version 24 for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The process mainly followed the instructions by Muijs (2011).

The important reason for using SEM is that both job engagement and the BPNW are latent variables which cannot be measured directly (Muijs, 2011), but through 17 and 12 observable/manifest variables, respectively. SEM through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) can confirm if the manifest variables exactly make up the latent ones, and analyze the relationship between latent variables (Muijs, 2011). It is noted that UWES and BPNW measurements have been firstly

applied to the sample of Vietnamese lecturers to date, thus, they need to be confirmed with the sample by EFA and CFA before testing the relationship between the scales.

The procedure of data analysis is described in the following steps:

1. Preparing the data set:

* Deleting unused and unusable data:

To prepare the data set available for analyzing in SPSS and AMOS, I checked the variables, e.g. variable names, explanation of variables, types of variables, values of variables. I deleted the columns with unused information, e.g. date of opening and submitting responses, respondents' computer IP.

I also deleted 171 cases out of 627 returned questionnaires without data as the respondents opened the questionnaire but did not answer it. I deleted other 50 cases of missing all or half of the answers for section C, or selecting simultaneously two columns of 'In place' and 'Not in place' for policies in section C. This is because section C provides the essential information for the research questions. Thus if the answers are missing too much or in the wrong way, then related data cannot be processed. Finally, there are 406 usable responses for analysis.

For the usable cases, missing values were coded as 999 (Muijs, 2011).

* Recoding variables:

The table below shows the nominal variables that have been recoded in order to facilitate the regression in SPSS (Muijs, 2011).

Variable	Original values	Recoded values	Reasons for recoding
Job levels	1. Lecturer assistant 2. Lecturer 3. Senior lecture 4. Superior lecturer	1. Lecturer/ Lecturer assistant 2. Senior lecture 3. Superior lecturer	There has been only one case of 'lecturer assistant'.
Qualification	1. Bachelor 2. Master 3. Professional doctorate 4. PhD	1. Below doctorate 2. Doctorate	The requirement of a doctoral qualification is compulsory for all of the university lecturers. Therefore, lecturers holding a lower qualification than doctorate need further study to meet the requirement while the other groups do not. This leads to the difference in career plan, career management and the university's HRD policies between lecturers from the two groups.
Job title	1. Professor 2. Associate Professor 3. Not applicable	1. Professor/ Associate Professor 2. Not applicable	The title 'Professor' or 'Associate Professor' are in the same job level leading to being subjected to most similar HRD policies.
Teaching Fields	(open for writing)	1. Social sciences, Humanities, Business/Economics 2. Natural sciences, Technology, Medical studies	The HRD policies, e.g. training programmes and financial support for lecturers' training, are different from one to the other groups. For example, lecturers in group 2 need to be trained in laboratories, leading to different budget of training compared to that for group 1.
Working years	(open for writing)	1. 7 years and below 2. Over 7 years	The range of the working year was too large, from below 1 year to 45 years. This information is recoded into two group because lecturers who have been working from the 8 th year are permanently contracted; the other lecturers need to upgrade from the one-year contract to the first three-year contract to the second three-year contract if they achieve good annual performance evaluation during the contracted time. Therefore, it is predicted that there may be difference in job engagement, BPNW between the two groups of working years.

Table 3.1. Recoded variables

Section C was originally designed with a 5-point scale measuring the impact of HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement (i.e. strongly increases, slightly increases, no impact, slightly reduces, and strongly reduces lecturers' job engagement). I thought the more detailed the levels, the more relevant and useful the elicited information would be. However, after a lecturer completed her response, she told me that the five levels of impact of the 'being in place' HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement were too detailed. She found this challenging to complete. This may have challenged other respondents, which possibly leads to their confused answers for this section. Thus, when analyzing the data, I reduced the 5-point scale into a 3-point scale. Specifically, strongly and slightly reduces job engagement were combined into 'Reduces job engagement'; strongly and slightly increases job engagement were combined into 'Increases job engagement'; 'No impact' was unchanged.

2. Descriptive Statistics:

Frequency distribution for the average of job engagement score, demographical variables was run in SPSS to find out what percentage of respondents were in different groups of job engagement levels, age, genders, job levels, qualification, job titles, working units, teaching fields, (non)management position, and working years.

3. Lecturers' job engagement (section A in the questionnaire)

3.1. CFA for UWES

As mentioned earlier, before testing the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and the HRD policies through satisfaction of lecturers' BPNW, the

two scales need to be tested to see if they are confirmed within the sample (Brien *et al.*, 2012; Klassen *et al.*, 2012).

For the UWES, firstly an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was run in SPSS to determine how many factors could be formed by the 17 manifest variables (Muijs, 2011). The result of EFA indicates that a two-factor model was explored in the sample, not a three-factor model as expected. This meant that CFA in AMOS could not run for UWES as designed.

As mentioned in chapter 2, this is not the first time that UWES three dimensions were not found, e.g. Sonnentag (2003) (cited in Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010), Wefald and Downey (2009), and Klassen *et al.* (2012). Because the dimensions closely relate to each other, although the scale have good internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha > .7, (Muijs, 2011)), the UWES authors recommend that, if the three-factor model is not confirmed, researchers can use the total score of all UWES items instead (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Applying the recommendation, from hereon, job engagement has been measured by UWES total score. Thus, a new variable (JESum) has been recoded by summing up all values of the scale items to use for later statistics in SPSS.

3.2. Relationship between the lecturers' job engagement and the demographical variables

ANOVA was run in SPSS to compare lecturers' job engagement among four groups of ages, three groups of job levels, and eight groups of affiliated units in the university (Muij 2011, p.177). T-tests were run in SPSS to compare lecturers' job engagement between two groups of genders, qualifications, job

titles, teaching fields, management positions, and working years (Muijs, 2011). The sum of UWES was used for these tests and treated as a continuous variable.

4. Lecturers' BPNW (section B in the questionnaire)

CFA for BPNWS

An EFA in SPSS was run firstly for BPNW. The result shows that a three-factor model for BPNW has been explored in the sample. After that, a CFA in AMOS was run to confirm if the construct of the three needs was made up by the twelve observable variables as in the expected structure. The result of CFA does confirm the structure of the three needs. However, because the three-factor model of UWES has not been confirmed, the relationship between the two scales could not be tested with the sample by SEM. This is a shame but still a valuable result of the study.

5. Lecturers' self-evaluation and recommendation of the HRD policies (section C in the questionnaire)

Frequency distribution was run in SPSS to find out what percentage of lecturers do not know about the HRD policies listed. This can tell us interesting information about the university communication and implementation of the policies.

Frequency distribution was also run in SPSS to examine the difference in lecturers' self evaluation of the impact of 'Being in place' HRD policies on their job engagement. The descriptive statistic can tell us what percentage of lecturers agreed or disagreed which policies increased or reduced or did not impact on their job engagement.

Frequency distribution was run to examine the difference in lecturers' recommendation of which of the 'Not being in place' policies should be adopted as the highest priority, or soon, or when possible, or should not be adopted. The frequencies also show what percentage of lecturers do not know about the existing policies.

Additional policies for the open-ended question of section C were suggested and evaluated by lecturers in the same way as the listed policies. I selected the additional policies that were understandable to examine their types (i.e. 'Being in place', 'Not being in place', and 'Do not know'), and their impact on lecturers' job engagement or suggested priority in adoption. I grouped the additional policies against the sub-systems of HRD policies as shown in Figure 3.1, then, chose which ones were considerable and interesting from the groups in order to prepare questions for the face-to-face interview. This was to get in-depth information about the influence of the policies on lecturers' job engagement and BPNW.

6. Lecturers' self-evaluation of the influence of HRD policies on their BPNW (section D in the questionnaire)

Frequency distribution was run in SPSS to find out how lecturers assess the impact of HRD policies on lecturers' feelings of autonomy, competence, and trustworthy and supportive environment. This provides information on what percentage of lecturers agreed or disagree that the policies positively affect their needs at work.

Cross-tabulation in SPSS was used to analyze the relationship between lecturers' need satisfaction by HRD policies and lecturers' demographical

groups. This test was selected because the dependent variables, i.e. lecturers' evaluations of HRD policies' influence on their BPNW, are ordinal; and the independent variables, i.e. the demographical groups, are nominal (Muijs, 2011, p. 136).

7. Relationship between lecturers' need satisfaction by HRD policies and their job engagement (section D and section A in the questionnaire)

Spearman rho was used to analyze the relationship between lecturers' overall evaluation of how HRD policies satisfy their feelings of autonomy, competence and trustworthy and supportive work environment and lecturers' UWES sum. This is because lecturers' JESum is continuous, and the overall evaluation is ordinal (Muijs, 2011, p. 136).

3.4.2. Face-to-face interview

3.4.2.1. Interview schedule design

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were chosen because they allow researchers to cover all the topics required by the research focus, generate rich data and allow participants to present their own ideas (Barnham, 2015; Magnusson and Marecek, 2015). The interviews were planned to last for from 45 minutes to one hour. A copy of the interview schedule can be found in Appendix 2.

Six drafts of the interview schedule were created and edited with two pilots involving a total of three lecturers of the university. Piloting aims to find out and minimize problems with the drafts to redesign (Muijs, 2012). For instance, some concepts that are not intuitively understandable, e.g. HRD, autonomy, may need to be explained to some interviewees. Additionally, too many Yes/No questions

in the drafts did not offer the interviewees chances to provide additional information (Jacob and Furgerson, 2012), e.g. ‘Do you feel that you have engaged in your job?’. These needed to be reworded to get richer information. The three lecturers involved in the pilots were excluded from the final list of the interviewees.

The first section of the interview schedule is the interviewee’s information, namely titles and name, level of job engagement/feeling satisfaction by HRD policies, their own suggestion of additional HRD policies. This aims to prepare tailored questions for individual interviewees if required, check and focus on the interviewee’s special suggestions/opinions from the questionnaire, remind researchers about important information of the interviewees and interview guidance, and support the data analysis and save (Jacob and Furgerson, 2012).

The main section of the interview schedule is the prepared questions. Jacob and Furgerson (2012) suggest that an interview should start from basic or the least difficult questions in order to slowly build confidence and trust with the interviewee and avoid their withdrawing from the interview too soon. Thus, to facilitate lecturers’ thinking process, the interview questions in the study move from lecturers’ general feeling of their job to their specific and more complicated feeling of engagement and then disengagement. Specifically, the questions were ordered to guide the interviewees to position their feeling of engagement or disengagement firstly, then, determine the factors of HRD policies and the psychological mechanism that factors affect their feelings (i.e. the reasons for the feelings from BPNW approach). Thereby, the questions can get the information on the link between the research objects.

As guided by Jacob and Furgerson (2012), interview questions should be grounded in the literature, but differ from what has been asked in previous studies in order to create meaningful data for the unique research questions under examination. Thus, questions in the current interview schedule were strictly guided by the determined research questions and focus. The flow of the questions for the impact of HRD policies on both lecturers' job engagement and disengagement has similar logic (presented in detail below).

During the interviews, the interviewees were asked to provide detailed answers using real examples and experiences. This is because the focus of interviews is the in-depth and rich evidences from specific participants (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015).

It was predicted that although the policies influence the interviewees' work, they may not remember or know all the HRD policies of the university. Thus, it is difficult for them to talk in-depth about the influence of the policies on their job engagement and need satisfaction. This is understandable because lecturers may focus only on the very narrow criteria of their job, e.g. How many standard hours do they need to teach and research as required by the university? And what kind of products does the university ask them to provide? If this is the case, the data provided by the interviewees may not be as rich as expected. To avoid this case, a set of cards of the printed names of the HRD policies were prepared, which is known as card sorting technique. This is a tool for designing the information navigation for metadata and taxonomy development (Ding, Lin and Zarro, 2017). It aims to match "a user's mental model of an information space with the structure created by information architectures" (Ding, Lin and Zarro, 2017, p. 33). More generally, the authors explain that card sorting explores

how users naturally group terms into categories. Thus, it is helpful to gather qualitative data about the organization of an information space (Ding, Lin and Zarro, 2017). Therefore, it was applied in the study to remind lecturers about what HRD policies the university has been implemented.

The HRD policies named on the cards were selected from the list and lecturers' additional suggestion in section C of the questionnaire. The policies were organized into seven categories in order to be easily managed during and after every interview, including:

- Category A: Training and support to competence development;
- Category B: Work system;
- Category C: Career development;
- Category D: Organizational Communication;
- Category E: Performance appraisal;
- Category F: Recognition and rewards/Compensation, and punishment;
- Category G: Management improvement.

The cards were used when the interviewees needed a recall of the policies, and before the end of the interview when the interviewer felt the data was not sufficiently rich. Examples of the cards are below (full list of all cards in Appendix 3):

A-1 Offering training programmes in teaching methods and/or research methods and skills	C-10 Connecting research/researchers with business corporations and organizations using scientific services/outcomes
E-14 Fair and independent lecturer competence appraisal from students and others	G-20 Confidentially collecting feedback on management in universities

As defined by Ding, Lin and Zarro (2017), close card sort occurs when the categories of the policies and the groups of policy navigation (i.e. familiar and unfamiliar, described below) are predetermined:

- The interviewees were asked to sort the cards into policies that are familiar and unfamiliar to them (creating two groups on the left side and right side of a desk).

- For both Familiar and Unfamiliar groups, the interviewer removed the cards with policies that the interviewee had already spoken about or did not want to talk about.

- For familiar policies, the interview then followed the predetermined questions in the schedule as follows:

- + What HRD policies made you (dis)engaged in your job?

- + What factors of the policies made you (dis)engaged in your job? (i.e. affect/hinder your feeling of autonomy; affect/hinder your feeling of being able to do and succeed in the job; affect/make difficulties for your interaction with your coworkers to get understood and heard by them, to trust and be their friend).

- For unfamiliar policies, the following questions were asked:

- + What policies of Unfamiliar group should be applied to enhance lecturers' job engagement?

- + What make you think they should be applied?

+ What challenges might the university have if adopting the policies?

+ How do you think the university can overcome the challenges?

Before ending the interviews, it is necessary to ask if the interviewees want to add anything (Schwandt, 1997; cited in Jacob and Furgerson, 2012). This shows my respect to them and is an opportunity to get any information that may have been missed during the interviews.

** Sampling*

The interviewees were the lecturers who volunteered via the questionnaire. I wanted to interview as many as possible. In order to interview those who are considered the most expert informants within the researcher's limited resources, purposive sampling with absolute criteria can be applied to choose interviewees (Coleman, 2012; Daniel and Harland, 2018). Thus, if the number of volunteers was beyond my ability to interview all of them, I intended to select the final list based on the following criteria:

1. Being representatives of the three levels of job engagement, namely high engagement (the average of job engagement total score from 4.67 to 6), medium engagement (from 3.07 to below 4.66), low engagement (below 3.07). The division in such groups is calculated by the UWES authors from their international data (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, p. 40).
2. Coming from all of the six affiliated universities and two schools;
3. Being in both management and non-management positions;

4. Being at different job levels, namely lecturers, senior lecturers, and superior lecturers;
5. Including both genders.

Based on the criteria, it is hoped that the selected interviewees can provide diverse data from different demographical groups of the lecturers in the university. The purpose of this is to recommend as appropriate ways of how HRD policies affect BPNW and job engagement of the lecturer groups as possible.

3.4.2.2. Data collection

There were 84 volunteers for interview. Because of my limited time, I conducted 43 interviews. There were only three lecturers who had a low average score of job engagement and, unfortunately, I was not able to interview any of them. Thus, all of the interviewees had medium or high engagement (i.e. an average score from 3.07).

There was one 45-minute interview, and 42 one-hour interviews. Following BERA's (2018) ethical guidelines, all of the participants' requests related to the data collection were met, e.g. three lecturers did not agree to have their interviews recorded; one interviewee asked to delete the recording on 1/1/2018, one requested to return them the interview transcription.

In most interviews, probing questions were used to get deeper information from the interviewees (Coleman, 2012). For instance, one lecturer said that a lack of academic integrity not only at the university but also in the general context of Vietnamese HE made her disengaged in doing research – one of the key tasks of lecturers. I asked her to give more details about how the HRD policies related to

the practice of academic dishonesty. The probing questions really helped me to get interesting information on the research topic.

Sometimes, I shared a little of my own story, views and experiences on the topics discussed with the interviewees. It is claimed that this practice may affect interviewees' responses (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015), possibly leading to biases in the research findings (Smyth & Holian, 2008; cited in Unluer, 2012). However, in-depth interviewing is different from other types of interviewing because, it "involves a greater involvement of the interviewer's self". Thus, it requires the building of "a mutual sense of cooperative self-disclosure and trust" between the interviewer and the informant (Johnson, 2001, p. 109). Despite claiming that in in-depth interviews, "the interviewer must offer some form of strict or complementary reciprocity", Johnson (2001, p. 109) asserts that only the interviewers who have belonged to the group under examination can conduct strict reciprocity, i.e. sharing views, feelings and reflections on the discussed topic with the informant. Supporting this perspective, Douglas (adapted in Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014) also suggests that sharing the researcher's personal story can open up the interviewee. Regarding this study, all of the interviewees knew I had been a lecturer of the university under examination, i.e. insider researcher (Breen, 2007; cited in Unluer, 2012), as introduced at the beginning of the questionnaire. Hence, I believe that strict reciprocity encouraged their trust and willingness to provide information about the topic rather than my self-closure as if I were an outsider of the university who did not know anything about the university. Even, one of the interviewees asked me "You are a lecturer of the university too, so you definitely know those practices; do you agree with my view?". In that case, I did answer his question clearly and honestly as my

commitment to the participants since the study started. This is because truthfulness is one of the main ethical principles when conducting research (Israel and Hay, 2006). Additionally, if I had refused or ignored him or lied, I could not have built the trust with the interviewee and he might have ended the interview.

Insider researcher can hold both advantages and disadvantages. For instance, advantages can be the researcher's knowledge and experience about the general culture/politics and particular research topics of the institution (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002; cited in Unluer, 2012), and the researcher's established intimacy with the research participants, which may help them elicit sensitive information (Unluer, 2012). Disadvantages include possible ethical issues and research biases (Smyth & Holian, 2008; cited in Unluer, 2012), e.g. integrity of the researcher in utilizing their status to collect sensitive data, and taking too much of the researcher's own experiences in analyzing data leading to biased findings.

With explicit awareness of the pros and cons of being an insider researcher outlined above, I tried to strike the best balance between sharing my opinions when asked in order to build rapport and not over-sharing so as to avoid biasing the interviewees. In fact, I did feel that the interviewees' opinions were not affected by the researcher's comments/stories. Furthermore, findings from the interviews have been triangulated with those from the questionnaire survey to enhance the trustworthiness of the final results as discussed by Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) in the section on mixed method approaches.

3.4.2.3. Data analysis

The forty recordings were transcribed into text in Vietnamese, together with the three unrecorded notes, making the data set available for analyzing. Data analysis mainly followed the instructions of Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014). Following the authors' advice, I had tried to note in detail the interviewees' body language which I attached to their words in the transcriptions, e.g. smiling, talking pause, and incomplete sentences, in order to understand better the information they provided.

Data were analyzed in Vietnamese with the support of N-Vivo software version 11 for the two first coding cycles. After that, because my eyes could not work well with the N-Vivo screen layout, I moved to manual analysis with the support of Microsoft Word 2010 software.

According to Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014), there are three main stages of qualitative data analysis, including first cycle coding, second cycle coding, and generating assertions and propositions. In the first cycle coding, symbolic meanings (i.e. codes) that cover summative, essence-capturing, salient, and/or evocative attributes, are assigned to data chunks (Saldaña, 2013). Codes are expressed in the form of a word or short phrase with the purpose of data condensation, i.e. summarizing segments of data (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014). Silverman (2013) names the stage as 'open coding'. With regard to the study, I conducted open coding in two rounds. In the first round, I coded from the earliest interview to the latest one. After that, I left the open code list for several days to refresh my brain, and then took the second round of open coding in the reverse order of the interviews. Comparing the code lists between the rounds was

like a double check which helped me get a better confirmed list of 32 open codes for the study.

During open coding, I used in-vivo codes (i.e. codes extracted from the data portion) to keep as much of the participants' voice as possible but also developed my own codes (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014). Most typical types of coding suggested by Saldaña (2013), e.g. emotion, values, process, descriptive, evaluation codes, were applied in the stage.

Simultaneous codes, i.e. more than one code being applied to a single datum, have been applied in open coding. However, Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014) warn that too much simultaneous coding reflects an unclear/incomplete vision for a coding system. Thus, when revising the open codes, I managed to clearly define the codes to facilitate a consistent code system in next stages. Below is a sample of the first cycle codes.

Codes	Definition of codes	Code types	Data passages (One example)
Performance management based on performance results	Process of performance appraisal and improvement in which performance results is the most important criterion	Process	“Observing my colleagues, I have found that one of the regulations that makes them stressful/uncomfortable is each lecturer has to reach 100 points of doing research every year, meaning they have to publish at least one paper. A paper if published in a national conference equals 100 points, if published in a university conference equals 70 points, and if published in a departmental seminar equals to 50 points. If they do not achieve this KPI, they will be evaluated as not completing their job in the relevant year, will not be considered for any rewards of the year”.
Autonomy	Feeling of having power to decide, judge, take	Evaluation	

	responsibilities and execute the job in your way; being free to choose to pursue the job-related activities		
Working faction	A group of the university staff in which the members have shared benefits, thus they always have consensus in job-related decisions, irrespective of the reality	In vivo/ Evaluation	
Competence	Feeling of possessing the needed knowledge, skills, and resources to succeed in job performance	Evaluation	
Work challenges- POSITIVE	High standards of lecturers tasks create challenges, interest and enjoyment for lecturers	In vivo/ Descriptive	
Work challenges- NEGATIVE	High standards of lecturers tasks create challenges, exhaustion and worry for lecturers	In vivo/ Descriptive	
Training	Organizational activities to equip job-required knowledge, skills, attitude to enhance lecturers' competence	Process	
Fairness	Treating without favouritism/discrimination	In vivo/ Value	
Unfairness	Treating with favouritism/discrimination	In vivo/ Value	
Recognition and reward based on performance results	Setting performance result as the most important criterion in process of organizational recognition and rewards	Process	
Dishonesty	Not respecting, deciding, and behaving based on the truths in policy implementation	In vivo/ Value	
Relatedness	feeling of being connected and supported by important people/organization in	Evaluation	

	work place		
Off-job happiness	Enjoyment, happy socialization in off-job activities organized by the university and/or its units and/or lecturers' department	Descriptive	
Punishment	Negative treatment for negative behaviours/outcomes	In vivo/ Process	
Stagnation	Slow or no change/improvement of mistakes or weaknesses	In vivo/ Evaluation	
Person-organization fit/unfit	The fit/unfit between a person and his/her organization	Descriptive	
Transparency	Being open, not hiding any secrets to get people/groups beneficial	In vivo/ Value	

Table 3.2. Examples of open codes

Second cycle coding, defined as pattern coding, groups the open codes into categories, themes, or constructs (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014). As guided by the authors, firstly, I developed four interrelated types of pattern codes, namely (1) categories/themes, (2) causes/explanations, (3) relationships among people, and (4) theoretical constructs. Below are two examples of the interrelated pattern codes:

<p>Theme 1: Enhancing job engagement</p> <p>Category 1.1. HRD policies of performance management based on performance results</p> <p><i>Reason 1.1.1:</i> Work challenges-POS -> Outcomes: Competence⁺; Autonomy⁺</p> <p><i>Reason 1.1.2:</i> Fairness -> Outcome 1: person-organization fit -> Outcome 2: Relatedness⁺</p> <p>Category 1.2. HRD policies of training</p> <p><i>Reason 1.2.1:</i> Competence⁺ <i>Reason 1.2.2:</i> Relatedness⁺</p> <p>Category 1.3. HRD policies of recognition and reward based on performance results</p> <p><i>Reason 1.3.1:</i> Fairness <i>Reason 1.3.2:</i> Transparency -> Outcome 1: person-organization fit -> Outcome 2: Relatedness⁺</p>

Note: ⁺ means 'Increased'; ⁻ means 'Reduced'

<p>Theme 2: Reducing job engagement</p> <p>Category 2.1. HRD policies of performance management based on performance results</p> <p><i>Reason 2.1.1:</i> Work challenges-NEG -> Outcomes: Competence⁻, Autonomy⁻</p> <p><i>Reason 2.1.2:</i> Work overload -> Outcomes: Insufficient competence, Autonomy⁻</p> <p><i>Reason 2.1.3:</i> Dishonesty -> Outcome 1: person-organization unfit -> Outcome 2: Relatedness⁻</p> <p><i>Reason 2.1.4 (explanation):</i> Work faction -> Outcome 1: person-organization unfit -> Outcome 2: Relatedness⁻</p> <p>Category 2.2. HRD policies of punishment</p> <p><i>Reason 2.2.1:</i> Unfairness <i>Reason 2.2.2:</i> Inadequate punishment -> Outcome 1: person-organization unfit -> Outcome 2: Relatedness⁻</p>
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Note: ⁺ means 'Increased'; ⁻ means 'Reduced'

Table 3.3 – 3.4. Examples of pattern codes

In the tables above, there are codes of themes (e.g. Enhancing job engagement), categories (e.g. HRD policies), causes (i.e. reasons), human relationship (e.g. working faction) and theoretical constructs (e.g. autonomy, competence, relatedness). These codes came from the open code list and were

grouped based on the flow of the interview questions and toward answering the research questions. Specifically, the pattern codes can facilitate the reasons regarding the HRD policies for lecturers' job engagement, the way the reasons link to lecturers' BPNW.

Finally, based on the pattern codes and the relevant data passages, the answers (i.e. assertions and propositions) for the research questions were drawn. At this stage, revisiting the relevant data offers either one more check of the validity of the pattern codes or a useful way to write in-depth evidenced-based answers. As guided by Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014), seeing plausibility (e.g. how much a proposition was supported by lecturers), counting (e.g. how many lecturers agreed with an opinion), and comparing (e.g. how strongly the influence of an HRD policy differed from one discipline group to the next), were the key tactics used to produce assertions.

Furthermore, to form the final conclusions, it is necessary to confirm and verify all provisional assertions (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014). One of the techniques is following up surprises (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014). For example, most lecturers agreed that the policies about training helped them improve their competence for the job, thus, making them feel able to work well and cared for/supported by the university leading to their higher job engagement. However, the following opinion was different from the majority:

“Generally, training is good for employees. However, lecturers are at the high level of education. Thus, they are knowledgeable in their discipline and have a good ability of self-learning. As a result, not all modes of training help enhance lecturers' engagement in either the training or their whole job. Some of training modes, e.g. giving

general lectures for a big class of lecturers from different disciplines, waste their time and do not provide what the lecturers-learners really need.... Hence, it is necessary to do training need analysis and better to group lecturers based on their learning interest”. [said by a lecturer from Unit 2].

Because of this opinion, I reviewed all data passages which related to the code of training. I found that some lecturers from the first, second, and seventh units agreed that on-the-job training does not always work well because it depends on the quality and enthusiasm of the on-the-job supervisors/line managers. Indeed, several junior members of staff said their supervisor had taken advantage of them by making them do their supervisor’s personal teaching/research work. In this way, the junior members of staff lost chances to learn and felt discouraged. Clearly, this opinion supports the view that not all training initiatives increase lecturers’ job engagement. The opinions suggest how to make the impact of training effective, therefore, considerably contributing to the answer for the research question of how HRD policies can satisfy lecturers’ BPNW through which enhancing their job engagement. As a result, it is too simple to conclude that training increases lecturers’ job engagement.

The table below expresses an example of how to draw assertions upon the pattern code sample.

HRD policies	BPNW satisfaction (what and how?)	Relevant reasons for job (dis)engagement	Surprising opinion (brief)
Training the teaching and research methods	2. Competence: - Equipping/improving required knowledge, skills, ability for lecturers. 3. Relatedness: - Satisfying lecturers' feeling of organizational care 1. Autonomy (not clear)	1. Feeling of person-job fit when lecturers can master their job and succeed	- "not all modes of training help enhance lecturers' engagement in either the training or their whole job"

Table 3.5. Example of drawing assertions upon pattern codes

As well as following up surprises, checking the meaning of outliers should be used to form and confirm assertions (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014). In the study, there were some unusual opinions expressed by lecturers. For instance, a senior lecturer from Unit 2 said:

“HRD policies of the university have not affected my job engagement at all. I have my own professional objectives, I just need to meet the university’s hard requirements of the standard teaching and research hours, then I can focus on what I want... Most HRD policies sound good. However, a lack of adequate quality control and honesty in policy implementation leave the policies away from practice. For example, there have been lecturers whose teaching has been evaluated as low quality by students (about 2 points out of a Likert 5 scale) [5 is the highest quality of teaching]. I think student evaluation is important and we need to be concerned about it. Nonetheless, the lecturers were deemed to be competent and were not subject to any

disadvantage in the year they got the low evaluation. Thus, I feel the policies of performance management based on performance outcomes are not important and do not affect anybody.”

From the opinion and rationale, at least the policy of the standard teaching and research hours has impact on the informant’s work. Furthermore, theoretically, it seems to be impossible for an employee to be separate from their organizational HRD policies bounding their job, such as performance appraisal, career advancement and/or recognition and reward. Indeed, in his response to the questionnaire, he recognized that the HRD policies of training teaching/research methods, on-the-job training by a supervisor, funding support, teaching reduction, and sabbatical leave help slightly increase his job engagement. Additionally, the level of his engagement and BPNW satisfaction was at medium (3.64 for job engagement, 3.75 for autonomy, 3.25 for competence, 3 for relatedness). Therefore, I could not simply accept his claim that no HRD policies have impacted on his job engagement. Rather, I looked more carefully at the reasons for his engagement and disengagement to work out any important signals of the mechanism of the relationship between HRD policies and his BPNW and job (dis)engagement.

Triangulation is another important strategy to check and enhance the trustworthiness of the research findings (Silverman, 2013). In the study, it is evident that the interview data support the quantitative findings. For instance, the quantitative result indicates that the satisfaction of lecturers’ need for competence by HRD policies has a modest positive influence on lecturers’ job engagement. The qualitative data not only specifically elaborated what and how strongly the HRD policies fulfill lecturers’ need for competence (and thereby impacting on

lecturers' job engagement (i.e. finding convergence)); but also provided the reason for the result (i.e. finding corroboration) (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). For example, a policy of Unit 2 requires lecturers to publish at least one paper each year in a peer-reviewed academic journal with an international registered number, even though heavy teaching, administration and even socialization workload hinder them to do that. This conflict explains why it is very challenging for lecturers to complete the research task leading to lecturers' low satisfaction of the need for competence and low engagement in the research task. Thereby, the mixed-method design helps triangulate the finding, making the findings more trustworthy.

3.5. Ethical considerations

The key ethical issues and principles were upheld during all stages of the study, e.g. the copyright of the two scales, consent letter for the participants, and information confidentiality and anonymity. Violation of copyright is one form of plagiarism (Dobrick, Fischer and Hagen, 2018). Thus, to ensure the copyright in using the UWES and BPNWS for the study, I contacted the corresponding authors of the scales to get their permission. The author of UWES agreed that I could use UWES for academic purpose only, not for commercial one. For the BPNWS, I got agreement from one of the authors and the executive board of the journal in which BPNWS was published. Evidence of email conversations is in Appendix 4.

As guided by BERA's (2018) ethical guidelines, before the interviews, a consent letter was sent to the selected interviewees to provide more information on how the interviews would be run, how the data would be kept confidentially

and reported anonymously, and to ask the interviewees if they agreed to an audio recording of the interviews. The consent letter also included the rights of the interviewees, especially, the right to withdraw from the research at any time with no need to provide reasons (British Educational Research Association [BERA], 2018). At the beginning of the interview, the volunteers signed a hard copy of the consent letter (Appendix 5).

During the study and after its completion, confidentiality and anonymity have been strictly maintained, including the interview and questionnaire data, and related publications. According to Israel and Hay (2006), confidentiality and anonymity are fundamental principles of research ethics that need to be upheld by all researchers. Regarding the current study, the questionnaire did not ask for the participants' name nor any information to identify them. The demographical information was asked for the research purpose only. The contact details of the interview volunteers have not been shared with anybody since this research started and will not be shared in the future. The recordings as well as all other data collected from and related to the participants have been saved in a password-protected laptop and a password-locked drive.

In my thesis or any related reports/papers, any information regarding a specific (sensitive) situation provided by the participants will be presented in such a way that readers cannot create links between the information and any particular participants, e.g. using representative numbers of the university's units and hiding the disciplines which can lead the readers to think about specific lecturers. I have done by my best to comply with BERA's ethical guidelines; as far as I can tell the participants of the study have been respected and protected from any inconvenience and harm.

In conclusion, chapter 3 has discussed how the study was designed and conducted. The discussion began by explaining why and how the interpretivist paradigm was adopted. It then explains why and how the mixed-method and case study approaches were selected, the questionnaire and in-depth interview were deployed, and the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed. This information facilitates the next step of reporting the research findings in chapter 4.

Chapter 4. Findings

This chapter presents the results of the study, namely quantitative and qualitative outcomes. Specifically, the quantitative analysis provides a demographical description of the questionnaire respondents; the outcomes of CFA for UWES and BPNW; the relationship between the lecturers' job engagement and the demographical variables. The findings also indicate how lecturers evaluate the impact of the suggested HRD policies on their job engagement; the influence of the university's HRD policies on their psychological needs at work; and the relationship between lecturers' need satisfaction by HRD policies and their job engagement.

The qualitative findings include the reasons for lecturers' job (dis)engagement, the link between lecturers' BPNW satisfaction by the university HRD policies and the reasons, and lecturers' recommendations of how to make the policies better fulfill their BPNW to enhance their job engagement.

4.1. Quantitative findings

The questionnaire was successfully sent to 1570 full-time lecturers at the eight units of the university, out of which 406 usable responses were generated (N = 406). As a result, the response rate is almost 26%.

4.1.1. Demographical description

The outcomes of frequency distribution for demographical variables run in SPSS are shown in the tables below.

Age		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Below 30	43	10.6
	30 to Under 40	214	52.7
	40 to Under 50	96	23.6
	50 or above	53	13.1
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.1. Frequencies of respondents' age

Job level		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Lecturer assistant/ Lecturer	313	77.1
	Senior lecturer	21	5.2
	Superior lecturer	72	17.7
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.2. Frequencies of respondents' job level

Gender		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Female	256	63.1
	Male	150	36.9
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.3. Frequencies of respondents' gender

Qualification		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Below doctorate	149	36.7
	Doctorate	257	63.3
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.4. Frequencies of respondents' qualification

Job title		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Not applicable	328	80.8
	Prof/ Asso.Prof	78	19.2
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.5. Frequencies of respondents' job title

Management position		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	282	69.5
	Yes	124	30.5
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.6. Frequencies of respondents' management position

Teaching field		Frequency	Percent
Valid	SS-Hu-Bu/Econ	276	67.9
	NS-Tech-Med	118	29.1
	Total	394	97.0
	Missing	999.00	12
Total		406	100.0

Table 4.7. Frequencies of respondents' teaching field

Working years in the university		Frequency	Percent
Valid	7 years and below	114	28.1
	Over 7 years	285	70.2
	Total	399	98.3
Missing	999.00	7	1.7
Total		406	100.0

Table 4.8. Frequencies of respondents' working years in the university

Working unit in the university		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Affiliated University 1 (Unit 1)	96	23.6
	Affiliated University 2 (Unit 2)	147	36.2
	Affiliated University 3 (Unit 3)	88	21.7
	Affiliated University 4 (Unit 4)	22	5.4
	Affiliated University 5 (Unit 5)	15	3.7
	Affiliated University 6 (Unit 6)	18	4.4
	Affiliated School 7 (Unit 7)	16	4.0
	Affiliated School 8 (Unit 8)	4	1.0
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.9. Frequencies of respondents' working unit in the university

From the tables, the demographical features of the respondents can be described as follows:

- Nearly two thirds (63.3%) of the respondents are under 40 meaning a young workforce of the university which can significantly affect the university HRD policies.

- As mentioned in chapter 3, there is only one respondent whose job level (as distinct from job title) is lecturer assistant. Over three quarters (77%) of the respondents are at the level of lecturer. A small percentage (about 5%) of the respondents are at the middle level (i.e. senior lecturer), which is far less than that of the highest level (i.e. superior lecturer) (17.7%). This may be a result of the policy that lecturers can be promoted directly from the lowest to the highest level through winning the life-long titles of Professor/Associate Professor (Bộ trưởng Bộ GD-ĐT [Minister of MOET], 2018) (see lecturer job titles and levels on page 19 for further details).

- The percentage of female respondents (63%) is nearly double that of male ones (37%). This is different to the total percentage of all academic and non-academic staff at the eight units, which is, 55.6% for female and 44.4% for male.

- The number of respondents holding doctorate degree is nearly twice as many as that of lecturers holding a lower degree (63.3% and 36.7%, respectively) meaning a necessity of the policy of supporting a number of the lecturers to get the doctorate degree as legally required.

- 19% of the respondents have the title Professor or Associate Professor and 81% have lower titles, indicating lecturers' possibly significant need for getting the highest job titles and level in their career.

- The number of respondents holding a management position is about one third of the total respondents (30.5%) providing important data from the management perspective, compared to the major of non-managerial respondents (nearly 70%). The percentage of managers may be considered high. However, it reflects the organizational structures of the university which includes managerial positions at every level, i.e. the university's leaders/executives, managers of the university's departments/units; managers of the units' departments/faculties; and managers of the faculties' sub-departments. There are also more managerial positions in the university's/units' programmes/projects and in the organizations that are integrated into the university's/units' structures, e.g. Communist Party, Youth Union and Trade Union. Most of the management positions have been taken into account when developing and implementing policies in the university.

- The percentage of the respondents who have been teaching in social sciences, humanities, and business/economics (about 68%) is over twice of that of those who in natural science, technology, and medicine and health care (29%).

- About 70% of the respondents have worked at the university for more than seven years so their data rests on long experience.

- The number of the respondents working in Unit 2 is the highest (36.2%), which is followed by the percentage of those coming from Unit 1 and 3 (23.6% and 21.7%, respectively). The total percentage of the remaining units accounts for about 18%. This may lead to the different richness of data on the different units' HRD policies and contexts. Although Unit 2 is one of the biggest among the eight ones, the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and the units is tested. Moreover, the university's HRD policies highlighted in the questionnaire applied to all of the units. Furthermore, quantitative findings are triangulated by qualitative data as well. Thus, the unit skewness is unlikely to have affected the findings.

4.1.2. Lecturers' job engagement

4.1.2.1. CFA for UWES

Cronbach's alpha coefficients in SPSS have been run to test the internal reliability of UWES content. EFA in SPSS aims to explore the structure of UWES, which is then confirmed by CFA in AMOS.

- **Cronbach's alpha coefficients** for each factor (i.e. vigor, dedication, absorption) and for all three factors of UWES are higher than .7 (.87, .80, .89, .94, respectively). This demonstrates that each factor of the scale and the whole scale have good internal reliability (Muijs, 2011).

- EFA for UWES:

An EFA for UWES has been run in SPSS with the eigenvalues and direct oblimin rotation methods. The results are shown in Table 4.10 below.

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
	1	9.288	54.633	54.633	9.288	54.633	54.633
2	1.200	7.060	61.693	1.200	7.060	61.693	7.126
3	.994	5.849	67.542				
4	.684	4.026	71.568				
5	.597	3.512	75.080				
6	.581	3.417	78.498				
7	.559	3.289	81.786				
8	.469	2.758	84.544				
9	.413	2.431	86.975				
10	.389	2.291	89.266				
11	.320	1.879	91.145				
12	.316	1.858	93.003				
13	.298	1.754	94.756				
14	.272	1.602	96.358				
15	.244	1.432	97.791				
16	.212	1.247	99.038				
17	.164	.962	100.000				
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.							
a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.							

Table 4.10. EFA for UWES - Total Variance Explained

As can be seen in Table 4.10, only the total Initial Eigenvalues values of the first two components (see below) are higher than the cut-off level of 1 (9.3 and 1.2), meaning two factors constitute the scale (Muijs, 2011). Furthermore, the Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings of the two components is acceptable

(61.7%) (Muijs, 2011). In other words, the two components can explain about 62% the variation extracted by the factors. These indicate that only a two-factor model of UWES is explored in the data instead of an expected three-factor one.

Pattern Matrix^a		
	Component	
	1	2
Q2: I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose. (Dedication 1)	.934	-.151
Q7: My job inspires me (Dedication 3)	.869	-.012
Q4: At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (Vigor 2)	.843	.022
Q10: I am proud of the work that I do (Dedication 4)	.823	-.070
Q1: At my work, I feel bursting with energy. (Vigor 1)	.786	-.019
Q5: I am enthusiastic about my job. (Dedication 2)	.731	.102
Q8: When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (Vigor 3)	.582	.247
Q3: Time flies when I am working. (Absorption 1)	.535	.248
Q9: I feel happy when I am working intensely (Absorption 3)	.501	.303
Q17: At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well. (Vigor 6)	.418	.382
Q16: It is difficult to detach myself from my job. (Absorption 6)	-.075	.907
Q14: I get carried away when I am working. (Absorption 5)	.048	.871
Q11: I am immersed in my work (Absorption 4)	.240	.667
Q12: I can continue working for very long periods at a time. (Vigor 4)	.250	.590
Q13: To me, my job is challenging. (Dedication 5)	-.076	.526
Q6: When I am working, I forget everything else around me. (Absorption 2)	.309	.518
Q15: At my job, I am very resilient, mentally. (Vigor 5)	.438	.441
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.		

Table 4.11. EFA for UWES – Pattern Matrix

Table 4.11 (Pattern Matrix) above presents how the two components are formed from the scale's items to support the two-component model of UWES. According to Muijs (2011, p. 211) items with the values over 0.3 or less than -0.3 are the factor loading. Thus, items Q2, Q7, Q4, Q10, Q1, Q5, Q8, Q3, Q9, Q17, Q6, and Q15 have loaded on factor 1; Q9, Q17, Q16, Q14, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q6, and Q15 on factor 2. There are four items (Q9, Q17, Q6 and Q15) that have loaded on both factors.

- CFA for UWES:

A CFA was conducted in AMOS to confirm the structure of UWES. The following graphic and tables shows the final results.

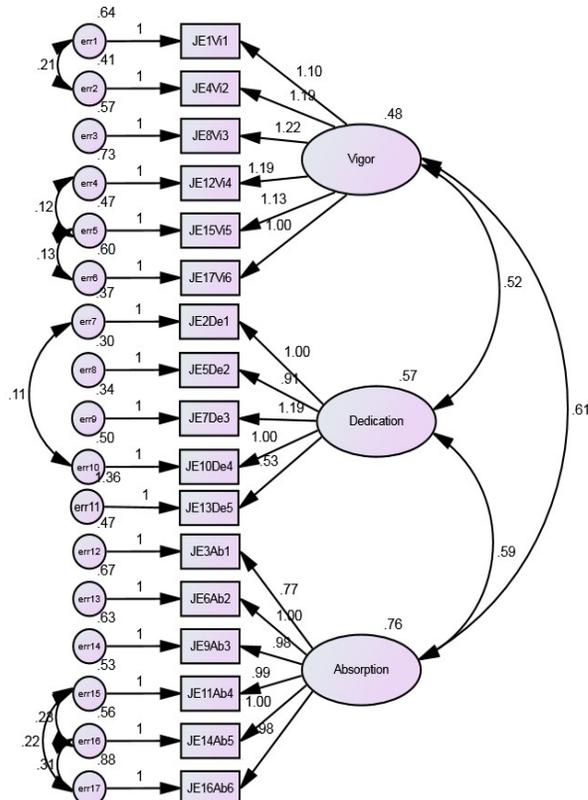


Figure 4.1. CFA for UWES in AMOS graphic

The covariance of error terms between the items Q1 (Vigor 1) and Q4 (Vigor 2); Q12 (Vigor 4) and Q15 (Vigor 5); Q15 (Vigor 5) and Q17 (Vigor 6); and Q2 (Dedication 1) and Q10 (Dedication 4); Q11 (Absorption 4) and Q14 (Absorption 5); Q11 and Q16 (Absorption 6); and Q14 and Q16 have been modified. The modification aims to overcome possible errors of the measurement in the sample, i.e. measurement error in item responses which may derive from specific features of either the items or the respondents (Byrne, 2010, p. 110). This helps to improve the fit indices of the model to the sample.

The final result does not support the structure of three dimensions of UWES. Specifically, Chi-square = 416.185 is significant (degrees of freedom = 109, and Probability level = .000), meaning a poor fit model to the data (Byrne, 2010). However, because Chi-square is sensitive to sample size, a sufficiently large sample size might cause lack of fit (i.e. a significant Chi-square) (Muijs, 2011, p. 237). It is recommended that the sample size should be at least ten times as many as the number of parameters estimated in the model (Blunch, 2013). As can be seen from the figure above, there are 37 parameters being estimated in the model, leading to a required minimum sample size of 370. Thus, with $N = 406$, the sample size of the study can be considered as sufficiently large for the model, leading to a significant Chi-square. In this case, it is recommended to examine other Goodness-of-fit indices which are less sensitive to sample size, including GFI, CFI, and RMSEA (Byrne, 2010; Muijs, 2011; Blunch, 2013).

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.058	.896	.855	.639
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.585	.186	.085	.166

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.913	.891	.934	.917	.934
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.083	.075	.092	.000
Independence model	.290	.283	.297	.000

Table 4.12 – 4.14. Goodness-of-fit indices for SEM of UWES

As can be seen from the tables, GFI (.896) and CFI (.934) are less than the cut-off point of .95, indicating that the model does not fit the data well (Byrne, 2010). RMSEA (.083) is greater than the cut-off point of .08 with the confidence interval ranges from .075 to .092. This means the possibility of a poor fit of the model when RMSEA falls into the highest value (.092) which is very close to 1. This is indicative of a mediocre to poor fit of the model (MacCallum et.al 1996, cited in Byrne, 2010). Combining with the poor fit GFI and CFI, it can be concluded that the three-factor model of UWES is not appropriate for the sample. This supports the EFA result discussed earlier (in which a three-factor model was also discounted).

Finding 1: The three-factor model of UWES has not been confirmed in the data.

As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, this is not the first time that UWES three dimensions have not been found. The authors of the scale explain that the three

dimensions of the construction closely relate to each other leading to the possibility of fewer factors loading on the scale in some cases (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). Following the UWES authors' recommendation (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), the total score of all UWES items has been used as the recoded variable (JESum) for the statistics later in this study.

4.1.2.2. Relationship between the lecturers' job engagement and the demographical variables

Before examining the relationship, frequency distribution was run to reach an overall picture of lecturers' job engagement in the university. This test used the average of UWES total score (JESum) as the key variable. The outcomes are in the tables below.

Statistics		
JEMean		
N	Valid	406
	Missing	0
Mean		4.3771
Std. Deviation		.79993

Table 4.15. Mean of respondents' job engagement

JEMeanLevels			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Low engagement	20	4.9
	Medium engagement	228	56.2
	High engagement	158	38.9
	Total	406	100.0

Table 4.16. Frequencies of job engagement level

Finding 2 is the overall picture of lecturers' job engagement in the university: The average of lecturers' job engagement in the university is at the medium level (4.38 with standard deviation of .8, in the range of 3.07 and 4.66 as determined in chapter 3, page 138). This means lecturers felt engaged in their job at least once a week (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). The percentage of lecturers at medium engagement level is the highest followed by that at high engagement (56.2% and 38.9%, respectively). Approximately 5% of lecturers feel low engagement in the job. This result shows a positive picture of lecturers' job

engagement in the university, but not how much HRD policies contribute to this situation.

ANOVA and T-test for independent sample were run in SPSS to compare lecturers' job engagement among the demographical groups of lecturers. The sum of UWES items (JESum) was used for these tests and treated as a continuous variable. Details of the test results are displayed in the table below:

Test	Independent variables	Results	Significant level	Effect size	Conclusion
ANOVA (Dependent variable: Lecturers' job engagement)	Ages (Below 30; from 30 to under 40; from 40 to under 50; 50 and over)	F = 4.956, df = 3; Mean for below 30 = 71.7 Mean for 30 to under 40 = 74.1 Mean for 40 to under 50 = 73.1 Mean for 50 and over = 80.8	P = .002 ($< .05$)	Eta squared = .036 ($< .1$)	Significant but weak relationship
	Job levels (Lecturer assistant/Lecturer; Senior lecturer; Superior lecturer)	F = 8.758, df = 2; Mean for Lecturer assistant/Lecturer = 72.9 Mean for Senior Lecturer = 79.2 Mean for Superior Lecturer = 79.6	P = .000 ($< .05$)	Eta squared = .042 ($< .1$)	Significant but weak relationship
	Eight affiliated units in the university	F = 1.417, df = 7	P = .197 ($> .05$)		Non-significant relationship
T-test (Dependent variable: Lecturers' job engagement)	Gender (Female/Male)	t = -1.868, df = 404	P = .062 ($> .05$)		Non-significant relationship
	Teaching fields (Social sciences-Humanities-Business/Economics; Natural science-	t = -1.551, df = 392	P = .122 ($> .05$)		Non-significant relationship

Technology-Medical studies)					
Working years (7 years and below; Over 7 years)	t = -.517, df = 397,	P = .606 (> .05)			Non-significant relationship
Qualification (Below doctorate; Doctorate)	t = -3.345, df = 404, Mean for Below doctorate = 71.5, Mean for Doctorate = 76.1	P = .001 (< .05)	Cohen' d = 0.08 (< .1)		Significant but weak relationship
Job titles (Professor/Associate professor; N/A)	t = -3.309, df = 404; Mean for Professor/Associate professor = 78.9 Mean for N/A = 73.3	P = .001 (< .05)	Cohen' d = 0.11 (> .1)		Significant and modest relationship
Management position (Yes/No)	t = -3.395, df = 404; Mean for management = 77.8 Mean for non-management = 72.9	P = .001 (< .05)	Cohen' d = 0.1 (= .1)		Significant and modest relationship

Table 4.17. Relationship between lecturers' job engagement and demographical variables

From the table above, **Finding 3** can be formed as follow:

- There is a significant but weak difference in lecturers' job engagement with respect to age, job level and qualification. This is because the results of ANOVA and t-tests for these groups have p value less than the cut-off point (.05) and the relevant effect size less than .1 (Muijs, 2011, pp. 115, 183).

- This is also a significant and modest difference in lecturers' job engagement with respect to job title (lecturers who have and have not been awarded the title Professor or Associate Professor); and lecturers who are and are

not in a management position. Specifically, professors and associate professors (Mean = 78.9) have higher job engagement than those who have not been awarded the titles (Mean = 73.3). Lecturers who are managers (Mean = 77.8) have higher job engagement than those who are not managers (Mean = 72.9). The results of t-tests for these groups have p value less than .05 and the effect size from 0.1 to 0.3 (Muijs, 2011, pp. 115, 183).

- Non-significant relationship have been found between lecturers' job engagement and where they work in the university, what their gender is, what they have been teaching, as well as how long they have been working in the university. This is because the p values of the relevant ANOVA and t-tests are higher than .05 (Muijs, 2011, p. 115). The non-significant relationship between lecturers' job engagement and their working unit is evidence that the over-representation of some units in the data has not affected the findings.

4.1.3. Lecturers' BPNW

*** CFA for BPNWS**

- **Cronbach's alpha coefficients** for each factor (i.e. autonomy, competence, relatedness) and for all three factors of BPNWS are higher than .7 (.87, .83, .93, .91, respectively). This shows that each factor of the scale and the whole scale have good internal reliability (Muijs, 2011).

- EFA for BPNWS:

An EFA for BPNWS has been run in SPSS with the eigenvalues and direct oblimin rotation methods. The results are shown in Table 4.18.

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.985	49.877	49.877	5.985	49.877	49.877	4.803
2	1.642	13.679	63.556	1.642	13.679	63.556	4.552
3	1.409	11.743	75.299	1.409	11.743	75.299	3.888
4	.609	5.071	80.370				
5	.469	3.909	84.279				
6	.419	3.488	87.767				
7	.384	3.202	90.969				
8	.290	2.416	93.384				
9	.257	2.140	95.524				
10	.227	1.889	97.413				
11	.162	1.353	98.766				
12	.148	1.234	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Table 4.18. EFA for BPNWS – Total Variance Explained

As can be seen in Table 4.18, only the total Initial Eigenvalues values of the first three components (5.9, 1.6 and 1.4) are higher than the cut-off level of 1, meaning three factors constitute the scale (Muijs, 2011). Furthermore, the

Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings of the three components is acceptable (75.3%) (Muijs, 2011). Thus, the three components (factors) can explain about 75% of the variation extracted by the factors. These indicate that a three-factor model of BPNWS is explored in the data.

Table 4.19 shows how to group the items of BPNWS into the three needs.

Pattern Matrix^a			
	Component		
	1	2	3
Q29: When I'm with the people from my work environment, I feel I am a friend to them (Relatedness 4)	.926	-.034	-.023
Q28: When I'm with the people from my work environment, I feel as though I can trust them. (Relatedness 3)	.914	-.093	.070
Q27: When I'm with the people from my work environment, I feel heard. (Relatedness 2)	.894	.037	.022
Q26: When I'm with the people from my work environment, I feel understood. (Relatedness 1)	.874	.111	-.035
Q23: I feel competent at work. (Competency 2)	-.035	.946	-.059
Q24: I am able to solve problems at work. (Competency 3)	-.003	.908	-.043
Q22: I have the ability to do my work well. (Competency 1)	.006	.644	.272
Q25: I succeed in my work. (Competency 4)	.293	.516	.071
Q19: I can use my judgement when solving work-related problems. (Autonomy 2)	-.023	-.034	.920
Q18: My work allows me to make decisions. (Autonomy 1)	.051	-.105	.850
Q21: At my work, I feel free to execute my tasks in my own way. (Autonomy 4)	.035	.040	.800
Q20: I can take on responsibilities at my job. (Autonomy 3)	-.016	.180	.772
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.			
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

Table 4.19. EFA for BPNWS – Pattern Matrix

As mentioned earlier, an item belongs to a factor if its loading on the factor is more than 0.3 or less than -0.3 (Muijs, 2011, p. 201). Following this rule, the Pattern Matrix above shows the items of each factor (i.e. each need of BPNW) as marked by the circles on the table. Specifically, items Q29, Q28, Q27, Q26 belong to factor 1. These items constitute the need for relatedness in the original BPNWS. Similarly, items Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25 make up the need for competence, and the remaining items form the need for autonomy exactly as in the original scale. As a result, EFA suggests a three-factor model of the BPNWS with the form as expected in the original scale.

- CFA for BPNWS:

The graphic and tables below shows the final results of CFA for BPNWS.

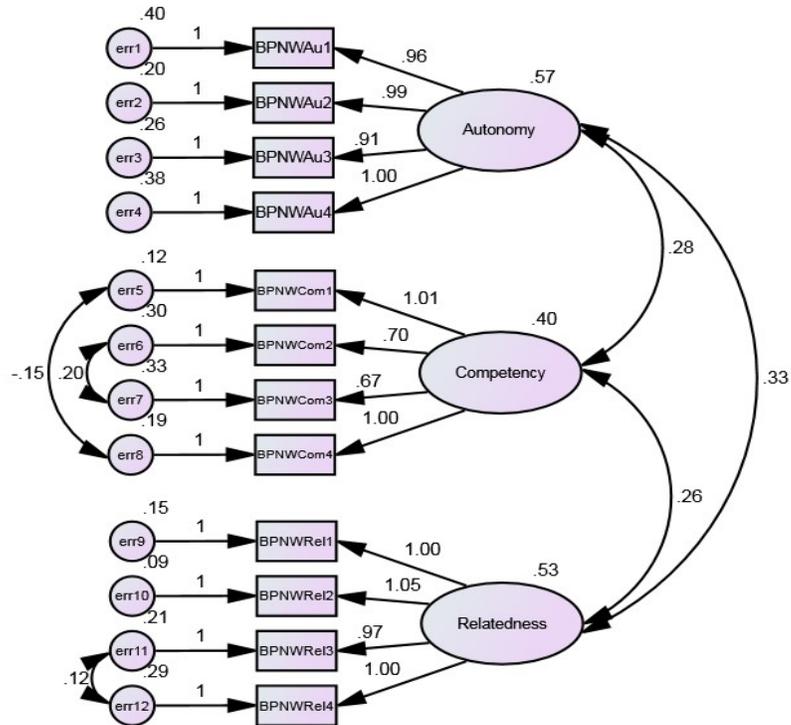


Figure 4.2. CFA for BPNWS in AMOS graphic

After modifying the covariance of error terms of the items Q22 and Q25; Q23 and Q24; and Q28 and Q29, the final result does support the structure of three needs of BPNWS. Specifically, Chi-square = 143.598 is significant (degrees of freedom = 48, and Probability level = .000), meaning a poor fit model to the data. However, in the CFA model of BPNWS, there are 27 parameters being estimated in the model, leading to a required minimum sample size is 270. Thus, with N = 406, the sample size of the study can be considered as sufficiently large for the model, leading to a significant Chi-square. Therefore, similar to doing

CFA for UWES, other Goodness-of-fit indices of the BPNWS model have been examined, including GFI, CFI, and RMSEA.

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.027	.947	.914	.583
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.310	.288	.159	.244

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.957	.941	.971	.960	.971
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.070	.057	.083	.006
Independence model	.350	.340	.360	.000

Tables 4.20 – 4.22. Goodness-of-fit indices of the BPNWS

As can be seen from Tables 4.20 – 4.22, GFI (.947) and CFI (.971) are almost and greater than .95, indicating a good fit of the model to the data (Muijs, 2011). RMSEA is at .07 (>.05 and <.08) indicating a fairly good fit of the model (Byrne, 2010). In short, the three-factor model of BPNWS fits to the sample well.

Finding 4: The three-factor structure of BPNWS has been confirmed in the sample.

Because the three-factor model of UWES has not been found in the sample, the relationship between UWES and BPNWS could not be tested by SEM. Even so, Finding 1 and 3 can make a meaningful contribution to the literature.

4.1.4. Lecturers' self-evaluation of the suggested HRD policies

Frequency distribution has been run to analyze lecturers' self-evaluation of how the HRD policies listed have influenced their job engagement or should be adopted in the university (section C in the questionnaire). The results are shown in Table 4.23 below.

HRD policies	Impact on lecturers' job engagement			Lecturers' recommendation of policy adoption				Do not know (%)	Missing (%)
	Reduce job engagement (%)	No impact (%)	Increase job engagement (%)	Should be adopted as the highest priority (%)	Should be adopted soon (%)	Should be adopted when possible (%)	Should not be adopted (%)		
1. Offering training programmes in teaching methods and/or research methods and skills	1.50	7.10	80.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	0.20	3.00	1.20
2. Offering training programmes in how to transfer research outcomes into practice	1	4.9	32.7	4.2	22.7	11.1	0.5	21.7	1.2
3. On-the-job training delivered by supervisors and/or managers	1.5	3.9	65.2	4.2	9.4	4.9	0.7	8.1	2
4. Funding (wholly or partially) for other programmes to enhance lecturer's competence (e.g. postgraduate study and/or activities related to lecturer's competence enhancement, e.g. academic conferences)	2.7	3.9	69	6.4	7.4	3.2	0.2	5.7	1.5
5. Reducing teaching for training attendance without loss of proper compensation. (e.g. reducing required teaching hours; teaching leave for training attendance, etc.)	4.9	4.9	62	6.9	10.6	3.4	1	4.4	1.7
6. Paid sabbatical leave for research or internship	3.2	3.4	39.2	7.4	17.7	12.3	2	12.8	2
7. Providing teaching assistants to reduce lecturer's overwork	2	4.4	28.1	8.9	28.3	16	0.5	8.6	3.2
8. Providing guidance on how to develop a career plan for lecturers	0.9	3.2	28.3	11.6	27.8	10.8	0.5	15.3	1.5

9. Providing guidance for departmental/line managers how to assign responsibilities to lecturers so they can meet the requirements of higher job ranks and positions	1.5	3.4	37.9	7.1	16.7	6.7	0.5	24.6	1.5
10. Developing platforms to receive lecturers' opinions regarding organizational work and give lecturers detailed feedback on their opinions	1.9	5.7	53.9	8.9	13.8	3.9	0	10.3	1.5
11. Publishing lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies	0.7	5.7	16.8	7.4	30.5	15.3	3.4	18.5	1.7
12. Performance appraisal based on performance outcomes	2.7	7.9	67.8	6.2	8.9	0.7	0.2	3.9	1.7
13. Issuing regulations to ensure the performance appraisal system accurately classifies the levels and quality of lecturers' performance	2	7.1	58.4	7.6	10.6	2.7	0.2	10.6	0.7
14. Recognition and reward based on performance outcomes	2.2	4.9	75.3	5.9	5.2	1.2	0.5	3.2	1.5
15. Recognition and reward based on seniority	9.3	14.5	46.5	0.2	3.2	3.9	9.1	10.8	2.2
16. Recognition and reward based on qualification/professional certificates	4.7	11.1	52.9	2.5	4.4	6.7	5.9	11.1	0.7
17. Recognition and reward based on managerial levels and positions	8.3	15.5	42.9	0.2	3	4.9	11.8	13.1	0.2

Note: The circled numbers are the top three numbers indicating the policies that most increase or reduce lecturers' job engagement.

Table 4.23. Frequency distribution of Lecturers' self-evaluation of the HRD policies

It can be seen from Table 4.23 that most of the HRD policies increase rather than reduce the level of the respondents' job engagement. Specifically, less than 5% of the respondents said that the policies reduce their job engagement, except the policies of recognition and reward based on seniority (9.3%) and based on managerial levels and positions (8.3%). Two policies related to training (i.e. policy 1 and 3) and one related to supporting competence enhancement (i.e. policy 4) increase job engagement of a fairly large number of the respondents (80%, 65%, 69%, respectively). 33% and 39% of the respondents said the other policies in these two groups (i.e. policy 2 and 6) increase their job engagement.

Within the group of policies relating to work system and support lecturers' competence and work improvement, policy 5 helps increase job engagement in a large number of the respondents (62%). Meanwhile, just 28% of the respondents have the same opinion of policy 7.

The policies relating to career management (policy 8 and 9) increase job engagement in less than 40% of the respondents (i.e. 28% and 38%, respectively).

In terms of organizational communication, policy 10 has the most positive impact on job engagement of 53.9% of the respondents, whereas the published handbook (policy 11) has the same effect on only 16.8%.

The policies regarding performance management (policy 12 and 13) enhance job engagement in the large percentages of the respondents, 67.8% for performance appraisal based on performance outcomes, and 58.4% for effective regulations of performance evaluation.

75.3% of the respondents say their job engagement has been positively affected by the policy of recognition and reward based on performance outcomes (policy 14). The other policies in the group of recognition and reward (policy 15, 16, and 17) have influenced on job engagement of from 42% to 52% of the respondents.

Policies 2, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 11 were highlighted less frequently (being said to impact on job engagement by less than 40% of respondents). However, for these policies, more than half the sample were not aware of them or said they were “not in place” at the university.

11.6% as the highest percentage of the respondents recommended policy 8 (i.e. guidance on career plan) should be adopted as the highest priority because they perceived it as ‘Not in place’. The same recommendations are for policy 7 (i.e. providing teaching assistance) and 10 (i.e. developing platforms of two-way communication) at 8.9% of the respondents for each policy.

30.5% as the highest percentage of the respondents suggested policy 11 (i.e. publishing lecturer handbook) should be adopted soon.

In total, more than 50% of the respondents recommended the university to adopt the policies 7 (i.e. providing teaching assistance), 8 (i.e. providing guidance on career plan), and 11 (i.e. publishing lecture handbook). From 30% to 38% of the respondents supported the adoption of policies 2 (i.e. training on transferring research outcomes), 6 (i.e. paid sabbatical leave) and 9 (i.e. guidance for line managers on career management). From 20% to 26% suggested the adoption of policies 5 (i.e. reducing teaching), 10 (i.e. developing platforms of two-way communication), and 13 (i.e. effective regulations of performance evaluation).

Less than 20% of the respondents recommended the adoption of the remaining policies.

More than 20% of the respondents said 'Do not know' about the policies 2 and 9. Over 15% of the respondents have the same answer for the policies 8 and 11. More than 10% of the respondents did not know about the policies 6, 10, 13, 15, 16, and 17. Finally, the similar answer has been applied for the other policies by less than 10% of the respondents.

In short, **Finding 5** can be summarized as follows:

- Most of the HRD policies increase rather than reduce the level of the respondents' job engagement.

- The policies regarding training programmes and recognition and reward based on performance outcomes have positive impact on most of the respondents (more than 75%).

- Conversely, approximately 9% of the respondents feel less engaged in their job under the influence of the policies of recognition and reward based on seniority and management levels/positions.

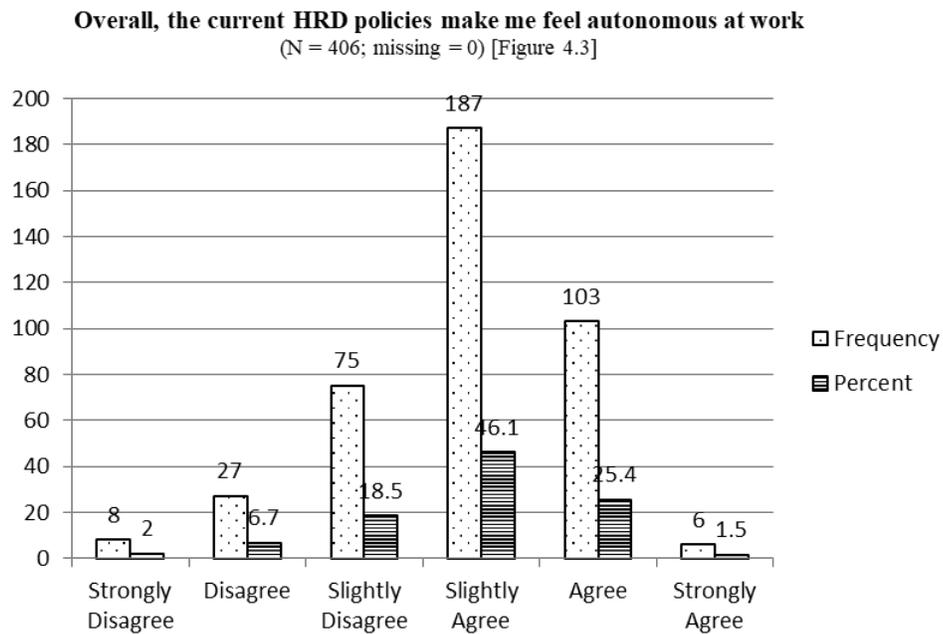
- Providing teaching assistance, guidance on career plan, and lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies are most frequently highlighted for adoption (by more than 50% of the respondents).

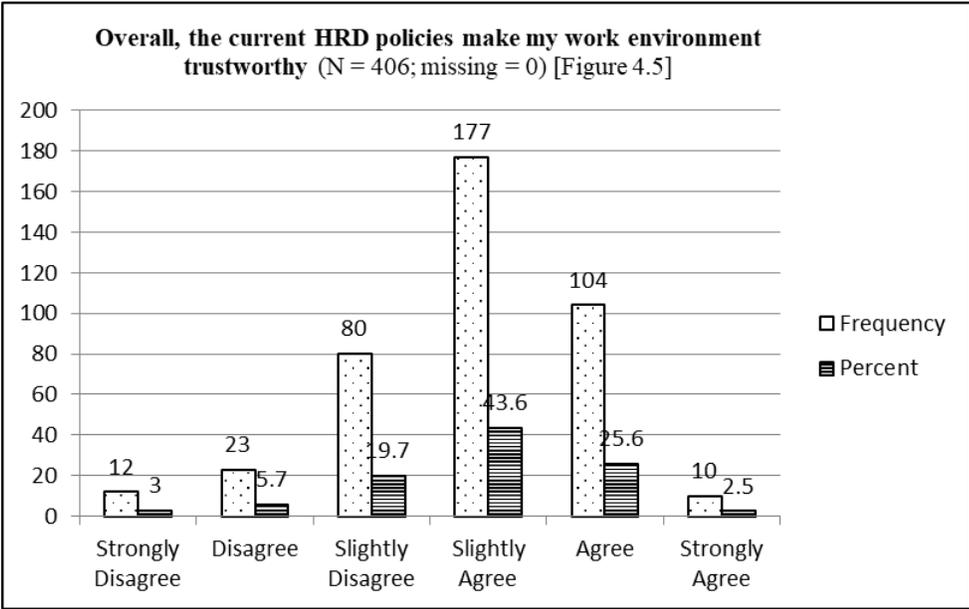
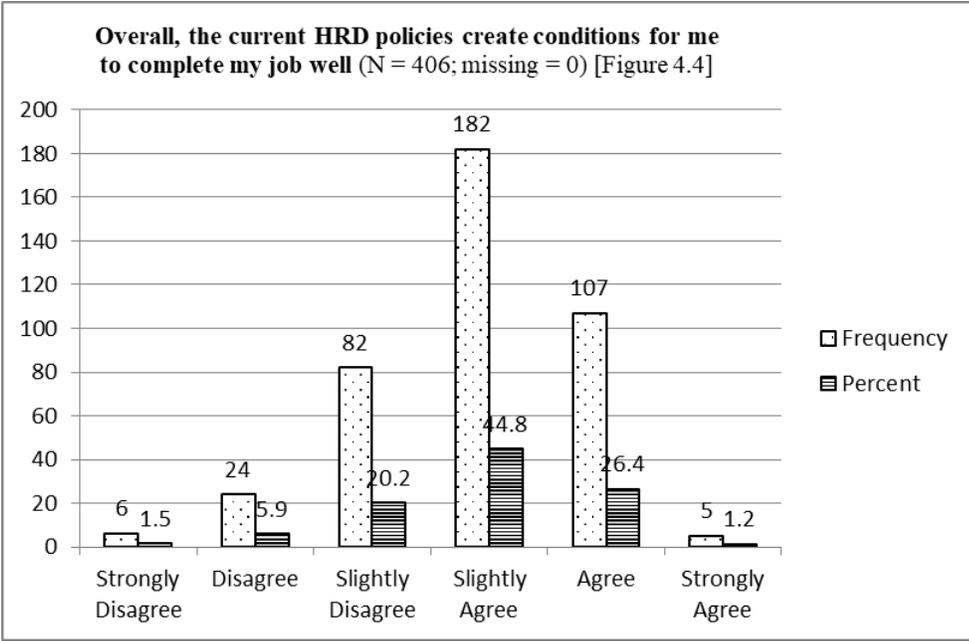
- The respondents seem to know least about the policies of training on how to transfer research outcomes into practice and providing guidance for line managers on how to support lecturers' career advancement.

4.1.5. Lecturers' self-evaluation of the influence of HRD policies on their psychological needs at work

** Frequency distribution*

Lecturers evaluated the impact of the university's HRD policies on their psychological needs at work in section D of the questionnaire. Frequency distribution was run to get the information on what percentages of lecturers agreed or disagree on the positive influence of the policies. The results are shown in Figures 4.3 – 4.6 as follows:





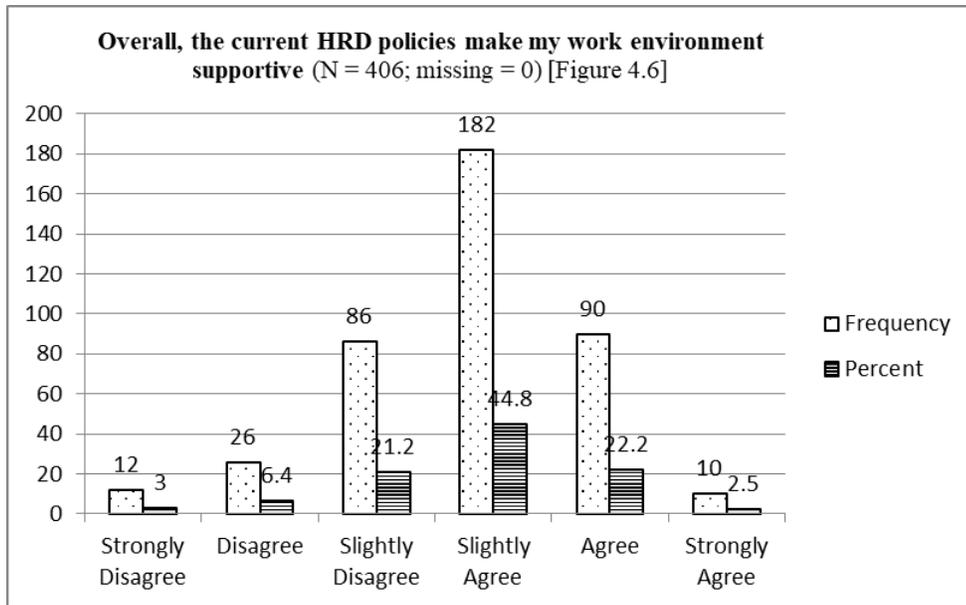


Figure 4.3 – 4.6. Frequencies of lecturers' self-evaluation of the influence of HRD policies on their psychological needs at work

Finding 6 can be summarized as follows:

6a. Around 70% of the respondents agreed (from slightly to strongly) on the fulfillment of the feeling of autonomy, competence, trustworthy and supportive work environment by the university HRD policies (73%, 72.4%, 71.7% and 69.5%, respectively).

6b. The considerable percentages at nearly 30% of the respondents are for the disagreement of the positive influence of the policies on the needs of lecturers. Specifically, around 20% of the respondents selected slight disagreement, and nearly 10% for disagreement and strong disagreement on the satisfaction of their needs for autonomy, competence, trustworthy and supportive work environment by the university HRD policies.

** Cross-tabulations*

More specifically, the relationship between lecturers' need satisfaction by the HRD policies and lecturers' demographical groups has been analyzed through the cross-tabulation statistics. The results are displayed in the tables from 4.24 to 4.27.

Chi-square test can be used if the cross-tabulations have no more than 20% of cells having expected count less than 5 (Muijs, 2011, p. 109). From the tables 4.24 - 4.27, the cross-tabulations of most of the demographical groups have not met this requirement. Thus, the Chi-square tests cannot be used for the relevant groups, except the cross-tabulations between the variable of management position and the satisfaction of the need for trustworthy as well as supportive work environment by the HRD policies. For some groups, Chi-square results are not significant.

Consequently, **finding 7** can be presented as follows:

7a. Because of inapplicable and/or non-significant Chi-square statistics, it can be concluded that there is no relationship between lecturers' evaluation of the positive impact of the university's HRD policies on their feeling of autonomy and the demographical groups.

7b. For the same reason (inapplicable and/or non-significant Chi-square tests), there is no difference in lecturers' evaluation of the positive influence of the university's HRD policies on their experience of competence between the demographical groups.

7c. Due to inapplicable and/or non-significant Chi-square tests, there is no relationship between lecturers' evaluation that the university's HRD policies make their work environment trustworthy and the demographical groups, except

two groups of management position. From the table 4.26, it can be seen a difference in the evaluation between lecturers who have been and not been at a management position (Chi-Square = 14.606, df = 5, p = .012). The difference is significant and modest because p = .012 (< .05) and Phi = .190 (> 0.1 and < 0.3) (Muijs, 2011, p. 111). Specifically, more managerial lecturers agreed on the positive effect of HRD policies to make a trustworthy work environment than non-managerial lecturers (82% and 67%, respectively).

7d. By the reason of inapplicable and/or non-significant Chi-square analyses, there is no relationship between lecturers' evaluation of the positive influence of the university's HRD policies on their need for supportive work environment and the demographical groups, except two groups of management position. The table 4.27 shows a difference in the evaluation between lecturers who have been and not been at a management position (Chi-Square = 13.698, df = 5, p = .018). The difference is significant and modest because p = .018 (< .05) and Phi = .184 (> 0.1 and < 0.3) (Muijs, 2011, p. 111). Specifically, more managerial lecturers agreed on the positive effect of HRD policies to make a supportive work environment than non-managerial lecturers (80% and 65%, respectively).

Independent variables			Dependent variable: “Overall, the current HRD policies make me feel autonomous at work”					Chi-square test	Effect size (1)	
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree			Strongly agree
Age (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below 30	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 .8	1 2.9	12 7.9	18 19.8	7 10.9	3 .6	Pearson Chi-Square = 25.063 ^a df = 15 p = .049 (a. 10 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .64.)	More than 20% of cells have expected count less than 5. Thus, Chi- square result cannot be used
	From 30 to under 40	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	4 4.2	18 14.2	39 39.5	101 98.6	49 54.3	3 3.2		
	From 40 to under 50	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 1.9	5 6.4	15 17.7	47 44.2	27 24.4	0 1.4		
	50 and over	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 1.0	3 3.5	9 9.8	21 24.4	20 13.4	0 .8		
Gender (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Female	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 5.0	18 17.0	56 47.3	116 117.9	56 64.9	5 3.8	Pearson Chi-Square = 8.972 ^a df = 5 p = .110 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.22.)	And/or
	Male	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 3.0	9 10.0	19 27.7	71 69.1	47 38.1	1 2.2		
Job level (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Lecturer assistant/ Lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	7 6.2	23 20.8	60 57.8	146 144.2	71 79.4	6 4.6	Pearson Chi-Square = 12.082 ^a df = 10 p = .280 (a. 8 cells (44.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .31.)	Chi-square is not significant
	Senior lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .4	0 1.4	6 3.9	10 9.7	5 5.3	0 .3		
	Superior lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 1.4	4 4.8	9 13.3	31 33.2	27 18.3	0 1.1		

Qualification (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below doctorate	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 2.9	13 9.9	25 27.5	75 68.6	26 37.8	5 2.2	Pearson Chi-Square = 16.553 ^a df = 5 p = .005 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.20.)
	Doctorate	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 5.1	14 17.1	50 47.5	112 118.4	77 65.2	1 3.8	
Job title (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Not applicable	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	7 6.5	22 21.8	64 60.6	155 151.1	74 83.2	6 4.8	Pearson Chi-Square = 8.505 ^a df = 5 p = .131 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.15.)
	Professor/ Associate professor	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 1.5	5 5.2	11 14.4	32 35.9	29 19.8	0 1.2	
Affiliated unit (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	University 1	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 1.9	6 6.4	18 17.7	45 44.2	27 24.4	0 1.4	Pearson Chi-Square = 47.243 ^a df = 35 p = .081 (a. 31 cells (64.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .06.)
	University 2	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 2.9	6 9.8	35 27.2	67 67.7	34 37.3	4 2.2	
	University 3	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 1.7	4 5.9	14 16.3	41 40.5	23 22.3	1 1.3	
	University 4	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 .4	3 1.5	0 4.1	11 10.1	7 5.6	0 .3	
	University 5	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .3	1 1.0	3 2.8	8 6.9	3 3.8	0 .2	
	University 6	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .4	5 1.2	3 3.3	6 8.3	3 4.6	1 .3	

	School 7	Count	1	1	1	8	5	0	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.3	1.1	3.0	7.4	4.1	.2	
	School 8	Count	0	1	1	1	1	0	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.1	.3	.7	1.8	1.0	.1	
Teaching discipline (Valid N=394; Missing cases = 12)	SS-Hu-Bu/Econ	Count	7	16	51	128	69	5	Pearson Chi-Square = 2.972 ^a df = 5 p = .704 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.80.)
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5.6	18.2	49.0	128.2	70.8	4.2	
	NS-Tech-Med	Count	1	10	19	55	32	1	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.4	7.8	21.0	54.8	30.2	1.8	
Management position (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	No	Count	7	24	55	130	60	6	Pearson Chi-Square = 15.299 ^a df = 5 p = .009 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.83.)
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5.6	18.8	52.1	129.9	71.5	4.2	
	Yes	Count	1	3	20	57	43	0	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.4	8.2	22.9	57.1	31.5	1.8	
Working years (Valid N= 399; Missing cases = 7)	7 years and below	Count	2	8	27	49	24	4	Pearson Chi-Square = 8.425 ^a df = 5 p = .134 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.71.)
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.0	7.7	20.9	52.6	29.1	1.7	
	Over 7 years	Count	5	19	46	135	78	2	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5.0	19.3	52.1	131.4	72.9	4.3	

Note: ⁽¹⁾: The effect size is displayed when the Chi-square is useable and significant.

⁽²⁾: Exp.Count: Expected count

Table 4.24. Cross-tabulation between the satisfaction of the need for autonomy by HRD policies and the demographical information

Independent variables		Dependent variable: "Overall, the current HRD policies create conditions for me to complete my job well"						Chi-square test	Effect size (¹)	
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree			
Age (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below 30	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 .6	2 2.5	11 8.7	20 19.3	7 11.3	2 .5	Pearson Chi-Square = 17.363 ^a df = 15 p = .298 (a. 10 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .53.)	More than 20% of cells have expected count less than 5.
	From 30 to under 40	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 3.2	16 12.7	48 43.2	91 95.9	53 56.4	3 2.6		
	From 40 to under 50	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 1.4	4 5.7	16 19.4	47 43.0	27 25.3	0 1.2		
	50 and over	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .8	2 3.1	7 10.7	24 23.8	20 14.0	0 .7		
Gender (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Female	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 3.8	17 15.1	59 51.7	111 114.8	62 67.5	4 3.2	Pearson Chi-Square = 5.998 ^a df = 5 p = .306 (a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.85.)	Thus, Chi-square cannot be used
	Male	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 2.2	7 8.9	23 30.3	71 67.2	45 39.5	1 1.8		
Job level (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Lecturer assistant/ Lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 4.6	22 18.5	70 63.2	134 140.3	77 82.5	5 3.9	Pearson Chi-Square = 14.133 ^a df = 10 p = .167 (a. 9 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.)	And/or Chi-square is not significant
	Senior lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .3	0 1.2	3 4.2	14 9.4	4 5.5	0 .3		
	Superior lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 1.1	2 4.3	9 14.5	34 32.3	26 19.0	0 .9		

Qualification (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below doctorate	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 2.2	12 8.8	31 30.1	65 66.8	33 39.3	5 1.8	Pearson Chi-Square = 12.609 ^a df = 5 p = .027 (a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.83.)
	Doctorate	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 3.8	12 15.2	51 51.9	117 115.2	74 67.7	0 3.2	
Job title (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Not applicable	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 4.8	21 19.4	70 66.2	146 147.0	81 86.4	5 4.0	Pearson Chi-Square = 4.840 ^a df = 5 p = .436 (a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .96.)
	Professor/ Associate professor	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 1.2	3 4.6	12 15.8	36 35.0	26 20.6	0 1.0	
Affiliated unit (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	University 1	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 1.4	6 5.7	18 19.4	45 43.0	27 25.3	0 1.2	Pearson Chi-Square = 32.365 ^a df = 35 p = .596 (a. 31 cells (64.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.)
	University 2	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 2.2	5 8.7	33 29.7	66 65.9	38 38.7	3 1.8	
	University 3	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 1.3	5 5.2	18 17.8	41 39.4	19 23.2	2 1.1	
	University 4	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 .3	2 1.3	3 4.4	10 9.9	6 5.8	0 .3	
	University 5	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .2	1 .9	1 3.0	10 6.7	3 4.0	0 .2	
	University 6	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .3	4 1.1	4 3.6	3 8.1	7 4.7	0 .2	
	School 7	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .2	1 .9	3 3.2	6 7.2	6 4.2	0 .2	

	School 8	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .1	0 .2	2 .8	1 1.8	1 1.1	0 .0	
Teaching discipline (Valid N=394; Missing cases = 12)	SS-Hu-Bu/Econ	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 4.2	14 16.1	56 53.9	123 124.0	73 74.3	5 3.5	Pearson Chi-Square = 3.926 ^a df = 5 p = .560 (a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.50.)
	NS-Tech-Med	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 1.8	9 6.9	21 23.1	54 53.0	33 31.7	0 1.5	
Management position (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	No	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	6 4.2	23 16.7	61 57.0	125 126.4	62 74.3	5 3.5	Pearson Chi-Square = 20.386 ^a df = 5 p = .001 (a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.53.)
	Yes	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 1.8	1 7.3	21 25.0	57 55.6	45 32.7	0 1.5	
Working years (Valid N= 399; Missing cases = 7)	7 years and below	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 1.4	6 6.9	26 22.6	56 51.4	21 30.3	3 1.4	Pearson Chi-Square = 8.174 ^a df = 5 p = .147 (a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.43.)
	Over 7 years	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 3.6	18 17.1	53 56.4	124 128.6	85 75.7	2 3.6	

Note: ⁽¹⁾: The effect size is displayed when the Chi-square is useable and significant.

⁽²⁾: Exp.Count: Expected count

Table 4.25. Cross-tabulation between the satisfaction of the need for competence by HRD policies and the demographical information

Independent variables			Dependent variable: “Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment trustworthy”						Chi-square test	Effect size (1)
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree		
Age (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below 30	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 1.3	3 2.4	7 8.5	17 18.7	13 11.0	1 1.1	Pearson Chi-Square = 9.926 ^a df = 15 p = .824 (a. 8 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.06.)	Chi-square is not significant
	From 30 to under 40	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	6 6.3	12 12.1	48 42.2	92 93.3	48 54.8	8 5.3		
	From 40 to under 50	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 2.8	6 5.4	17 18.9	45 41.9	25 24.6	0 2.4		
	50 and over	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	1 1.6	2 3.0	8 10.4	23 23.1	18 13.6	1 1.3		
Gender (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Female	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	8 7.6	14 14.5	55 50.4	109 111.6	61 65.6	9 6.3	Pearson Chi-Square = 5.374 ^a df = 5 p = .372 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.69.)	
	Male	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	4 4.4	9 8.5	25 29.6	68 65.4	43 38.4	1 3.7		
Job level (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Lecturer assistant/ Lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	10 9.3	19 17.7	66 61.7	131 136.5	78 80.2	9 7.7	Pearson Chi-Square = 10.360 ^a df = 10 p = .410 (a. 7 cells (38.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .52.)	
	Senior lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .6	1 1.2	4 4.1	14 9.2	2 5.4	0 .5		
	Superior	Count	2	3	10	32	24	1		

	lecturer	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.1	4.1	14.2	31.4	18.4	1.8		
Qualification (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below doctorate	Count	6	10	24	65	38	6	Pearson Chi-Square = 5.253 ^a df = 5 p = .386 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.67.)	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	4.4	8.4	29.4	65.0	38.2	3.7		
	Doctorate	Count	6	13	56	112	66	4		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	7.6	14.6	50.6	112.0	65.8	6.3		
Job title (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Not applicable	Count	10	18	68	143	80	9	Pearson Chi-Square = 2.607 ^a df = 5 p = .760 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.92.)	More than 20% of cells have expected count less than 5. Thus, Chi- square cannot be used
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	9.7	18.6	64.6	143.0	84.0	8.1		
	Professor/ Associate professor	Count	2	5	12	34	24	1		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.3	4.4	15.4	34.0	20.0	1.9		
Affiliated unit (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	University 1	Count	1	6	19	47	23	0	Pearson Chi-Square = 49.340 ^a df = 35 p = .055 (a. 32 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .10.)	And/or Chi-square is not significant
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.8	5.4	18.9	41.9	24.6	2.4		
	University 2	Count	3	5	36	63	34	6		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	4.3	8.3	29.0	64.1	37.7	3.6		
	University 3	Count	6	3	10	40	25	4		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.6	5.0	17.3	38.4	22.5	2.2		
	University 4	Count	2	2	2	10	6	0		
Exp.Count ⁽²⁾		.7	1.2	4.3	9.6	5.6	.5			
University 5	Count	0	1	4	6	4	0			
	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.4	.8	3.0	6.5	3.8	.4			
University 6	Count	0	5	4	4	5	0			
	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.5	1.0	3.5	7.8	4.6	.4			
School 7	Count	0	1	3	6	6	0			

		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.5	.9	3.2	7.0	4.1	.4		
	School 8	Count	0	0	2	1	1	0		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.1	.2	.8	1.7	1.0	.1		
Teaching discipline (Valid N= 394; Missing cases = 12)	SS-Hu-Bu/Econ	Count	9	13	55	116	73	10	Pearson Chi-Square = 5.582 ^a df = 5 p = .349 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.99.)	Chi-square is not significant
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	8.4	14.7	53.9	119.8	72.2	7.0		
	NS-Tech-Med	Count	3	8	22	55	30	0		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3.6	6.3	23.1	51.2	30.8	3.0		
Management position (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	No	Count	12	20	60	121	62	7	Pearson Chi-Square = 14.606 ^a df = 5 p = .012 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.05.)	Phi = .190 p = .012
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	8.3	16.0	55.6	122.9	72.2	6.9		
	Yes	Count	0	3	20	56	42	3		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3.7	7.0	24.4	54.1	31.8	3.1		
Working years (Valid N= 399; Missing cases = 7)	7 years and below	Count	3	8	23	48	29	3	Pearson Chi-Square = .664 ^a df = 5 p = .985 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.86.)	Chi-square is not significant
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3.1	6.6	22.0	50.3	29.1	2.9		
	Over 7 years	Count	8	15	54	128	73	7		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	7.9	16.4	55.0	125.7	72.9	7.1		

Note: ⁽¹⁾: The effect size is displayed when the Chi-square is useable and significant.

⁽²⁾: Exp.Count: Expected count

Table 4.26. Cross-tabulation between the satisfaction of the need for trustworthy work environment by HRD policies and the demographical information

Independent variables			Dependent variable: “Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment supportive”						Chi-square test	Effect size (1)
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree		
Age (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below 30	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2 1.3	4 2.8	11 9.1	18 19.3	7 9.5	1 1.1	Pearson Chi-Square = 20.538 ^a df = 15 p = .152 (a. 8 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.06.)	Chi-square is not significant
	From 30 to under 40	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 6.3	13 13.7	52 45.3	94 95.9	42 47.4	8 5.3		
	From 40 to under 50	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	5 2.8	6 6.1	18 20.3	45 43.0	21 21.3	1 2.4		
	50 and over	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 1.6	3 3.4	5 11.2	25 23.8	20 11.7	0 1.3		
Gender (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Female	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	9 7.6	16 16.4	59 54.2	109 114.8	53 56.7	10 6.3	Pearson Chi-Square = 9.210 ^a df = 5 p = .101 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.69.)	
	Male	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3 4.4	10 9.6	27 31.8	73 67.2	37 33.3	0 3.7		
Job level (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Lecturer assistant/ Lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	9 9.3	21 20.0	74 66.3	136 140.3	63 69.4	10 7.7	Pearson Chi-Square = 15.552 ^a df = 10 p = .113 (a. 8 cells (44.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .52.)	Chi-square is not significant
	Senior lecturer	Count Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	0 .6	2 1.3	3 4.4	13 9.4	3 4.7	0 .5		
	Superior	Count	3	3	9	33	24	0		

	lecturer	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.1	4.6	15.3	32.3	16.0	1.8		
Qualification (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Below doctorate	Count	6	11	30	65	31	6	Pearson Chi-Square = 3.998 ^a df = 5 p = .550 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.67.)	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	4.4	9.5	31.6	66.8	33.0	3.7		
	Doctorate	Count	6	15	56	117	59	4		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	7.6	16.5	54.4	115.2	57.0	6.3		
Job title (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	Not applicable	Count	9	21	74	148	66	10	Pearson Chi-Square = 7.425 ^a df = 5 p = .191 (a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.92.)	
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	9.7	21.0	69.5	147.0	72.7	8.1		
	Professor/ Associate professor	Count	3	5	12	34	24	0		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.3	5.0	16.5	35.0	17.3	1.9		
Affiliated unit (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	University 1	Count	1	8	20	46	21	0	Pearson Chi-Square = 64.387 ^a df = 35 p = .002 (a. 32 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .10.)	More than 20% of cells have expected count less than 5. Thus, Chi- square cannot be used
	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.8	6.1	20.3	43.0	21.3	2.4			
	University 2	Count	3	5	39	64	30	6		
	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	4.3	9.4	31.1	65.9	32.6	3.6			
	University 3	Count	6	3	15	41	19	4		
	Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	2.6	5.6	18.6	39.4	19.5	2.2			
	University 4	Count	1	3	2	10	6	0		
Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.7	1.4	4.7	9.9	4.9	.5				
University 5	Count	0	0	4	8	3	0			
Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.4	1.0	3.2	6.7	3.3	.4				
University 6	Count	0	7	1	5	5	0			
Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.5	1.2	3.8	8.1	4.0	.4				
School 7	Count	1	0	3	7	5	0			

		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.5	1.0	3.4	7.2	3.5	.4		
	School 8	Count	0	0	2	1	1	0		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	.1	.3	.8	1.8	.9	.1		
Teaching discipline (Valid N= 394; Missing cases = 12)	SS-Hu-Bu/Econ	Count	10	12	60	124	60	10	Pearson Chi-Square = 10.559 ^a df = 5 p = .061 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.99.)	Chi-square is not significant
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	8.4	16.8	57.4	124.0	62.3	7.0		
	NS-Tech-Med	Count	2	12	22	53	29	0		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3.6	7.2	24.6	53.0	26.7	3.0		
Management position (Valid N=406; Missing cases = 0)	No	Count	11	22	66	124	52	7	Pearson Chi-Square = 13.698 ^a df = 5 p = .018 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.05.)	Phi = .184 p = .018
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	8.3	18.1	59.7	126.4	62.5	6.9		
	Yes	Count	1	4	20	58	38	3		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3.7	7.9	26.3	55.6	27.5	3.1		
Working years (Valid N= 399; Missing cases = 7)	7 years and below	Count	2	11	25	51	21	4	Pearson Chi-Square = 4.867 ^a df = 5 p = .432 (a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.86.)	Chi-square is not significant
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	3.1	7.4	23.4	51.7	25.4	2.9		
	Over 7 years	Count	9	15	57	130	68	6		
		Exp.Count ⁽²⁾	7.9	18.6	58.6	129.3	63.6	7.1		

Note: ⁽¹⁾: The effect size is displayed when the Chi-square is useable and significant.

⁽²⁾: Exp.Count: Expected count

Table 4.27. Cross-tabulation between the satisfaction of the need for supportive work environment by HRD policies and the demographical information

4.1.6. Relationship between lecturers' need satisfaction by HRD policies and their job engagement

As presented in chapter 3, Spearman's rho was run to examine the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and lecturers' overall evaluation of how HRD policies satisfy their needs for autonomy, competence, and a trustworthy and supportive work environment (section A and section D in the questionnaire). The results of the tests are shown in the tables below.

Correlations				
			JESum	Overall, the current HRD policies make me feel autonomous at work.
Spearman's rho	JESum	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.306**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	406	406
	Overall, the current HRD policies make me feel autonomous at work.	Correlation Coefficient	.306**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	406	406

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

Correlations				
			JESum	Overall, the current HRD policies create conditions for me to complete my job well
Spearman's rho	JESum	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.275**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	406	406
	Overall, the current HRD policies create conditions for me to complete my job well	Correlation Coefficient	.275**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	406	406

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

Correlations				
			JESum	Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment trustworthy
Spearman's rho	JESum	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.273**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	406	406
	Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment trustworthy	Correlation Coefficient	.273**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	406	406

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

Correlations				
			JESum	Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment supportive
Spearman's rho	JESum	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.234**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	406	406
	Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment supportive	Correlation Coefficient	.234**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	406	406

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

Table 4.28 – 4.31. Correlation between lecturers' need satisfaction by HRD policies and their job engagement

Finding 8 can be described as follows:

There are significant positive relationships between lecturers' job engagement and lecturers' overall evaluation of the positive impact of the university's HRD policies on their need satisfaction for autonomy, competence, and a trustworthy and supportive work environment (Spearman's rho correlation coefficients = .306, = .275, = .273, = .234, respectively; and $p = .000 < .05$). The Spearman's rho correlation coefficients are in a range of .2 to .5, showing a modest to moderate strength of the relationships (Muijs, 2011, p. 126). In other

words, lecturers who have higher level of job engagement tend to say that the HRD policies more satisfy their need for autonomy, competence, and trustworthy and supportive work environment.

4.2. Qualitative findings

As described in chapter 3 (Methodology and methods), there were 43 interviewees out of 84 volunteers. 27 interviewees had a high level of engagement, 16 had a medium level, nobody had a low level. Nearly half of the interviewees come from Unit 2 (19 out of 43) where I have been working. The number of lecturers who hold a management position is a little higher than that of non-managers (24 and 19, respectively). Over half of the interviewees are lecturers (25 out of 43), the others are at the higher levels (senior and superior). The number of female interviewees almost equals that of male.

Criteria		Number of interviewees (Total interviewees/ total volunteers: 43/84)
Job engagement	High engagement	27 interviewees /45 volunteers
	Medium engagement	16/36
	Low engagement	0/3
Unit	Unit 1	6/7
	Unit 2	19/50
	Unit 3	7/12
	Unit 4	2/2
	Unit 5	1/3
	Unit 6	3/5
	Unit 7	4/4
	Unit 8	1/1
Management position	Manager	24/41
	Non manager	19/43
Job levels	Lecturers	25/57
	Senior lecturers	3/4
	Superior lecturers	15/23
Genders	Female	20/45
	Male	23/39

Table 4.32. Summary of the interviewees

Qualitative findings provide in-depth information with which to answer the research questions (Barnham, 2015). Thus, this section presents the results in three subsections based on the research questions, including 1. the reasons for lecturers' job (dis)engagement (for research question 1.1); 2. the relationship between the reasons and lecturers' satisfaction of BPNW by HRD policies (for research question 1.2); 3. lecturers' recommendation of how to make the connection more effective (for research question 2). To preserve anonymity, the interviewees have been identified by combining letter I (i.e. abbreviation for 'Interviewees') and a number based on their job engagement level (from the highest to the lowest), e.g. I1, I2, ... I43. The interviewee's unit and average of their job engagement level based on UWES (A-JE, out of 6) are provided beside the anonymous name in order to give the readers more useful information about the informant.

4.2.1. Reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement

Lecturers provided many different reasons for their (dis)engagement in their job. These can be grouped into three categories, namely reasons related to the job itself; to personal factors of lecturers; and to the organization.

**** Reasons related to the job itself***

There are four main reasons for lecturers' job engagement in the university, including *the meaningfulness of the job, interpersonal and social relations of the job, the job demands, and non-financial benefits of the job.*

Many of the interviewees claimed that *the meaningfulness of the job* is one of the most important factors making them engaged. Several interviewees said

they loved their job because it enabled them to “make the society better” (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94) or “contribute to the society” by training the next generation (I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). For some, e.g. I2 (Unit 1, A-JE: 5.88), inspiring young people to love a particular subject and become curious learners was the main driver while for others, it was important that students became ethical as well as productive workers. I36 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35) is typical of this latter perspective:

I love my job ... I feel I am doing a useful job, I can help many people develop themselves... For me, a lecturer not only delivers knowledge, but also inspires students to research, and helps students understand their broader work environment after graduation. Thereby, students can determine what is right or wrong, ethical or unethical to behave appropriately at work in the future... The latter task is very important. I set myself this task.

As such, transmitting knowledge and research outcomes, and educating proper behaviours at work make up the meaningfulness of lecturer job. Lecturers appreciate an opportunity to care for students and to contribute to society. This connects with the need for relatedness in SDT. The characteristic of meaningfulness naturally meets the need leading to lecturers’ job engagement.

With regard to *interpersonal and social relations*, the job offers a *good opportunity for lecturers to connect with and learn from many people at work*. They appreciate meeting experts in different fields, e.g. I10 (Unit 7, A-JE: 5.41); being cognitively challenged and learning from others, including their students, e.g. I36 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). For instance,

In this job, we can work with many people, know many different academic fields in a multi-disciplinary university and especially, in the trend of interdisciplinary research (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65).

When I organized academic events, e.g. conferences, I connected with Vietnamese and foreign academics and other organizations, wrote conference papers, cooperated with my colleagues. And we were very happy to receive feedback on the events... Or my students, after their graduation, still remember me, they visit me or sometimes we meet up on streets and chat. I am very happy to hear about their success (I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41).

The diversity of interpersonal and social relations of a lecturer's job naturally enhances their job engagement. This may be perceived as different from that at the organizational level (e.g. relations with colleagues, supervisors, managers) which is reported later as the reasons related to the specific organization. At the job level, the meanings of the relations as the interviewees said shows lecturers' need for being positively connected with people at work. When the need is satisfied, they feel engaged in their job. This is also a part of the need for relatedness in SDT.

The job demands for lecturers is another important factor affecting lecturers' job engagement. This factor can be seen at both levels of the job itself and the organizational context as summarized in chapter 2 – Literature review. At the job level, many lecturers emphasized the demands as the job characteristics such as regular innovation and update.

... New students come to the university annually. They are more and more knowledgeable. This demands lecturers regularly update their lectures, making the job interesting (I11, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.35).

Because students are more and more dynamic, lecturers have to continuously improve and renew their lectures.... Even, they have to work at home, out of official working hours... Being lazy makes them out-of-date (I26, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.7).

The lecturers in the two examples above feel challenged by learners who are different from lecturers' experience in the past. This is because "students now can access plenty of information on the internet" (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65), so lecturers may not want to be out-of-date when working with students.

Consequently, "lecturers are usually under high demand of enhancing their competence and even their ethic" (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). Importantly, lecturers relish the challenges of innovation and update. For example, they feel happy because "the job allows them to try new ideas" (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.7) or "the job asks them regularly to update ..., especially in the fields of [the name of the field], so they always have something new to discuss with students" (I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41).

Even, a few lecturers see innovation and update as their responsibility and need rather than a demanding characteristic of the job. Hence, if the need is not satisfied, they feel regret, as the two instances below:

After every lecture, I reflect about many things, I wish I gave the lecture in another way which is better than what I did. I always think

that if I investigate the topics more, my lectures will be better (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47).

I think lectures need to be mainly based on research. Only research helps lecturers continuously broaden and update the teaching contents. Even, sometimes I am afraid that I have not sufficiently updated my lectures to share with students (I20, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.88).

As can be seen, the positive challenge makes the job interesting for lecturers leading to their job engagement. In this case, meeting the challenging demands of the job becomes a lecturers' self-determined need – the principal point of SDT. In SDT, when a behaviour becomes self-determined, it means the need for autonomy is fulfilled (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In other words, lecturers choose autonomously to face the challenges and they enjoy the choice.

Non-financial benefits of the job are mentioned as a considerable reason for lecturers' engagement. Lecturers talked about two main benefits, including good social status and flexible working time.

The job has had good social status born of the tradition of respect for learning on the part of Vietnamese people. As said by I19 (Unit 3, A-JE: 4.94), because of the tradition, “students are always supported by their parents with financial and other resources so that they can complete their study in university”. This makes lecturers feel respected and confident when having the status leading to their engagement in the job (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). As can be seen, the feeling relates to the need for relatedness which is being cared for by other people at work. Although in this case, the term “people at work” seems to be broader

since it refers to students' parents and even the society, they are still tightly related to the job.

Flexible working time was emphasized by the interviewees as a strong advantage of the job. Outside of the time required by the university for teaching and meetings, lecturers can do what they like as said by I31 (cited on the previous page), such as going to libraries and doing fieldwork (I26, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71), doing parental work (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53), and especially doing second/third or more jobs. For instance, lecturers can teach or work in other universities and companies (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29), supervise students of other institutions (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94), and develop their own business (I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47). The extra jobs can help lecturers make considerable money that may be higher than their first job, and increase their reputation (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29). Thus, flexible working time in the university is advantageous to keep lecturers engaged in the job. Although this reason is very considerable, it seems not to be clearly related to any of the three needs of SDT. Perhaps, the reason *contributes to lecturers' feeling of autonomy* in deciding what types of work lecturers want to invest more of their resources at a certain time during their working life.

**** Reasons related to personal factors of lecturers***

There are three personal factors of lecturers making lecturers' person-job fit, including competence, lecturers' love of their work, and lecturers' sense of self-responsibility. Many lecturers said the fit between their *competence* and the requirements of lecturer job was one of the most important reasons that kept them highly engaged in the job. This is because "the longer I have been doing the job, the better I understand and do" (I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41) and "the more success I achieve" (I5, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.59). Additionally, experience makes lecturers feel

more confident and a better master of the job, thus, more engaged in the job (I18, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06; I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41). All of these are exactly about the need for competence in SDT.

Love of the job is another very strong factor that motivates lecturers to engage in the job. Working with students was compared to “taking dope” that can help lecturers “forget everything except how to teach them best” (I14, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.24), or “recover from the bad mood because of being shouted at by the boss” (I22, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

One interviewee mentioned becoming a salesman abroad for two months in 1991 because Vietnam was very poor. But he felt bored and missed his research and laboratories so much, he came back. In his words, “I accepted any contextual challenges, just because I loved research so much” (I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47). Additionally, another lecturer refused a job with “a very high salary compared with the salary from the university” since she “loves research and writing books” (I4, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65).

Certainly, it is not easy to analyze the reasons for lecturers’ loving their job and the link between the love and SDT’s needs. It might be because the three needs are simultaneously satisfied. In other words, they feel autonomous since they can try new ideas as I24 said (page 208); and/or they feel competent and interested to implement the tasks/responsibilities of the job (I11, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.35); and/or they feel cared for, and able to care about other people at work, even about the society (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35 and others cited before). Importantly, the integration contributes to lecturers’ experience of person-job fit keeping them highly engaged in the job.

Sense of self-responsibility is mentioned explicitly by only one lecturer. However, it seems to be a considerable and convincing reason for lecturers' job engagement. As said by I30:

I believe that lecturers' sense of self-responsibility is absolutely huge.

Because of the sense, they can motivate themselves to work even if their working conditions may not support them (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53).

Therefore, lecturers are willing to learn and work beyond what the university demands, e.g. self-learning about new fields from visiting experts (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29), and doing unpaid extra work such as applying new teaching methods/technologies that cost much more of their resources than traditional lecturing (I2, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.88; I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). As a result, the sense of self-responsibility leads lecturers to experience self-determination at work. This means they autonomously choose what they work on as long as it does not breach the university regulations. The sense as a personal characteristic of lecturers matches with the job demand of innovation and update, contributing to lecturers' feeling of person-job fit. Thus, they keep highly engaged in the job.

**** Reasons related to the organization***

Lecturers provided a great deal of information on organizational factors that affect their job engagement. These are job demands, organizational structure, quality of HR, interpersonal and social relations, organizational culture, internal process/procedures, and financial compensation.

Job demands at organizational level may be different from one organization to another. In the case under review, there are conflicting opinions on how high

the university's and unit's demands are for lecturers. On the one hand, some lecturers claimed the university/units gave them high job demands.

To integrate into global education, we regularly renew our training programmes.... My [affiliated] university regularly offers new subjects/courses for students... I am always under a high demand of developing new subjects (I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47).

Heavy teaching loads together with annual research publication are also a burden for lecturers (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41; I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). When lecturers do not have enough personal resources and organizational support to meet the demands, they cannot keep their job engagement at the right level (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4). Conversely, when lecturers are able to meet the demands, they enjoy the job and highly engage in it. For example, I39 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.18) shared:

The thing that I like most of the university is it requires lecturers to do research regularly. I have friends who are teaching in other universities but they are not asked to do research so they have not published anything for years. By contrast, I always have new things from my research outcomes to update my lectures. Even, when I have new research findings, I cannot sleep well at night, just waiting for the time to discuss the findings with my students.

On the other hand, some lecturers said that the job was not pressured, e.g. "the unit only asks about 10% of lecturers' effort (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29); "the teaching task is not stressful... The research task just requires us to write something simple, e.g. syntheses of the applications of new teaching methods or

academic topics, to present in our departmental seminars” (I31, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.47).

The job demands emphasized by I31 above was given by Unit 3. This is clearly different from the view of I23 (cited on page 206). Although I23 also comes from Unit 3, she sees the job demands for lecturers not only from the unit, but also from the country/society (e.g. lecturers’ missions of training human resource/talents) and from within herself (e.g. her self-determined need for creating training products that meet social needs). Therefore, within the same unit, the job of a lecturer can be seen as high challenge or no pressure for the incumbents. Interestingly, both of the different views of I31 and I23 lead to their job engagement. Importantly, both I31 and I23 shared that they are competent to satisfy the job demand within their context. This, perhaps, is the main reason for their job engagement. Again, these examples support the link between the satisfaction of the need for competence and the reason related to job demands regardless of whether the demands are seen as challenging or overwhelming.

Organization structure is claimed by interviewees to be inappropriate and ineffective. This especially emerges in Unit 1, 2, and 8. For example, most lecturers in faculties have to take the top-down roles from the unit’s organizational structure, e.g. accountant, under/post-graduate programmes administrator, in addition to their compulsory academic advising responsibility. “This makes lecturers unsatisfied at work since it turns out that they have to deal with most of the internal affairs and relevant administrative work instead of the functional departments of the unit” (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47).

Another problem raised in relation to organizational structure is that because lecturers are not specialized to do the functional tasks as full-time

administrative staff, they are not professional and do not fully concentrate on the tasks (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). This may negatively affect the quality/results of their work on the tasks (I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4), and on teaching and research. As said by I36 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35):

The role of assistants for academic affairs is too heavy, ... with coordinating and paperwork. Thus, it takes lecturers too much time. If the unit wants lecturers to publish one academic paper a year in a recognized journal, it has to release lecturers from such functional tasks. Otherwise, lecturers may have to cheat in order to meet the requirement of publication.

The impact of these heavy administrative tasks is especially negative for young lecturers who are usually assigned such functional roles because they are doing postgraduate study and not able to teach many courses yet (I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.18). Consequently, “young lecturers will gradually be removed from university values, and have no inspiration with respect to academic work” because the administrative work takes most of their time (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76).

The problems above increase lecturers’ disengagement in their job. These relate to the experience of ineffective working, showing a link to unfulfilled need for competence. In other words, lecturers feel that they are not able to work well in all of their roles. Additionally, the feeling of autonomy may be harmed because lecturers have to take the roles that they do not want and are not able to fully focus on, and even in a way they deem ineffective.

However, taking such functional roles may increase lecturers' engagement from the side of SDT's need for relatedness. One lecturer from Unit 2 suggests an interesting point as follows:

Such functional roles may make lecturers feel disengaged in their job but only for the short-term. For the long-term, taking the roles gives lecturers chances to connect, learn from and get invisible/important benefits/information from many more people, key people, managers in the unit/university. This will make them feel more important, powerful and effective within their working environment (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53).

As such, lecturers will have positive feelings when connecting with people, meaning a satisfaction of the need for relatedness. As a result, the factor of organizational structure may increase both lecturers' job engagement and disengagement, depending on the person concerned.

Similarly, there are different, even opposing, views on the impact of *the quality of HR* in the university and its units on lecturers' job engagement. On the one hand, lecturers feel happy when they are able to work with many talented people within the university (I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). On the other hand, some complained about the low or inadequate quality of the university HR. For instance, it was said that most of the university's staff in HR departments "have not studied HRM before" leading to poor quality work (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59), e.g. a lecturer had to "quarrel with them [the HR staff] about the details of the university regulations of recognition and rewards because they did not understand the regulations" (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). Indeed, this claim is supported by the information reported by the university in chapter 1: over 80% of HR managers

and officers in its affiliated departments hold degrees other than HRM and (education) management-related ones (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2018a).

Lecturers in the university are required to teach and research, but I know in this unit not all lecturers can do research and write academic papers, but they are still titled as lecturers (I4, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.65).

Even some lecturers just show their lecture slides and then read aloud the slides for student. We call them as ‘record play-and-copy lectures’. They do not give students valuable lectures (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94).

Additionally, some interviewees said there were lecturers whose teaching is so bad that their students do not understand the materials (I12, Unit 6, A-JE: 5.29; I42, Unit 2; A-JE: 3.65).

Clearly, low or inadequate HR quality affects the overall university quality. This demotivates those who work hard and meet the university standards. Consequently, this begs the question why the organization accepts inadequate HR leading to feelings of unfairness. Hence, for those who respect the values of fairness and justice, they will feel alienated from to their working environment because their respected values are not upheld. This seems to link to the need for relatedness in SDT.

Interpersonal and social relations at work are a considerable factor at the organizational level. Students, colleagues and supervisors/managers are the key associates of lecturers at work. *Students* are divided into two groups. One group includes those who have an active learning style, and/or academic curiosity,

and/or specific learning goals, and/or adequate respect for lecturers' efforts in teaching. These characteristics make students highly interested in lectures and academic activities, and they invest their selves in connecting with lecturers in order to learn. This leads to lecturers' being happier and more engaged in how to improve their work for students (I3, Unit 3, A-JE: 5.82; I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76; I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41). The positive impact of this group seems to explicitly link to the factor of relation with students at the job level reported before.

The other group of students includes those who have an inactive learning style, and/or academic dishonesty.

... Even when I gave students the chance to choose what they wanted to learn related to my course, they seemed not to know what they wanted. They did not engage in their learning (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47).

I feel angry ... when reading students' work in which there are so many paragraphs being copied from other authors without properly referencing (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71).

The reaction of students in the examples above increases lecturers' job disengagement. Lecturers may feel their work is not sufficiently valued by students who are very important for lecturers. In other words, lecturers' need for relatedness has not been satisfied.

Relations with colleagues and supervisors/managers also have both positive and negative impact on lecturers' job engagement.

My faculty is a bit special because staff are not afraid of leaders/managers, people are treated fairly. For example, the Head of Faculty Trade Union serves in many activities of the faculty, but they

have not published enough academic papers annually as required, so they cannot be rewarded. This is very fair... I think there are not many organizations like the faculty in Vietnam (I28, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.65).

As a faculty head, ... I believe that respect and trust are the only ways of treating lecturers that make them engaged in the job and the organization (I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29).

My faculty is not hierarchical. My managers/supervisors and colleagues are always willing to listen to others... anybody can raise their ideas and people are willing to support if the ideas are developed (I27, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71).

A good thing is this unit's leaders are always willing to discuss and negotiate about any problems negatively affecting its staff (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76).

As such, lecturers who feel supported, respected, trusted, and fairly treated by their colleagues and supervisors/managers highly engage in their job. In other words, their needs for competence and relatedness are fulfilled.

However, lecturers who are not "lucky to have such positive working environment" (I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47) may experience higher level of job disengagement.

I have not received any support from my managers (I2, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.88).

Those who are gifted or talented are not liked in our work environment (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94; I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47).

My colleagues are not tolerant enough to support me. When I do not work well, they will decry. When I work well, they do not like and recognize me (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47).

When lecturers do not feel supported or recognized as in the examples above, they feel a jealous environment rather than a collegial one in academic issues and non-academic ones. “There is no space to share knowledge; even if I am willing to share, not many people want to listen”, thus, “there is no feeling of academic values and academic climate” (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76). “Many people conceal knowledge and experience as their secret tools” (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94) or “their own property” (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47). This results in unsatisfied feeling of relatedness, leading to a decrease in lecturers’ job engagement.

Organizational culture is a factor that strongly relates to interpersonal relations. This is because organizational culture is formed during the process that people are grouped and interact with other group members (Schein, 2004). Specifically, the ways people interact with others creates and reflects the shared values, belief, and assumptions among their group (Schein, 2004). According to the interviewees, the most prominent values/belief/assumptions within the university include family spirit, favouritism, unfairness, and work dishonesty. These, in turn, affect the organizational procedures and internal processes that happen through interactions among organizational members (Treviño et.al. 1998, cited in Mayer, 2014).

Family spirit is mentioned both explicitly and implicitly by many the lecturers.

There are many family generations in the unit like grandparents, parents, uncles, aunts, etc. (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29).

The situation described by I38 above is popular in the university. Many lecturers want and support their children and relatives to become lecturers like them (I43, Unit 1, A-JE: 3.29; I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47). Thus, people can bring or apply the family relationships/values to the university. This may create “a happy environment in workplace but not be effective for getting the key tasks done” (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71).

As a result, although family spirit helps lecturers feel “at home” in the university sites (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76; I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47), thus, enhancing lecturers’ engagement in the social environment at workplace (i.e. need for relatedness), it may negatively affect their work effectiveness (i.e. need for competence).

The family spirit is good to make lecturers feel more connected with others in the work environment. However, considering work relations as family ones may reduce the effectiveness of working.... since it can lead to unfairness, e.g. allocating work ... and giving important information based on personal relationships.... This takes a lot of time, makes me very stressed and demotivated (I40, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.06).

Combining with the tradition of respecting the teacher’s job, supervisors have been considered as parents for their students/trainees.

Professor lecturers supervise PhD-candidate lecturers, doctor lecturers supervise master-candidate lecturers. So, there are teachers

of teachers in a faculty. Supervisors as parents give instructions, directions, strategies in academic career development for their students/trainees to follow. Although the students/trainees are also lecturers, in many cases they cannot or do not dare to negotiate on the directions. They cannot go out of the frame (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29).

Supporting the opinion above, I21 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76) said:

I was very lucky. I was not supervised by any senior colleagues in my faculty. Thus, I have been autonomous to select my development path. Meanwhile, discussing with my young/junior colleagues, they feel disengaged in their job because they cannot make agreement with their supervisors.

Consequently, although supervision might help young/junior lecturers to save their time when seeking for their strategic objectives and paths (I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41; I27, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71), family hierarchy results in supervisors' paternalistic style of leadership. With this style, supervisors, or even more broadly, senior staff, or in many cases just older staff, see themselves as parents of junior/young lecturers. Thus, they think they have the right to make or intervene in decisions of the junior/young colleagues even if the junior/young ones are the current managers of the department.

Although I am the Dean of the faculty, it seems to be impossible for me to change something if the senior lecturers in the faculty are resistant. Since, they can strongly affect the other junior/young lecturers to follow their resistance. I feel dampened and hopeless (I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35).

In short, the paternalistic style restricts the junior/young lecturers' need for autonomy diminishing their engagement in the job.

Family spirit is also one of the reasons for *favouritism* emerging in the organization. With such family style and behaviours, "it is impossible for 'a child lecturer' to evaluate their 'parent/relative lecturers' as low performers" (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29) or vice versa. Understandably, the sub families in the organization have their own benefits and want to protect the family group. Therefore, decisions made for the organizational work may be affected by such family objectives.

However, favouritism is broader than family spirit. Although many people do not come from the same family, they make decisions on work based on how closely they relate to others. In such cases, close colleagues, especially those from the same "faction", purposively bring unrelated criteria to bear on their work decision, leading to inadequate decisions and demotivation of those who are outside the faction (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47). For example, decisions relating to recruitment, research grant, even master/PhD viva approval, job title award, and performance appraisal have been affected by the close relationships between the applicants/candidates and the panel members (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47; I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47; I40, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.06; I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65).

Clearly, such inadequate decisions based on favouritism facilitate an unfair climate in the university. This negatively affects lecturers' feeling of connecting with others and mastering the work environment (i.e. parts of the need for relatedness and competence).

Furthermore, *unfairness* happens even without favouritism.

Those who work well are assigned more work, whereas those who are poor performers are assigned fewer tasks. Finally, poor performers receive rewards just the same as everybody does. How disappointed and unfair the good performers feel! (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65).

The practice described by I42 above was also mentioned by two other lecturers from Unit 2. One is based on a manager's perspective. The other is based on the impact of a cultural tradition.

I know why managers want to assign tasks, especially important missions, to good performers, just because they want the tasks to be done well and do not want their whole department to fail or to solve problems of failures (I14, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.24).

We seriously evaluate lecturers' performance so we know who works well and who does not. However, there are difficulties in Vietnamese university context because we cannot make all criteria clear, specific and measurable in order to make correctly final decisions of how well they work. So finally, we want to encourage everybody by the evaluation as 'doing the job well', with the thought that we do not lose anything of our own when we give them the positive decisions. ... I think this is impacted by the Vietnamese traditions of emotionalism, too much respect of personal relationships and the view that 'Do not give others the things you do not want to receive back' (I39, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.18).

I39 emphasized that his experience and explanation above are common in other Vietnamese organizations. Three other interviewees (I34 (Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41), I29 (Unit 1, A-JE: 4.64), and I42, (Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65)) confirmed that the job engagement of good lecturers was reduced because of the way emotionalism and personal relationship respect means giving every member of staff a good appraisal annually, irrespective of how well they worked.

Work dishonesty is another problem emerging in the university practice. It includes unethical behaviours in academic and non-academic areas. Students' and lecturers' plagiarism is serious in the university as well as, more generally, in Vietnamese HE. Ethical lecturers feel "angry" with students' plagiarism (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71 as cited before (page 218) or downhearted when they have to pretend that they have not found their colleagues' plagiarism (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76). Even, I21 claimed:

There is no transparent mechanism to talk about academic dishonesty in the university.

Additionally, to meet the university requirements of academic reports/publication every year, some lecturers exchange paper authorship by paying someone to write papers for them or doing the writer(s)' teaching tasks (I31, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.47). Some lecturers bribe journal editors to publish their papers (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I1, Unit 7, (A-JE: 5.94). The interviewees claimed two main reasons for the practice. One was heavy teaching and administrative work such that lecturers do not have sufficient time to produce good-quality research (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). The other is because of the poor research skills of a number of lecturers (I4, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65; I39, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.18).

Importantly, the university broadly accepts the publications of the staff without much caring how they have been produced (I22, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). Even lecturers with self-plagiarized papers can be awarded the Associate Professor title (I40, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.06) because of the panel chair's support, or promoted to higher positions in the university (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76). This certainly negatively affects the job engagement of lecturers who expect academic integrity and fairness in the university.

The biggest disappointment is the existence of academic dishonesty in this environment. Because of this, I cannot contribute much more to the university. I am good but just good for myself. ... I cannot share my ideas since I have to protect my ideas from others who want to take the credit (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76).

All of the above values/belief/assumptions suggest a lack of seriousness on the part of the university and inadequate respect for the positive values. These may discourage good lecturers from completing their work to the standards stated by the university, e.g. giving the deserved mark or evaluation to theses/research projects or colleagues' performance (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47). More importantly, lecturers may also feel powerless to improve negative practices and promote positive values. As said by I27 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71), "the unit is like a sluggish tank in which problems have existed for so long, up to ten years, that we cannot change them".

One more factor at organizational level is *the university's operations*. Lecturers complained about some of the university *cumbersome administrative procedures*. For instance, a Dean of Department complained about "too much paperwork at the end of the academic year". They had 11 different reports to

write and were particularly aggrieved that it took at least a month of meetings to do performance appraisal and to decide which staff should receive which awards (I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.18). Similarly, at the end of the year, lecturers have to write at least one annual report a week for all of the roles they hold (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71). Additionally, I14 (Unit 2, A-JE: 5,24) complained about having to submit her academic certificates twice, saying “I do not understand why they need to check the documents twice. This procedure is cumbersome and stressful for PhD students”.

Having too many administrative tasks “kills the motivation of those who really want to focus on their main tasks” (I11, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.35). Thus, this does not satisfy lecturers’ needs for getting sufficient resources and organizational support to do their key tasks well, which belong to the need for competence and relatedness. This means lecturers’ job engagement is not facilitated, leading to *possible lower levels of the engagement at certain points in time*. However, this practice seems to be more serious in Unit 1 and 2. Meanwhile, the lecturer from Unit 5 reported that the end year meeting for performance appraisal and elections for rewards in his department “takes very little time” because “KPIs [Key performance indicators] and evidence of what lecturers have done in the year are very clear, correct, and ready to be checked by lecturers before the meeting” (I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47). Thus, the lecturer does not feel stressed by the effective procedures.

A lack of cooperation and integration between departments/sub-systems within one unit, and between the university and its units may contribute to the cumbersome procedures.

The university's HR record system is very good, compulsorily updated every year by lecturers but it is not used by this unit. Thus, every year, lecturers have to report/update two almost similar HR record systems for the university and the unit. This wastes time for lecturers and the unit administrators (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71).

Lecturers have to remember how many hours they have taught in the year to report to the HR department of the unit. Meanwhile, the unit's department of Academic Affairs controls lecturers' teaching schedules and hours. Why do not the two departments cooperate, share a database to produce the correct report instead of asking lecturers to remember themselves the number of hours? (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35).

Interestingly, in Unit 5, such practice seems not to happen because ...

... all of the unit's departments cooperate well to produce the required reports. Lecturers can check them before meetings if they want. So, this saves much time of the meetings (I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47).

As can be seen, different units have applied different procedures and thereby made the lecturer's job more or less efficient. This is one reason lecturers in some units feel more satisfied and engaged than their counterparts in other units.

Similarly, *transparent and effective information and instructions* can help lecturers feel engaged or not. For instance, not having clear financial instructions made lecturers unable to get relevant people's signature on their projects' bills (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47); or resubmit grant applications and terminating

documents many times (I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41). Even, blocked or delayed information/instructions about scholarships, rewards, awards, training courses restrict lecturers' opportunities to submit their application on time (I40, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.06).

However, there is one lecturer who is satisfied with her unit's instruction.

When I prepare all required documents and receipts for publishing my books, my applications to the department of academic affairs are approved straightaway... I am satisfied with that (I4, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65).

As such, how transparent and effective instructions are depends on the work quality of the relevant departments. The more lecturers have to deal with the lower-quality departments, the more stressful and disengaged they feel. This is again because their needs for being supported and mastering the working environment are not satisfied.

The last and very important factor affecting lecturers' job engagement is *organization's financial compensation* (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41; I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47; I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4; I29, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.64). Because of the constraint of the government's financial regulations, the university and units cannot change lecturers' main salary [often called: salary 1] and other relevant payments. Some lecturers recognized that the university and units have tried hard to increase other sources of lecturers' income, e.g. looking for more projects for lecturers, leading to reasonable incomes (I31, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.47; I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65). However, other lecturers claimed that securing a living wage for lecturers and their families in Vietnam is still a big challenge meaning many

lecturers do a second, third or more job (I18, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06; I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29). This leads to a debate of the reason for choosing/engaging in this job. On the one hand, I4, (Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65) claimed “those who only think about money cannot do this job”. This suggests that love of the job, the satisfaction of good interpersonal and social relations in the organization, and the like are huge enough to motivate lecturers to overcome the financial challenge (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.18; I22, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

On the other hand, I41 (Unit 8, A-JE: 4) claimed that “We cannot call on lecturers to engage in the job just because of their love of the job. They have to take many other responsibilities for their family’s development”.

After several working years, I realize that salary or financial compensation is very important for lecturers to engage in the job. This is not like in the first two years of working when I was younger, I had not married, did not have parental responsibilities, etc. The financial compensation of the unit needs to be higher to maintain lecturers’ job engagement (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41).

As can be seen, lecturers who feel satisfied with the income from the university tend to be highly engaged, and vice versa. Indeed, this is supported by another claim that when their family income is low, they have to invest their selves in extra jobs and just keep the first job at the required level (I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4; I29, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.52; I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29; I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41). In contrast, when the income is sufficient, lecturers are able to concentrate on their first job, to innovate and keep up-to-date, develop themselves in the job and build their reputation in their academic community, leading to higher engagement in the job (I5, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.59; I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47).

Clearly, this factor links to the flexible working time of the job discussed earlier (page 210). Since, this allows lecturers to supplement their income. In truth, the three needs of SDT are not directly about financial motivations. Thus, from SDT perspective, both the factors of the organization's financial compensation and flexible working time seem to be perceived as the degree to which lecturers feel organizational support for them to increase their financial benefits. This means a connection with the need for relatedness.

In summary, the first finding from the qualitative data (finding 9) is about the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and how the reasons link to BPNW.

Finding 9 can be summarized in Table 4.33 below.

Factors (Reasons)	Link to BPNW	Job (dis)engagement
Reasons related to the job:		
Meaningfulness of lecturer job	Links to satisfaction of the need for relatedness, e.g. caring/facilitating/supporting others' development.	Enhancing job engagement
Interpersonal and social relations (at job level)	Links to satisfaction of the need for relatedness, e.g. good opportunity for lecturers to connect with and learn from many people at work.	Enhancing job engagement
Job demands	Links to satisfaction of - the need for competence, i.e. sufficient abilities to meet the job demands of the university; - the need for autonomy, i.e. lecturers choose autonomously to face with the high demand and they enjoy the choice.	Enhancing job engagement
Good social status (non-financial benefits of	Links to satisfaction of the need for relatedness, e.g. feeling confident and	Enhancing job engagement

lecturer job)	respected by other people.	
Flexible working time (non-financial benefits of lecturer job)	Links to satisfaction of the need for autonomy, e.g. deciding what types of work lecturers want to invest more of their resources in at a certain time during their working life.	Keeping lecturers from acceptable to high level of job engagement.
Reasons related to personal factors of lecturers:		
Competence	Links to satisfaction of the need for competence, i.e. feeling of person-job fit between lecturers' competence and the requirements of lecturer job	Enhancing job engagement
Love of the job	Links to simultaneous satisfaction of the three needs	Enhancing job engagement
Sense of self-responsibility	Link to satisfaction of the need for autonomy	Enhancing job engagement
Reasons related to the organization:		
Job demands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Links to satisfaction of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the need for competence, i.e. sufficient abilities to meet the job demands of the university; - the need for relatedness, i.e. sufficient organizational support to face with the high demand and they enjoy the choice. * Links to feelings of incompetence and a lack of relatedness when demands become overwhelming. 	Enhancing job engagement with the satisfaction and vice versa.
Taking administrative roles (Inappropriate and ineffective organizational structure)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Links to unfulfillment of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the need for competence, e.g. feeling of being unable to work well; - the need for autonomy, e.g. feeling of being forced to take organizational roles that they do not want and cannot fully focus on. * Links to satisfaction of the need for relatedness in long term, e.g. positive 	Increasing job disengagement for short-term; Enhancing job engagement for long term.

	feeling of being more important, powerful and effective within their working environment.	
Quality of HR	<p>* Links to satisfaction of the need for competence and relatedness if the HR quality is good.</p> <p>* Links to unfulfillment of the need for competence and relatedness if the HR quality is poor/inadequate; e.g. feeling of being not able to cooperate well with poor performers, feeling of unfairness when the inadequate HR is accepted.</p>	Enhancing job engagement with the good HR quality and vice versa.
Interpersonal and social relations (at the organizational level)	<p>* Links to satisfaction of the need for competence and relatedness if:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students are engaged in their learning and have academic integrity; - Colleagues and supervisors/managers respect, trust, support, and fairly treat. <p>* Link to the unfulfillment of the need for competence and relatedness in the opposite cases.</p>	Enhancing job engagement with the satisfaction; Decreasing job engagement with the unfulfillment.
Family spirit (Organizational culture)	<p>* Links to satisfaction of the need for relatedness, e.g. feeling as at home and cared by others.</p> <p>* Link to the unfulfillment of</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the need for competence, e.g. feeling of being not able to work effectively - the need for autonomy, e.g. feeling of less autonomy in deciding personal development paths 	Enhancing job engagement with the satisfaction; Decreasing job engagement with the unfulfillment.
Favouritism (Organizational culture)	Link to unfulfillment of	Increasing job disengagement
Unfairness (Organizational culture)	- the need for relatedness, e.g. feeling that people at work do not care enough about positive values;	
Work dishonesty (Organizational culture)	- the need for competence, e.g. feeling of being not able to work effectively	

	and not being able to improve the work environment.	
Administrative procedures (Procedures/Internal processes)	* Link to satisfaction of the need for competence and relatedness if the procedures/internal processes facilitate lecturers' ability to work well.	Enhancing job engagement with the satisfaction; Decreasing job engagement with the unfulfillment.
Cooperation and integration between departments/sub-systems within the university (Procedures/Internal processes)	* Link to the unfulfillment of the need for competence and relatedness in the opposite case, e.g. cumbersome procedures.	
Transparent and effective information and instructions (Procedures/Internal processes)		
Financial compensation	* Links to satisfaction of relatedness, e.g. feeling of organizational support in the restricted condition of the government's financial regulations, and vice versa.	Enhancing lecturers' job engagement with the satisfaction, and vice versa.

Table 4.33. Summary of reasons for lecturers' job engagement

4.2.2. Relationship between HRD policies and job engagement through BPNW

As analyzed in chapter 3, the relationship was examined through how lecturers' BPNW satisfaction by the university's HRD policies links to the reasons for lecturers' job engagement. The policies reported here are the ones on which lecturers provided rich information. The data show that one HRD policy can link to different reasons for lecturers' job engagement. This makes sense because all HRD policies relate to each other and contribute to the satisfaction of

lecturers' BPNW from different aspects depending on the purposes of the policies.

All of the HRD policies aim to help lecturers develop, to create a work environment which nurtures the values of supportiveness, fairness, respect, effectiveness and integrity, thereby developing the university. Therefore, *in principle, the contents of the policies should strongly link to positive organizational culture which can enhance the job engagement of those who work seriously*. As claimed by I34 (Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41):

We have most of the HRD policies that are necessary and most of their contents are good. The important thing is whether we can put the policies into practice as expected in the contents.

However, there are some HRD policies whose contents have not fulfilled lecturers' BPNW. Furthermore, the data shows that there are more problems raised by the implementation of HRD policies than the policy contents themselves. This is the reason why HRD policies can have both positive and negative effects on lecturers' job engagement.

The policies of offering training programmes focus on developing the university's HR quality. Thus, it contributes to the satisfaction of lecturers' need for being able to work well, to effectively cooperate with and get support from colleagues, i.e. the need for competence and relatedness. As analyzed in the previous section, if the university's HR quality is improved, lecturers' job engagement is enhanced. Most of lecturers agree that the university's training programmes have helped lecturers acquire the required competence for the job, e.g. teaching and research methods, methods of transferring research outcomes

into practice, and on-the-job training, e.g. I11 (Unit 2, A-JE: 5.35), I20 (Unit 7, A-JE: 4.88), and I23 (Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

However, two lecturers claimed that although it is vital to have programmes supporting research transfer, the university does not have such programmes (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71; I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59). Additionally, another lecturer asserted that training courses of research transfer “are suitable for the applied fields of science and technology”, may be unsuitable for “theoretical and social sciences and humanities” (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). Indeed, at least sixteen products which have been transferred into practice since 2009 belong to science, technology and medical study (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2019). The university established a Centre for Knowledge Transfer in 2011 (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2011). The centre’s activities/programmes have focused on supporting transfer in the field of science and technology rather than other fields. This may be the reason why lecturers, e.g. I24 and I6 above, do not know about the Centre and its training programmes. The practice may not meet the need of lecturers in different fields for being trained in knowledge transfer. This leads to lecturers’ regretting that their research does not have more impact, e.g. lecturers’ feeling of shame when they do not know how to transfer their research outcomes into the contents of training courses for society (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29).

The feeling of regret as above may not reduce lecturers’ satisfaction resulting from competence and their engagement in their research. However, if the training transferability is developed more effectively, lecturers’ job engagement surely increases. This will be reported in more detail in the section dealing with ways HRD policies can improve lecturers’ competence.

The training programmes do not always meet the lecturers' expectations. For instance, on the one hand, on-the-job training by supervisors is very effective. This is because supervisors support the junior lecturers to choose a suitable academic specialization for the lecturers. This also helps the organization avoid an imbalance between specializations in a faculty (I27, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71). Done well, this makes the junior lecturers feel supported to improve their competence and develop their career. On the other hand, in many cases, the supervisors lack competence, enthusiasm and/or commitment, which can lead to junior lecturers feeling abandoned (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76), or confused about which academic direction they should pursue (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47). As I9 shared:

I have been working here for nearly ten years. However, just very recently I came to know what I need to do to improve my career path. In my observation, only junior lecturers who are very lucky to have a good and enthusiastic supervisor can determine clearly their career direction in their early stage at work.

Thus, this practice links to the reasons of *interpersonal and social relations at work* as well as *competence improvement* for lecturers' job engagement.

Another problem of some training courses is unsuitable topics, delivery and following-up methods. For instance, there are training courses/workshops/seminars that are not based on lecturers' working needs.

Sometimes, because of personal relationship, faculty managers invite their friends [also working in HE] to run a workshop on a topic they want, regardless of whether it is useful for the lecturers in the faculty.

The lecturers have to attend to ensure the required times of attendance (I22, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

Some training courses are too short, insufficiently in-depth for lecturers to acquire useful knowledge or skills... Also, how or whether lecturers apply what they have learnt is not followed up to manage and support... Such training is for no purpose (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35)

Consequently, only courses/programmes which match lecturers' working needs and are designed and delivered properly can satisfy lecturers' feeling of being competent and supported by the organization, thus enhancing their job engagement. Conversely, inadequate implementation makes training programmes ineffective in supporting lecturers' competence advancement, and diminishes lecturers' feeling of organizational support through training, e.g. "training for no purpose" above. These lead to their disengagement in learning – a key responsibility of lecturers in the university.

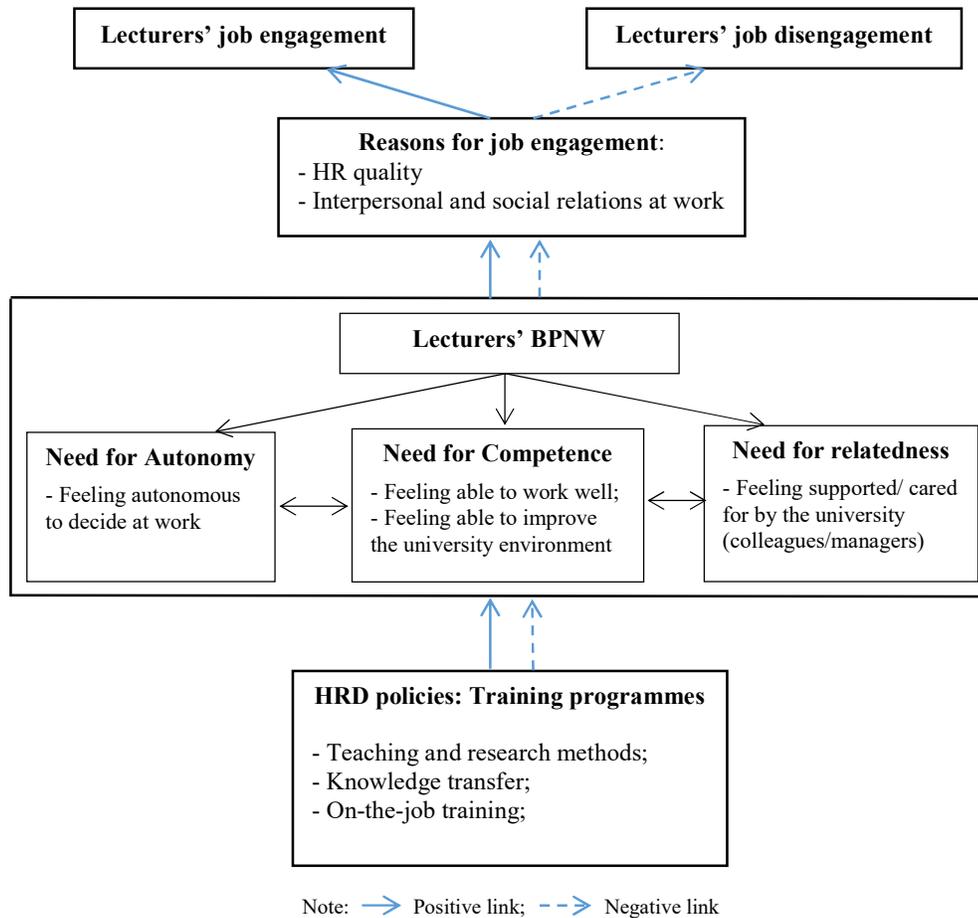


Figure 4.7. Relationship between BPNW satisfaction by policies of training programmes and lecturers' job engagement

Other HRD policies designed to improve lecturers' competence can contribute considerably to lecturers' engagement in learning and research.

Lecturers can feel the university is supportive when they experience the policy of *connecting research/researchers with business corporations and organizations using scientific services/outcomes*. This is because the connection helps lecturers a) develop themselves comprehensively, e.g. their competence to produce practical products based on their research, thereby enhancing their reputation in practice and the academy; b) improve the quality of their lectures; c) successfully apply for more research grants; and d) increase their incomes (I6,

Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76; I5, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.59). Therefore, through satisfying the need for lecturers' relatedness, this policy positively links to the different reasons for lecturers' job engagement, including facilitating lecturers to experience the meaningfulness of the job, improving their personal competence; and mitigating the low financial compensation.

Lecturers are very satisfied with the university and units' *financial support*, e.g. full grant for their postgraduate tuition fee, examination fees for training certificates; part grant for their foreign language study in Viet Nam, participation in academic conferences and the like (I26, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71; I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

The university has a good strategy of supporting lecturers to improve their research competence, e.g. supporting excellent research groups with huge grants, high support in finance and administration to publish globally and domestically lecturers' high-quality work, ... Sabbatical leave is also allowed when lecturers receive external grants, for me I have about one to two months per year for the leave (I5, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.59).

These not only improve lecturers' competence but also advance their careers when they acquire the required and additional degrees and certificates. Thus, the financial incentives increase lecturers' willingness to take such programmes.

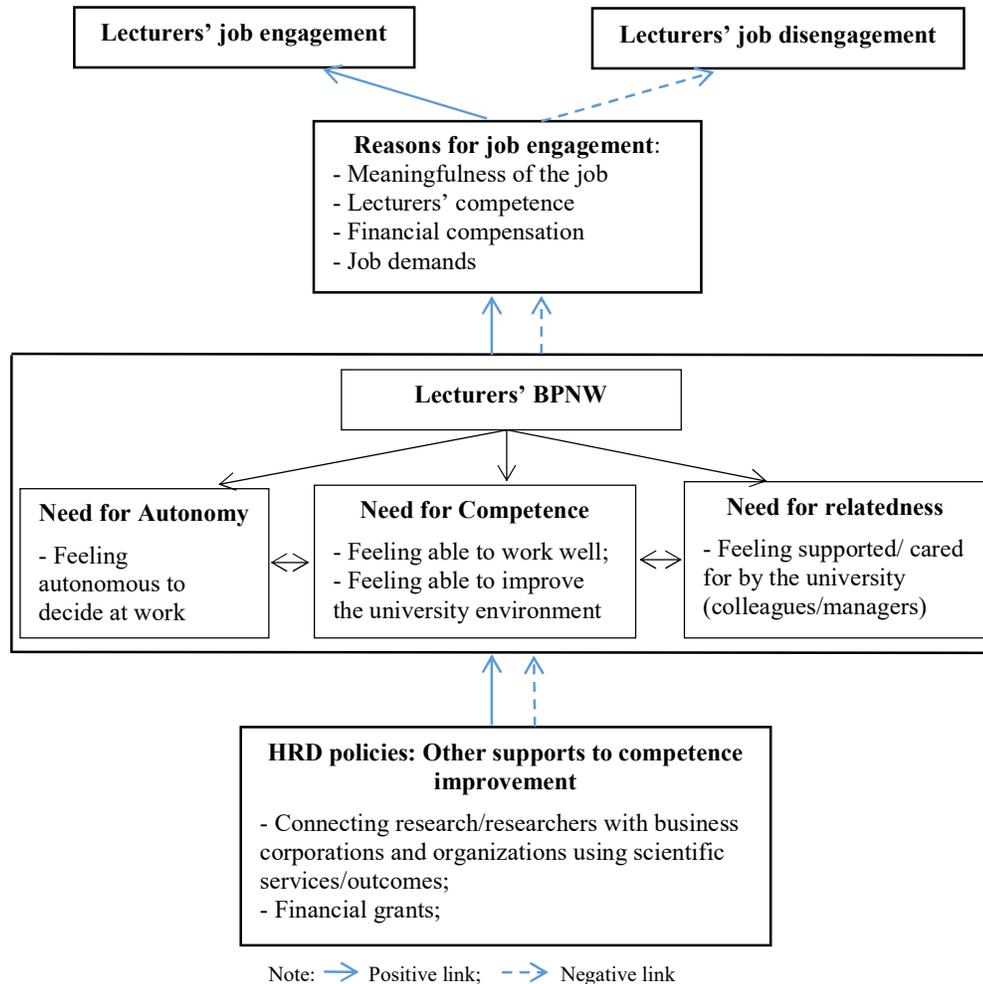


Figure 4.8. Relationship between BPNW satisfaction by policies of other supports to competence improvement and lecturers' job engagement

HRD policies relating to work system: This group includes policies directly affecting the key tasks of lecturer job, such as reducing teaching hours for staff undertaking higher degrees, providing teaching assistants, and increasing expectation of publication. These policies aim to support lecturers' competence advancement by providing them with more time to attend training programmes, and adjusting the expectation of publication to promote lecturers' research competence.

Lecturers appreciated the policy of *reducing the standard teaching hours* by 50% when lecturers attend master/doctorate programmes, which some units of the university offered (I11, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.35). Nevertheless, many of the lecturers still teach a full load and retain their administrative responsibilities with the result that they submit their theses much later than the due date (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41; I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). They do not use the reduced teaching hours for their higher degree. Instead, they teach a full load and receive additional payment for the extra classes after reduction. In this way, the aim of the policy is undermined. Clearly, this relates to the reason of the job demands at organizational level. The demands of the university/units may be so high that it negatively affects lecturers' job engagement, i.e. many different roles at the same time. In fact, most lecturers choose full teaching to help their unit because there is a limited budget to pay other staff to cover the other half of their classes and to maintain their income as well. The choice conflicts with the policy's purpose.

It is claimed that *teaching assistants* are necessary to reduce lecturers' work overload (I25, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71; I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4) and free up lecturers to focus on higher level work such as leading excellent research groups to produce high-quality research (I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47; I7, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.53). However, the university has not issued written regulations about the employment of teaching assistants, leaving it at the discretion of individual units. That is, junior or young lecturers may play the role of teaching assistants for their supervisors during the time of trainee period (I26, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71; I20, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.88; I28, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.64). In this case, teaching assistance is an activity to train

junior lecturers and it is evaluated and reported officially in their record of trainee completion, e.g. Unit 3's instruction for the staff during the trainee period.

Lecturers asserted that, in most cases, teaching assistance is offered on the basis of a personal relationship, e.g. a supervisor asks their PhD or master students to be their teaching assistants (I16, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.18; I7, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.53). In this case, any benefits for the assistants depend on the agreement between them and their supervisor. Some units have offered teaching assistants for lecturers. For example, Unit 4 has issued the regulation of teaching assistants for lecturers within the unit's strategic projects/training programmes. Accordingly, teaching assistants can be junior lecturers (during the one year of work experience), master or PhD students, trainee lecturers. Their teaching counts as one third of the key lecturers' hours (Unit 4 - Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2010). Unit 5 also offers summer programmes that recruit the unit's senior students and/or graduates to support teaching and/or research, student consultancy or other responsibilities (I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47). Nevertheless, the assistants of the units are restricted to key lecturers who work in such projects/programmes. As a result, lecturers who have teaching assistants can feel higher satisfaction of the need for working effectively (competence) and being supported by their unit (relatedness), e.g. I8 (Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47), compared with those who are not assisted.

Increasing expectation of publication means a change in the university requirement of academic publications. Previously, the university set a requirement of minimum of research hours for lecturers (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2017), and this varied by unit. For instant, Unit 2 asked lecturers to publish at least one paper in a journal with an international

registration number every year (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35); Unit 3 asked lecturers to present at least one paper at departmental level (I5, Unit 3, A-JE: 5.17). Recently, the university has standardized the requirement for all of the units. Specifically, a lecturer has to publish at least one paper in an internationally recognized journal or two internationally recognized conference papers every three year. Additionally, every year a lecturer has to do other tasks, e.g. publishing research outcomes, supervising students' research, and the like, to meet the threshold for the award of university's research hours (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2017). The new rules have considerably increased lecturers' work. It also challenges and worries those who have been used to simpler academic work, e.g. just presenting a very simple literature review of a topic within a department every year and lecturers in the department usually approved the presentation as completing the requirement of research hours (I15, Unit 3, A-JE: 5.18). As I24 (Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71) explained:

The new regulation of international publications will make a number of lecturers more engaged in research and their job in general, and others less engaged. For those who are competent to publish internationally, it is easy to meet the requirement. For those who are not, it is really high pressure.

As can be seen, the higher requirement in relation to lecturers' research competence strongly links to job demands at the organizational level. It can lead to both lecturers' job engagement and disengagement depending on their competence and the organizational support. Combined with results of the other HRD policies related to competence support, if lecturers can experience the

satisfaction of being competent and supported to meet the requirement, they will be more engaged in the job, and vice versa.

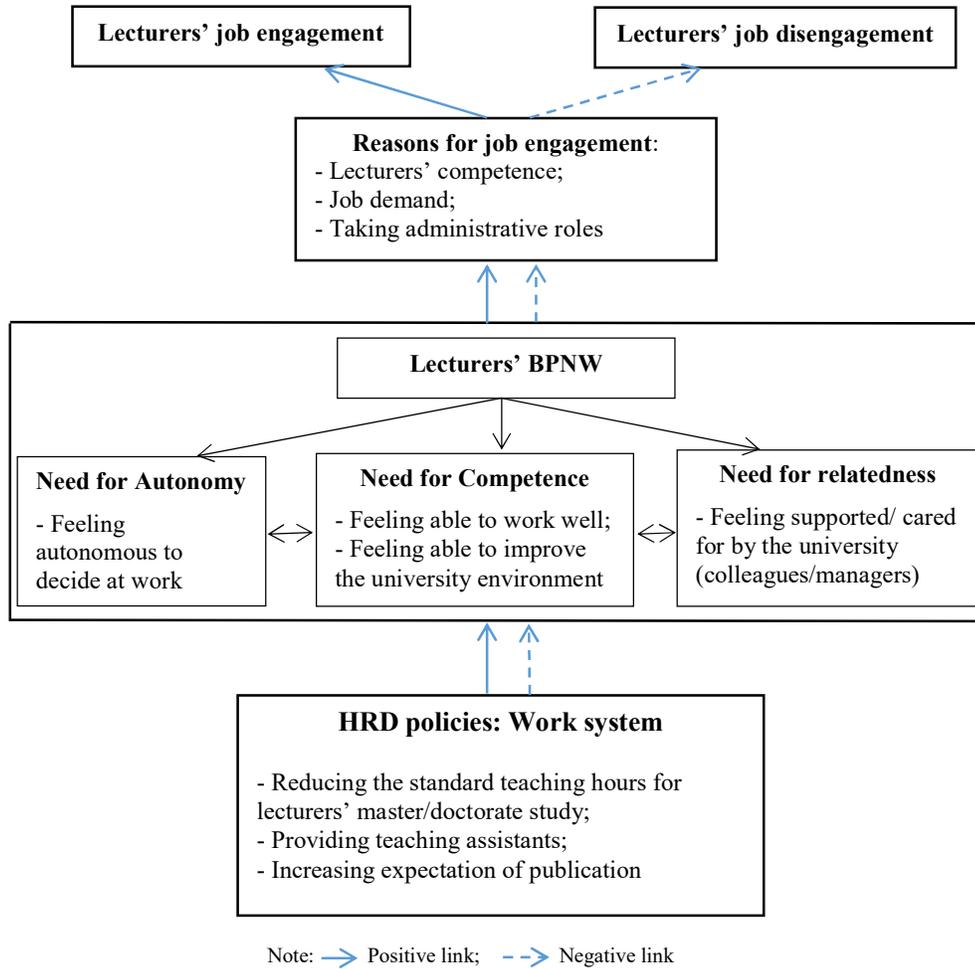


Figure 4.9. Relationship between the satisfaction of BPNW by the HRD policies of work system and lecturers' job engagement

With regard to *the policies related to career management*, lecturers have a strong need for understanding clearly their career path and how to develop their career, including their competence. This is because “when lecturers lack an understanding of the long journey and goals at various stages and the ultimate destination of the job, the job is uncertain for them” (I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41).

However, the implementation of these policies was said to be far less satisfactory than expected.

On-the-job training is also considered as a part of this policy group because of the very important role supervisors play in both training and supporting junior lecturers to develop their career. This is a specific effort to reduce the weakness claimed by I34 above. However, as reported in the section on training, the effectiveness of on-the-job training really relies on the supervisors/managers, linking to the reasons of supportive work relations and lecturers' competence/career development. This, in turn, leads to different levels of lecturers' job engagement.

The policy of life-long award of the job titles of Professor/Associate professor also affects lecturers' feeling of engagement.

Although lecturers awarded the titles receive much higher compensation and priority in research grants, there are no minimum standards for the quality of their research outcomes ... Thus, after being awarded the title, many professors/associate professors stop developing high-quality research projects. They just write the things to easily publish in low or middle level journals to meet the required hours. The focus on research quantity rather than both quality and quantity for the higher job level incumbents makes lecturers at the lower job levels feel unfair (I18, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06).

The practice described by I18 above shows that lecturers at the lower job levels may be more highly engaged in the job than those who have been awarded the titles. Even, the increased requirement of international publications reported

earlier is applied for all lecturers regardless of their current job level/status of the titles awarded. Clearly, the problems in both the content and the implementation of the policy generate a perception of unfairness.

The implementation of *regulations providing guidance for departmental managers how to assign responsibilities to lecturers so that lecturers can meet the requirements of higher job levels* also affects the feeling of job engagement, e.g. the standard of teaching/research hours per year, work criteria of different job levels, and the like. For example, in some faculties, young lecturers do not have enough classes to teach in order to meet the standard of teaching hours, let alone to get career advancement.

A head of a department in my faculty has exceeded 200% of the teaching hour standard, whereas some of his young subordinates have not been assigned teaching amount as required. Thus, I have recently made a rule that all departmental heads can be nominated for award of high performers only if their followers have reached the teaching standard.... I have received some resistance to the rule but the young lecturers are very happy with it. Indeed, the young lecturers will be disengaged in the lecturer job if they are not assigned to teach sufficiently for their first two to three years (I40, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.06).

The same story happened in a faculty of Unit 2. However, the faculty managers were said not to be assertive to solve the problem. In I17's (Unit 2, A-JE: 5.12) words, "the faculty managers seem to be afraid of talking straightly to senior lecturers about how to assign properly courses and teaching amount for young lecturers".

The situation described by I40 and I17 above is the opposite of young lecturers having such heavy teaching loads that they cannot focus on the other job responsibilities (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41). Importantly, having either too little or too much teaching results in young lecturers' feeling that they are not supported by managers and senior colleagues, leading to a negative relationship between them (i.e. interpersonal relations at work).

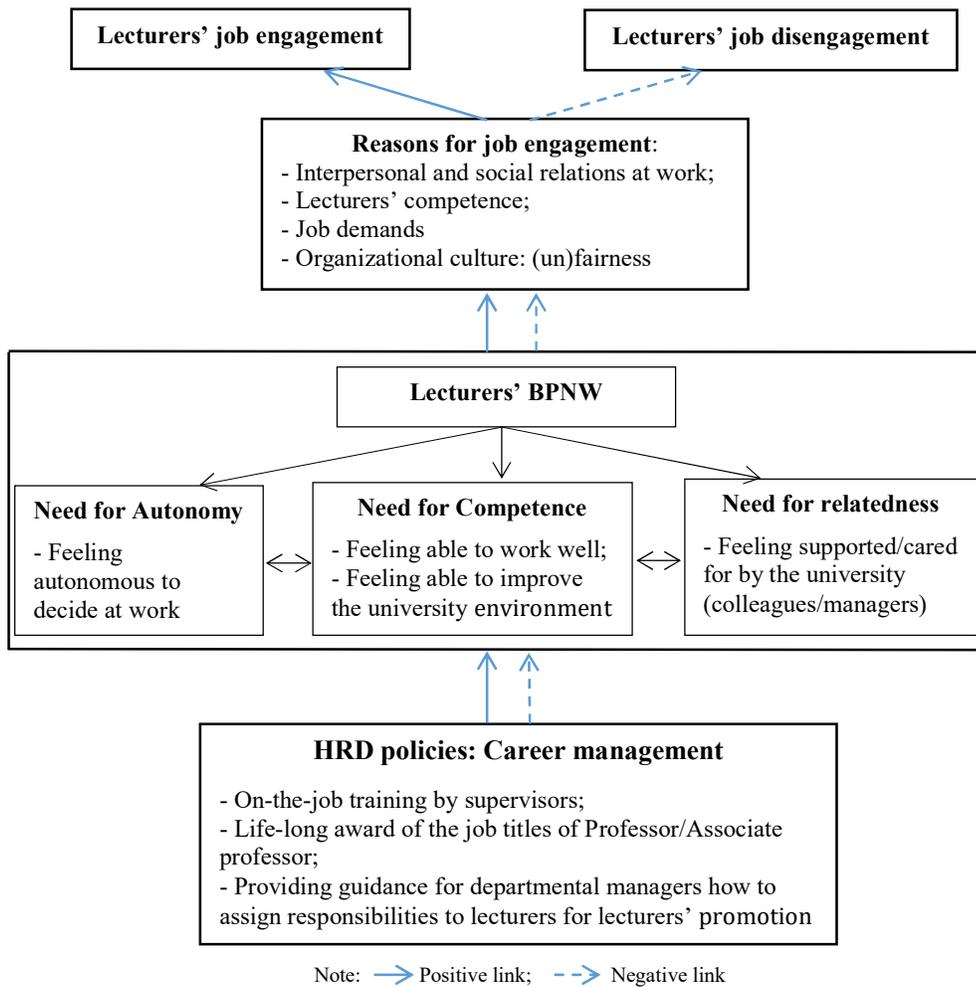


Figure 4.10. Relationship between lecturers' BPNW satisfaction by the HRD policies of career management and lecturers' job engagement

The policies related to performance management play an important role in forming lecturers' perception of the university values/belief/assumptions, such as fairness versus unfairness, equalization, emotionalism, favouritism, and work ethics.

Generally, *the criteria of performance evaluation* for lecturers and managers are said to be too general, leading to subjective and unfair applications (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29). Although the university asks lecturers and managers to report annually what they have done, only a few of the indicators are measurable such as the number of teaching and research hours (I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41). Because many other criteria are very general, lecturers cannot evaluate their colleagues' performance clearly and instead base it on emotional responses (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41). This leads to equalized evaluation in order to maintain a good interpersonal relations among lecturers (I39, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.18), e.g. evaluating all lecturers as good performers as cited on page 224. When personal relations are brought into the evaluation, the results may be decided based on favouritism. This makes the really good/excellent lecturers feel cheated and demotivates them to continuously improve their work (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29; I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94). Thus, they invest lower effort than their ability in the job, meaning lower job engagement.

The implementation of the policy of *the standard of annual research points/hours* has led the lecturers to feel the organization does not treat them fairly and recognize their work. As a consequence, they have lower engagement in the job.

When I have not met the research point standard in a year, I will be evaluated as 'work incomplete' [under performer] and receive no

rewards and no second salary in the year. However, in the following year, when I have achieved more research points than the standard, the extra points are worthless. The unit does not care about my extra effort for research. (I22, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

The university leaves the units to decide if such extra research points/hours can be transferred to the subtracted teaching hours for the following year with no subtraction more than 20% of the teaching hour standard (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2017). When any units do not apply the transferability or other ways of adequate recognition, lecturers' need for recognition may not be met.

The policy of confidentially collecting feedback on management in the units is said to have a considerable influence on lecturers' interpersonal relations at work. Specifically, confidential questionnaires have been administered to collect key lecturers' evaluation of managerial performance. The policy aims to gradually review and improve management systems. Thus, it is expected to contribute to lecturers' experience of an effective working environment, a part of the need for competence. In fact, the policy works well in Unit 5. "Because the policy is implemented in a closed system, it is anonymous and effective for improving managerial performance" (I32, Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47). By contrast, in some other units, the implementation is not as expected. Even, it diminishes the interpersonal relations among lecturers. Since, "although it is stated as confidential, everybody knows who evaluates what" (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94), and "lecturers' opinions in the questionnaires are used to conclude which managers are liked or disliked leading to negative interpersonal relations at work" (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). Such unethical and inadequate implementation and

application of the policy make lecturers “just try to protect themselves by not giving their real thoughts”, said by I30. As a result, where the policy is developed properly, it enhances lecturers’ feeling of being reassured in work connections as well as being able to work well, and vice versa. In other words, their needs for relatedness and competence are fulfilled through the organizational respect of fairness and work ethics. This, certainly, links to their higher engagement in the job.

One more positive case is the policies of *performance appraisal based on performance outcomes*. Specifically, I36 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35) felt it was fair when she was denied a salary increment because she had not submitted her PhD on time. She explained:

Postgraduate study is a key performance of lecturers in this university so I think that evaluation outcome is fair for me and others... so I do not have any complaints (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35).

As a result of the perception of fairness at work, lecturers tend to engage more to improve their work.

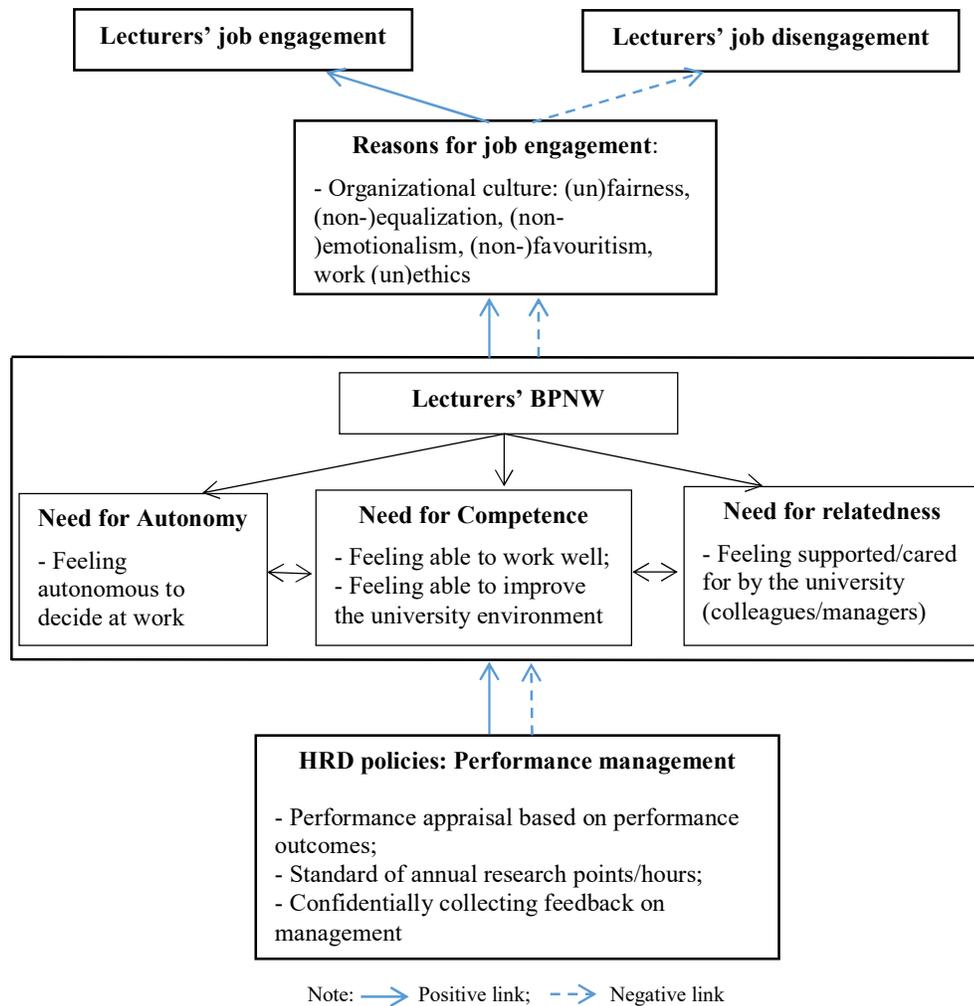


Figure 4.11. Relationship between lecturers' BPNW satisfaction by HRD policies of performance management and lecturers' job engagement

The policies related to recognition and reward/compensation/punishment all relate to the organizational culture. Below are examples of specific policies in this group and their perceived values.

One problem in the content of the policy of recognition and reward is “the higher awards attract a lower bonus than the lower awards” (I25, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71). Specifically, the lowest award is “good performer” [called ‘Lao động tiên tiến’] which is applied to those who complete the responsibilities well in the year

of evaluation. This award is worth a second salary, which equals the highest bonus in the compensation system. Thus, lecturers are motivated to obtain the lowest award rather than any higher awards, e.g. “excellent performers”. This means that lecturers put more engagement in the lower tasks than in the higher ones. This makes the reward system only “for fun” (I43, Unit 1, A-JE: 3.29) and fails to meet lecturers’ need for adequate recognition.

As with the policies on performance appraisal, the recognition and rewards are said to lead to equalization (I40, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.06; I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41), and based on out-of-the-job criteria.

Only 15% of the whole staff in a faculty can be labelled “excellent” performers. Thus, the remaining staff will be nominated as all good performers... the person at the highest position of “good performer level” is very far different from those at the lowest position of the level. However, all of them are deemed in the same frame and same award (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47).

I have completed much beyond the work standard in the year and deserve the award of excellent performers [called: ‘Chiến sỹ thi đua’]. However, in the election of the nominated awardees, I was asked to give the nomination to another lecturer. ... because the lecturer has received the award for the last two year and if they receive the award in three consecutive years, they will be able to be nominated for the award of the superior agencies. This is a very funny criterion on which the performance has been recognized and rewarded. It is an out-of-the-job criterion (I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.12)

Noticeably, the policy does include the condition that lecturers with two consecutive years of being awarded plus the current year being nominated are eligible for nomination to the award at the higher levels in the HE system, i.e. from the units to the university, the ministry, the government (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2015). However, the policy does not ask a deserving person to give way to others just because of the condition. Thus, the implementation of the policy is problematic, leading to incorrect and unfair results.

Lecturers recognized that the university was trying to reduce heavy paper work for lecturers such as managing research grants by objectives and results (I7, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.53) or online system for uploading students' grades (I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). However, this effort was said to have made very little reduction in cumbersome procedures (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29). The system of performance appraisal and voting for rewards at the end of an academic year takes too much time, requires too many types of reports and too much paperwork (I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.12; I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71). Together with equalization and inadequate criteria in the processes, the system reinforces lecturers' feeling of an ineffective work environment, leading to their lower engagement in the job at the end of year time.

With regards to *punishment*, lecturers who do not meet the standard of research points/hours are not adequately punished but are just not nominated for rewards, leading to an ineffective and unfair climate (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41). Thus, nobody is afraid of the policies on punishment (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65). Lack of seriousness in implementing the HRD policies are signals of the

acceptance of work dishonesty, unfairness and ineffectiveness. This certainly diminishes the job engagement of those who respect the positive values.

However, there are some positive points in the implementation of the policies in this group. For example, *payment based on contribution* is thought to be fair.

When I do some pieces of a project, I have been paid for the pieces.

Such payment, being based on my contribution, is fair and good (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29).

Thus, lecturers are satisfied with this type of payment and want this to be broadened to other kinds of work (I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I31, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.47). “Although being motivated by money might lead lecturers away from the real values of a university, in this context, it is better that we are paid for what we do than are not paid but still have to do it” (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76).

Additionally, to develop lecturers’ research competence, the university and its units have made a policy of *financial rewards to lecturers who have publication in internationally recognized academic journals and/or by reputable publishers in the world*. Although the reward money is not much, it signals the organization’s recognition and respect of lecturers’ effort to complete the more difficult task compared with publishing domestically (I5, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.59; I7, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.53; I43, Unit 1, A-JE: 3.29).

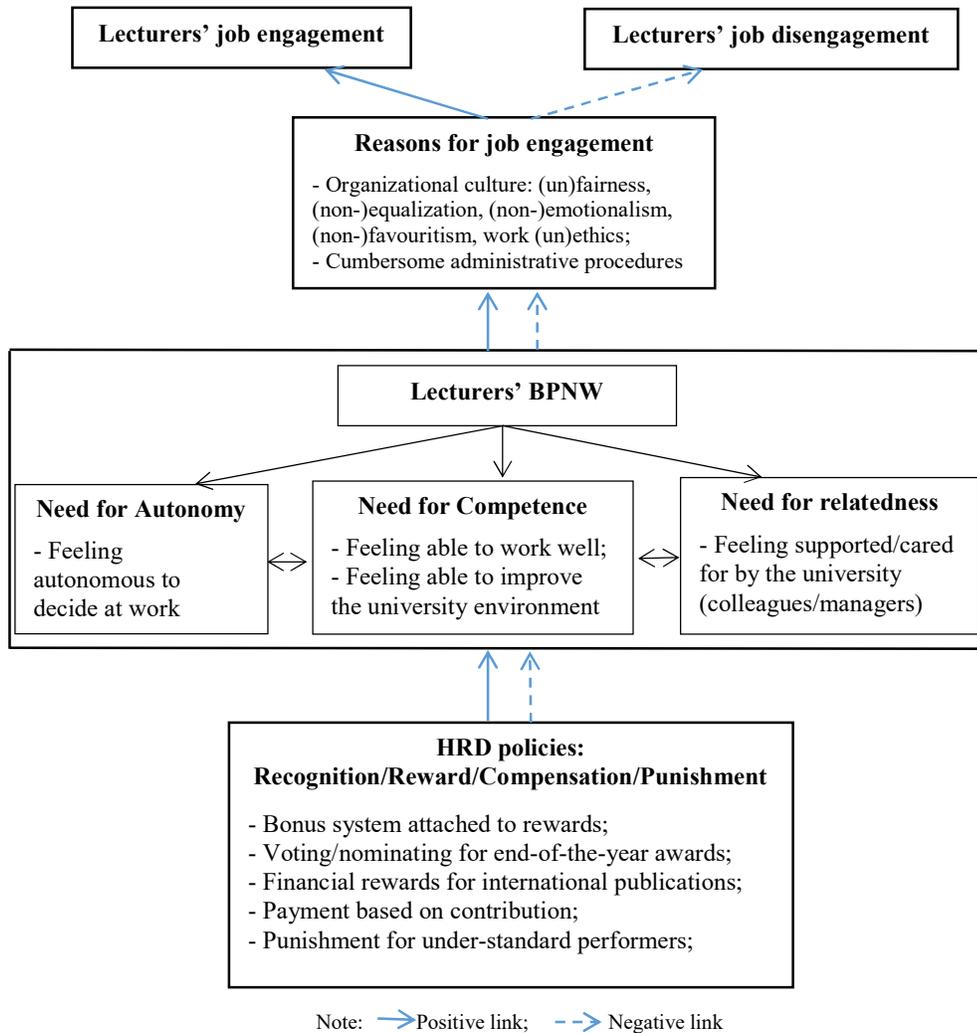


Figure 4.12. Relationship between lecturers' BPNW satisfaction by HRD policies of recognition/reward/compensation/punishment and lecturers' job engagement

The policies related to organizational communication is the last group in the HRD system. One of the reasons for lecturers' job engagement relates to the effectiveness and transparency of organization's procedures/internal processes. Policies in this group link to this reason because they aim to increase transparent and effective information/instructions. This purpose also connects the policies with developing positive interpersonal and social relations at work.

The policy of *developing platforms to receive lecturers' opinions regarding organizational work and give lecturers detailed feedback on their ideas/opinions* is an effort to reach the purposes above. The policy aims to create two-way communication between the university/units and lecturers to express the organization's respect, give lecturers opportunities to raise their voices and solve any problems in a timely manner. For example, the representatives of higher manager board have to participate in the annual meeting of their subordinate departments in order to have face-to-face conversation with the followers (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). Additionally, it is compulsory for every unit to provide a box for staff and students to give their anonymous letters to the unit management board (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65). Lecturers can also raise their voices in the meetings of the Trade Union at different levels (I11, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.35). Alternatively, lecturers can email directly the management members or departments if necessary (I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). Although there are many channels to receive lecturers' opinions and the management boards in the university and units are more open to welcome the opinions, there is little feedback from the management/organizational side on lecturers' ideas (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I4, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65; I19, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.94). Lecturers claimed that the quality of the organizational feedback on lecturers' opinions differs by department and the openness of the managers (I24, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71; I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29). Therefore, the satisfaction of lecturers' need for being respected and able to work well varies from low to high level, leading to different levels of lecturers' job engagement. For example, I38 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29) gave an example in which managers in his faculty were patient to listen to and solve misunderstandings between them and a young lecturer about the lecturer's right

and benefits from 2pm to 7pm. Especially, all other lecturers in the faculty were willing to support the long-lasting meeting by arranging an alternative for their parents' responsibilities because they saw the managers' willingness and respect for lecturers (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29).

However, from the cultural perspective, lecturers claimed that not many people want to give their true opinions about the organizational activities or people just give very general ideas that will not upset anyone (I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94). This is because if lecturers genuinely say what they think, they may be disadvantaged by their colleagues and/or feel alone (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71; I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94; I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47).

The examples above show that the implementation of the policy of receiving lecturers' opinion and giving them feedback may or may not satisfy lecturers' need for being heard, respected and understood. Thus, this may or may not make the organizational procedures/relations effective and coherent.

The policy of *publishing lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies* is seen as one of the first solutions to provide transparent and effective information/instruction for lecturers, e.g. I21 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76) and I23 (Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). In fact, the university has published the names of policy documents related to HRM, including HRD, on its website. However, the contents of the documents are not available for lecturers to access from the website. Additionally, not all of the units have made explicit links to the university's website from the units' website. These limit the accessibility of updated policy names and contents.

For instance, people outside Unit 2, e.g. I23, (Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76), praised the fact that HR policies had been posted on their internal webpages. Staff within Unit 2 (I14, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.24) pointed out that these documents were actually out-of-date.

Furthermore, the lack of updated and accessible information on policy contents and procedures on the websites makes lecturers feel as “a beggar for information/instruction when they need it” (I9, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.47). Additionally, lecturers complained that “administrative staff in some functional departments do not know how to smile with lecturers when communicating about work problems” (I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29). This reinforces lecturers’ feeling of not being respected and supported to work well. Herein, the implementation of two-way communication between the management/functional systems and lecturers may negatively affect the organizational effort of creating a transparent and effective environment regardless of how many platforms or policies have been promoted or published.

Certainly, negative implementation devalues the HRD policies irrespective of their good intentions. This creates problems causing lecturers’ disengagement, i.e. lecturers’ feeling of dissatisfaction in respect of the negative values/belief/assumptions.

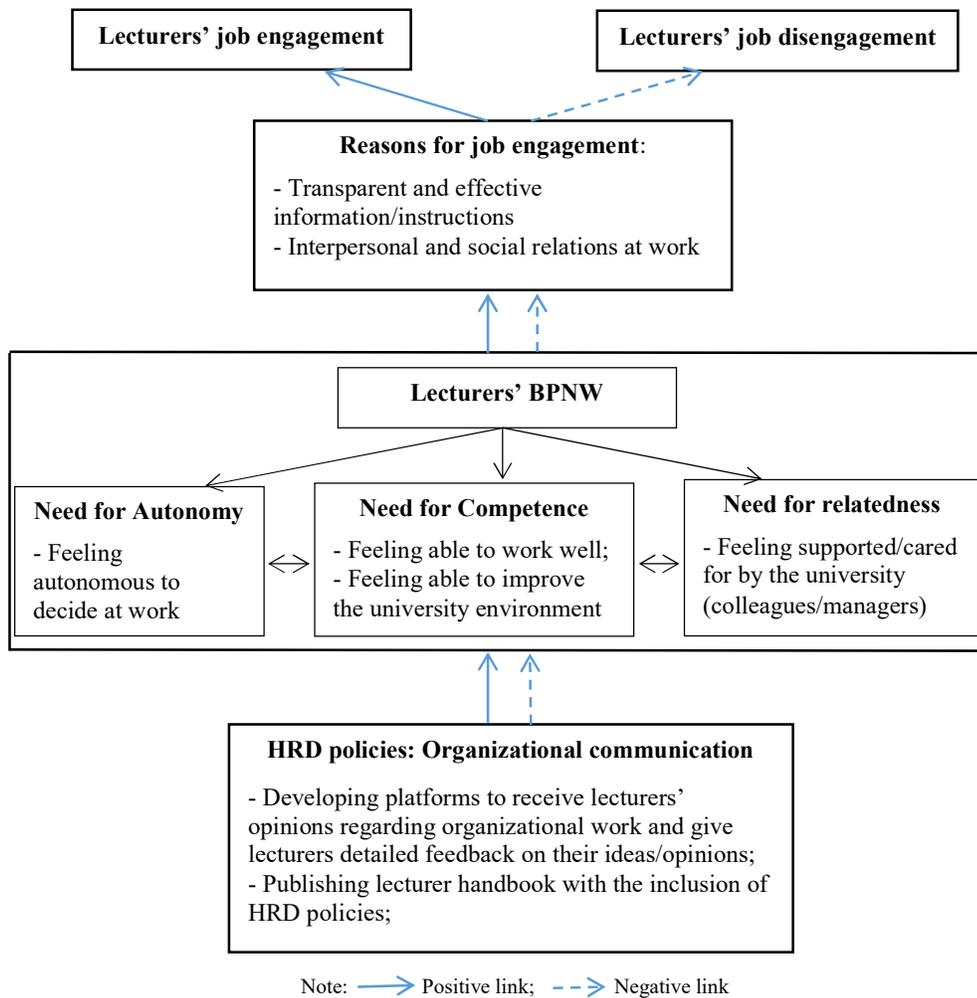


Figure 4.13. Relationship between lecturers' BPNW satisfaction by HRD policies of organizational communication and lecturers' job engagement

In summary, the relationship between lecturers' SDT need satisfaction by HRD policies and the reasons for their job (dis)engagement (**finding 10**) have been summarized in the models above (figures 4.7 to 4.13). These figures visualize the answers to the research questions. That is to say, through satisfying lecturers' BPNW, the HRD policies affect the reasons for lecturers' job engagement. The positive influence enhances job engagement while the negative impact reduces it. It can be seen that one policy often links to different reasons.

Furthermore, some reasons which have wide scope, e.g. love of the job and good social status, do not clearly link to any specific HRD policies.

4.2.3. Reasons for almost no impact of HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement

As mentioned in chapter 3, I42 (Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65) claims that “HRD policies do not impact on my [his] job engagement at all”. Four interviewees explicitly said that they did not feel the policies influenced their job engagement. There are two key reasons for this lack of impact.

The first reason is that lecturers prioritize their own professional objectives (I32, Unit 5, A-JE; 4.47).

Thus, their understanding of policies and their empathy with managers are poor. This leads to conflict between managers and lecturers although they have the same objective of developing the university and lecturers (I19, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.94).

In the examples above, HRD policies seem to have little impact on BPNW because staff who focus on their own professional goals are likely to have their needs satisfied already. In other words, a) they already exercise autonomy, b) they feel highly competence and c) they do not require a great deal of relatedness. This may make them think that the personal factor is the reason for their job engagement rather than external forces. Therefore, they seem not to feel clearly the influence of the external factors, including policies, despite at least the policies setting the framework and/or guidance for their personal goals, e.g. criteria for getting to higher job levels. As a result, almost no impact of HRD policies on lecturers' BPNW leads to almost no impact on their job engagement.

The other reason comes from the lecturers' frustration with negative practices, e.g. a problem has persisted for 10 years (I27, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71).

When we are young and we have difficulties, we are very energetic to overcome them many times. After a long time, we get familiar with the stagnation, and we fail to request changes so many times so we ignore the organization ... e.g. performance evaluation based on emotionalism lasts for a long time (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29).

Lecturers' inactivity because of a sense of impotence leads to the fact that lecturers' SDT needs are not fulfilled. I13, then, talked about the long-lasting problems of the implementation of policies of performance appraisal and recognition and reward as cited before. These are the reason for lecturers' impotence. Their ignorance leads them gradually away from the policies. Thus, they no longer feel clearly the influence of the policies on their job engagement.

In summary, **finding 11** is about two key reasons why lecturers claim HRD policies have almost no impact on their job engagement, including personal career goals and frustration of long-lasting negative practices. Importantly, the reasons show concerned signals asking the university and its units to take action in order to make the policies more effective.

4.2.4. Recommendations for enhancing lecturers' job engagement through BPNW satisfaction by the HRD policies

In order to respond to the second research question, this section presents what lecturers recommended to make the HRD policies better satisfy their BPNW and thereby enhance their job engagement. The challenges associated with the most important recommendations are also presented.

For the HRD policies related to *training*, lecturers suggested that the university should carefully analyze lecturers' training needs in order to choose suitable topics and training methods for different groups of lecturers (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29). In fact, the university regularly asks its units to conduct training need analysis with different groups of HR before planning training programmes for a time period (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014c). However, lecturers have experienced being forced to attend workshops/courses in which they are not interested (I22, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76; I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29), leading to a waste for both lecturers and the organization as lecturers “just visit Facebook or play games to wait for the ending time” (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29)

Additionally, some basic but important skills that lecturers in some units need have not been developed, e.g. information management (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I43, Unit 1, A-JE: 3.29) and PowerPoint design (I4, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65).

As a result, lecturers may not be satisfied with the current training need analysis and/or the suitability of specific training programmes after the need analysis. Therefore, together with a careful training need analysis, design and delivery of training are very important. These are emphasized by I36 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35) to avoid “superficial training programmes” as before.

Lecturers recommended that the training courses should be much more application-oriented than theory-oriented because lecturers can learn for themselves many theoretical topics (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29).

For the courses about transferring research outcomes into practice, I feel there is a lack of qualified trainers. Thus, I feel the courses are so

general and theoretical that after completing them, I still do not know how to apply what I have learnt (I2, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.88)

As a result, after attending the courses, lecturers still feel incapable of improving their work meaning a low satisfaction of their need for competence. Therefore, application orientation should be a priority when designing training courses for lecturers.

For the policy of *on-the-job training by supervisors/managers*, a lecturer recommended his unit to issue an official and detailed job description of on-the-job supervision.

A description of clear responsibilities for supervisors are necessary for them to understand and implement, as well as for the unit to manage their performance.... (I18, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06).

In this way, the implementation of on-the-job training is expected to enhance junior lecturers' competence leading to better satisfaction of their need for competence and effective connection with others at work, i.e. their supervisor in this case (relatedness).

In fact, there are units that have applied policies as recommended by I18. For example, Unit 3 has a specific written regulation on supervising new staff in the first twelve months of work. In the regulation, Unit 3 provides details of what supervisors and trainee lecturers need to do, what they need to report, and what records they need to submit, as well as what rights and benefits they have. This shows the difference among units in the university. Thus, this recommendation may be suitable for Unit 2 and the equivalent units rather than the others.

Of the policies helping lecturers become more competent, *sabbatical leave* has been highlighted. On the one hand, the university has a regulation that after one year of excellent work, lecturers can have one teaching term off for research/internship or other competence development programmes (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2017). However, many lecturers do not know about the policy (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76) or about how to apply (I2, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.88). As I24 (Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71) said, “nobody in my faculty knew about the policy. If they knew, many of them would have applied for the leave”. This may be because there are challenges in implementing this policy, leading to its impossibility in practice, e.g. lack of HR and financial resources for covering the work of the people leaving while still keeping their first salary (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41; I1, Unit 7, A-JE: 5.94); and jealousy between those who can or cannot win the leave because of different personal and contextual reasons (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53; I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

Despite these challenges, the interviewees agreed that the policy is important and valuable for developing their competence and motivating their interest in research. In fact, the university and units allow lecturers who have received external research grants to take sabbatical leave often for 6 months (up to two years for post doctorate research), given different detailed conditions. For example, Unit 2 applies a condition that they will not pay the first salary for the lecturers during the leave if the lecturers are paid more than twenty million VND per month by their sponsor (Unit 2 - Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2019). However, it is difficult to implement the policy more broadly for all lecturers (not only those who win external research grants). Thus, lecturers tried to give some basic suggestions such as issuing detailed and clear criteria and

procedures to apply the policy, e.g. making an agreement of specific research outcomes after the leave [even without research grants from the university] (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76), hiring temporary lecturers to teach during the leave of the fulltime lecturers (I28, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.65), and clear policy together with effective communication to ensure lecturers understood the policy in order to avoid jealousy between those who have and those who have not benefited from the policy (I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76).

For the policy of *providing teaching assistants* to support key lecturers, again, the challenge of financial resource is mentioned as the main obstacle to applying the policy more widely (I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76; I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4; I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29). Hence, only units that can find a budget, e.g. Unit 4 through projects granted by external sponsors or strategic programmes budgeted extra by the government, can develop the professional teaching assistants. Nevertheless, with the necessity of teaching assistance as cited on page 242 and in context of the heavy teaching load and higher research expectation, there is strong support for developing the policy throughout the university as following:

This policy should be applied for, at least, professors. The teaching assistants can help professors like me with work such as tutoring students to do exercises and marking students' papers, ... so that I can focus on delivering more difficult lectures and research. One special benefit of the policy is that it may motivate associate professors or at lower job levels to try to get the highest title/level of the job (I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47).

This suggestion would target 75 professors throughout the university (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2018c). It may be feasible for the university budget while helping the university use the professoriate more effectively. Thus, this can be seen as a deserved investment to overcome the current challenge and to start developing a professional network of teaching assistants throughout the university.

Connecting research/researchers with business corporations and organizations using scientific services/outcomes is an important support to lecturers but it is poorly implemented in Vietnam (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59). Training how to transfer knowledge into practice also contributes to connecting lecturers' research and practice. To make research outcomes into products for real life is a very complicated process. Lecturers recognized key challenges to implement the policies, including the very big gap between highly theoretical knowledge and practice (I28, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.65; I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53); the competition with cheap imported products in technological fields (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71); and the constraint of financial grant from the national budget for research and development which means many research projects stop at the stage of developing products (I8, Unit 4, A-JE: 5.47).

Although the university and units say they are supportive, this is not always obvious in practice. "Lecturers still have to do everything from A to Z if they want to develop a research outcome" (I43, Unit 1, A-JE: 3.29). Thus, lecturers said they need help from the university and units not only in training and research but also in looking for investors/partners to develop their research outcomes (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76) and in marketing their products (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71). It is emphasized that the university and units' departments of

science and technology management and companies of science services should actively run such supporting activities rather than focus only on administrative work, e.g. handing out sponsorship money and checking claimed receipts of research projects (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59; I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71).

For the implementation of *career development support*, lecturers requested stronger responsibility from the head/vice head of departments and dean/vice dean of faculties. The department/faculty managers can help lecturers solve the conflict between the organizational direction and lecturer personal competence and expectation, and among career objectives of all lecturers in the faculty. For example, a lecturer has studied in the field A, but the department/faculty asks them to teach in field B (I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.12; I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4), or as mentioned earlier, too many lecturers focus on one/some field(s) of the faculty while other fields have not received sufficient interest (I27, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.71). Regardless of any challenges, it is emphasized that the department/faculty managers need to be more assertive to take this responsibility to support effectively the development of lecturers and the faculty (I17, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.12).

Within career development, a lecturer recommended that the university should change the policy of life-long award of (associate) professor title into the fixed-term one with specific conditions for the term. Specifically, I24 (Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71) suggested the university should apply the requirement of publications in the completion of the term. For instance, if the title-holder does not have any high-quality publication after a fixed term of three years, their title should be withdrawn. Those affected may initially resist (I24, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.71) but the change would force or motivate the (associate) professors to continuously develop their competence keeping them deserving of the title and the attached

high compensation. This is also perceived as fair for lecturers at lower levels of the job, discussed by I18 (Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06), as cited on page 246.

For *performance management*, lecturers gave impressive but controversial recommendations.

To avoid emotionalism and favouritism in performance management, all items for performance appraisal need to be standardized and clearly job focused (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53).

A table of clear and adequate points should be applied to evaluate every performance indicator...If you complete a task well, you will get 5 points; if not, you will get 3. As such, people do not evaluate based on their emotion... To be honest, not many Vietnamese people can fairly recognize others as good performers when evaluator does not like the performers (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29).

The standardized and pointing systems suggested above seem close to Key Performance Indicators (KPI). Two other lecturers believed that if a KPI system is applied, the performance appraisal will be transparent and effective (I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I34, Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41). Even, a lecturer questioned:

Unit 5 has implemented KPIs successfully for years, why is it not more broadly applied to other units? (I41, Unit 8, A-JE: 4)

Indeed, I32 (Unit 5, A-JE: 4.47), showed his pride in the KPI system that had been implemented in his unit. He said: "My unit has a great KPI set. All people are satisfied with it and feel it is fair". In Unit 3, a faculty has already applied the KPI system to evaluate lecturers' performance annually, which contributed to a fair climate in the faculty (I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41). Even, I33

wondered similarly to I41 above: “Why don’t people want to apply such good KPIs?”

Another suggestion was external evaluation (I35, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35; I19, Unit 6, A-JE: 4.94). Specifically, I35 gave an example that if a lecturer wants to be an expert in a field, the best way is to publish their papers in academic journals in the field. After that, external experts can read and evaluate their papers.

However, this begs the question of how to ensure that a point system like KPIs or even external evaluation system is operated in an ethical way, thereby producing correct and trustworthy appraisal results. This remains a lasting challenge for all the solutions above:

Any appraisal system is worthless because of work dishonesty. Unethical people can always meet any criteria. If you ask for ten publications per year, they will show you ten publications. This is a power game (I21, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.76).

Supporting I21 with respect to the cultural challenge, I28 (Unit 1, A-JE: 4.65) claimed that some KPIs had already been applied, e.g. the standard of teaching/researching hours, but there was no transparency in the implementation. Hence, the fundamental force for the change is not KPIs but the organizational culture. As agreed by I33 (Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41): “Applying KPIs does not mean changing a tool of evaluation only. It is about changing people’s mindset, changing culture”. The change happens only if “managers are willing to be judged by their subordinates” (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29); and all staff, especially poor performers, are ready to give up undeserved benefits that they have received

for a long time from the current vague evaluation system (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29; I18, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06).

It seems a number of lecturers feel obstructed and do not believe in the success of the changes although others believe and/or try to recommend their best-thought solution of KPIs so far. In general, those who had experienced KPIs seemed more satisfied and more engaged than those who had experienced something more vague/general. This demonstrates not only the challenges but also the opportunities to solve the current problems by the recommendations.

It is claimed that proper criteria and people's integrity in performance management is fundamental for an effective and fair system of *recognition and rewards, compensation and punishment* (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65). This is because, these enable the systems to overcome the obstructions of emotionalism and favouritism (I30, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53). Therefore, I13 detailed her recommendation of the pointing system in which performance completion needs to be classified to apply proper *punishment*. She explained that the classification will be fairer because it recognizes the degree to which the staff has done tasks instead of easily removing all of their working effort just because he/she does not complete the whole performance in a year (I13, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.29). As such, she defined punishment as deserved reduction of the parts of performance that have not been done (well). This is different from the term 'punishment' in common sense (e.g. fire and money fine) and perhaps, means "no punishment at all" (I36, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35). This seems to be logical with the practice that "because of emotionalism and over respect of personal relationships, it is difficult to punish anyone in this environment" (I29, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.64). Even, I42 (Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65) claimed "punishment here is just no reward". Again, emotionalism and

favouritism are the greatest challenges to the effective implementation of the policies on recognition and rewards, compensation, and punishment (I37, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.29; I39, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.18; I29, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.65; I33, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.41).

Salary and bonus are financial policies. However, because they strongly shape the mindset of staff, they become a necessary part of the HRD system. Based on the adopted definition of HRD, HRD does not focus on the numerical aspect of the specific salary and bonus policies, but the aspect of shared values deriving from the financial policies. As a result, HRD emphasizes how staff's performance has been recognized, rewarded, compensated, and punished. In this respect, lecturers recommend that the second salary and other compensation need to be restructured to become fairer and more encouraging for lecturers.

Payment for the key tasks needs to be higher than for the other tasks so that lecturers do not have to depend on teaching part-time undergraduate programmes [not deemed as a key task in the context] or invigilating to make income better (I42, Unit 2, A-JE: 3.65).

Compensation for more difficult work needs to be higher than easier work. This results from a practice that senior administrative staff may have higher income than a manager (I18, Unit 2, A-JE: 5.06).

Those who are assigned different additional responsibilities need to receive 100% compensation for every single responsibility if they complete the assignments well, instead of descending compensation for the additional responsibilities... This is not fair for them and makes lecturers reluctant to take extra roles (I38, Unit 2, A-JE: 4.29).

If the bonus is higher and adequate to the rewards, the election for the rewarded candidates will be fairer. As such, the practice of rotating the reward nomination among lecturers in a group will be stopped (I29, Unit 1, A-JE: 4.65).

Through all of the specific recommendations above, the need for being treated fairly and motivated to work shines through. Lecturers may not have suggested sufficiently detailed solutions since they do not have experiences and skills of making policies. However, they clearly identified the values they respect and what will keep them effective and engaged in working for the university. Therefore, if the compensation system is restructured towards being fairer, lecturers will be motivated to focus on their main tasks, to take more difficult missions and necessary extra responsibilities, to contribute continuously, and to give fair evaluation and votes to others and themselves.

For *organizational communication*, lecturers expect the university and units to publish and update not only necessary information but also policies and instructions on their websites.

All necessary information/policies/instructions should be published online for the purpose of transparency. The websites need to be an effective interaction tool between the organization and staff rather than an information bulletin only (I6, Unit 1, A-JE: 5.59).

The interaction through the organizational website emphasized by I6 is exactly a form of the two-way communication mode which can satisfy lecturers' need for a transparent, effective and supportive work environment.

To enhance this interaction, I4 (Unit 2, A-JE: 5.65) suggests the use of online forums so that lecturers can directly send their ideas about the policies and implementation and receive feedback from the relevant managers/staff.

I4 also claimed that this way reduces the possibility of (un)intentionally information distortion by the immediate staff. Lecturers seem to believe that making the way they communicate with management more direct and more effective will change how the university is managed, making it more transparency, and more respectful of staff.

To maximize the effectiveness of the websites, the university and units can make an electronic lecturers' handbook which includes all HRD policies along with procedures and instructions, and publish it on their websites (I23, Unit 3, A-JE: 4.76). I23 explained that the e-handbook helps lecturers avoid wasting time waiting for the relevant officers to ask about policies and procedures. Thus, they can prepare all required documents before dealing with the relevant departments about the policies. This will satisfy lecturers' need for working effectively.

Supporting this recommendation, I34 (Unit 7, A-JE: 4.41) suggested how to make the online lecturers' e-handbook effective.

The lecturers' e-handbook including the HRD policy information needs to be organized properly, making it convenient for lecturers to search and find what information they need. If they have to visit and read full and long documents to find a very specific piece of information, they will feel frustrated and demotivated to access the e-handbook.

However, I35 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.35) raised a considerable challenge.

I do not believe that publishing policy information online can make remarkable change. To be honest, lecturers are very lazy to read policy documents.

Interestingly, I30 (Unit 2, A-JE: 4.53) gave her opinion as an argument to the challenge.

The responsibility of providing clear information/instructions related to the policies belongs to the organization. Reading them or not is lecturers' choice. When lecturers have a problem, they cannot say they do not know about the policies or request a special support of policy documents just because of being lazy before.

From the organizational side, I30's opinion is convincing because lecturers have the right to be informed about the university's and units' policies and instructions. From lecturers' perspective, I43 (Unit 1, A-JE: 3.29) claimed that:

It is important that if lecturers can see the solutions are beneficial for them and do not ask too much of their resources to implement in the context of heavy workloads, they will accept and support the solutions.

As such, the challenge will belong to the organization whether they can make the benefits clear and convincing for lecturers.

In summary, all the recommendations put forward by lecturers about the different HRD policies (**Finding 12**) emphasize the kind of organizational culture they respect. This includes the values/belief/assumptions of fairness, work integrity, no favouritism/emotionalism, and a focus on lecturers' motivation. They hope changes in the HRD policies' contents and implementation will lead

to a new mindset/culture that promotes both lecturers' and the university's development. **Finding 12** is summarized in the table below.

Policies	Recommendations	Challenges in implementing recommendations
All training initiatives	- More careful training need analysis; - More proper training design and delivery;	Heavy teaching and administrative work.
Training on how to transfer knowledge/research outcomes	- Being more application-oriented than theory-oriented	
On-the-job training by supervisors/managers	- Issuing official job description of on-the-job supervision (noted: Suitable for Unit 2 and the equivalent units)	
Sabbatical leave	Issuing detailed/clear criteria and procedure to apply: - making the agreement of specific research outcomes; - hiring temporary lecturers to teach during the leave of the fulltime lecturers - effectively communicating	- Organizational lack of financial and HR resources to deal with heavy work load, research grants, keeping first salary paid. - Jealous climate among lecturers
Providing teaching assistants	Providing teaching assistants for lecturers holding the title 'Professor' only to overcome the challenge	- Financial resources for hiring a professional teaching assistants
Connecting research/researchers with business corporations and organizations using	- Supporting not only in training and research but also in looking for investors/partners to develop their research outcomes and in marketing their products	

scientific services/outcomes		
Supporting lecturers' career management	- department/faculty managers need to be more assertive to take the responsibility to solve the conflict between lecturers' objectives and organizational task allocation, and among lecturers' career directions	
Life-long award of (associate) professor title	Changing from the life-long to term-fixed award	Possible resistance from the current (associate) professors
Policies of performance management	- KPI (standardized or pointing system) application in performance appraisal - Using external evaluation on lecturers' work outcomes	- Work dishonesty; - Managers' and staff's willingness to change the vague evaluation system
Policies of recognition, reward, compensation, punishment	- Classifying performance criteria to classify recognition/reward/punishment levels - Restructuring compensation system towards being fairer and more proper	Emotionalism and favouritism
Policies of organizational communication	- Publishing and updating necessary information, policies, instructions on the websites; - Using online forum to make direct two-way communication between lecturers and managers; - Developing lecturers' electronic handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies.	Lecturers' unwillingness of research and read policy information

Table 4.34. Summary of lecturers' recommendation

In conclusion, chapter 4 has reported twelve findings (eight from the quantitative, and four from the qualitative data). The quantitative findings show

that most lecturers felt from medium to high engagement in their job (56.2% and 38.9%, respectively). About 70% of the respondents confirmed the positive impact of the university's HRD policies on their job engagement through the satisfaction of lecturers' psychological needs at work. The remaining 30% included lecturers who said the policies had almost no impact or else the impact was negative. The qualitative findings explain the way that the relationship operates. Specifically, through satisfying lecturers' BPNW, the HRD policies link to the typical reasons for lecturers' job engagement, then enhancing or decreasing lecturers' job engagement.

Chapter 5. Discussion

This chapter discusses the findings in light of relevant literature. Specifically, the chapter interrogates the following issues:

(1) the two scales, i.e. UWES, and BPNWS;

(2) lecturers' job engagement in the university, i.e. the overall picture of lecturers' job engagement; the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and demographical groups;

(3) the reasons for lecturers' job engagement;

(4) the relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement through BPNW.

5.1. UWES and BPNWS

5.1.1. UWES

Finding 1 of the study is that the three-factor model of UWES was not confirmed in the sample. Consequently, a two-factor model was explored in the EFA. This is very different from the majority of studies in the literature where the three- or one-factor model has been supported. As reviewed in section 2.1.2 of chapter 2 – Literature review, the three-dimension structure is superior to the one-dimension one (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). However, several empirical studies of the one-factor model, e.g. Klassen *et al.* (2012) which drew on cross-national data of teachers from five countries (both Western and non-Western), and Shimazu *et al.* (2008) which drew on a sample of Japanese engineers and nurses, illustrate the very high correlation among the three dimensions. This leads the

UWES authors to recommend using the total score of UWES items when the three-factor structure is not clearly found (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). As can be seen, the assumption that a person who is high with regard to vigor will tend to be high with regard to absorption seems to make sense intuitively. This seems to be the reason why UWES has been most widely used, regardless of whether one or three factors have been found in its operationalization.

Very few studies in the literature have explored a two-factor model of UWES. Wefald and Downey (2009) found the two-factor structure was a better fit than the one- or three-factor model in their sample. However, it was still a poor fit and the structure of each of the two factors did not make sense (Wefald and Downey, 2009). Additionally, there is no theoretical basis for a two-dimension structure of job engagement (Wefald and Downey, 2009). Britt, Dickinson, Green (2007, cited in Wefald and Downey, 2009) claim that measuring job engagement through more than one factor leads to confusion about which factors link to the various consequences of engagement. Hence, Wefald and Downey (2009) do not support the two or three-factor structure of the concept. Although the current study has explored a two-factor model of UWES, the sub-structures of each factor did not make sense, which accords with Wefald and Downey's (2009) conclusion. Thus, the present study concurs with the literature that finds no support for the two-factor operationalization of UWES.

Since neither a two- nor a three-factor model fits the data of the current study, I have followed the recommendation of using the total score of UWES' items when the three-factor model is not confirmed. In doing so, I have heeded the warning of Klassen *et al.* (2012) that researchers should not assume the three-

factor model of the construct but should first test the factor structure of UWES in their research context.

5.1.2. BPNWS

In contrast to UWES, the three-factor model of BPNWS has been confirmed in the data. This finding (finding 4) supports the confirmation of the scale in the original studies by Brien *et al.* (2012) in France and Canada. Following the outcome of BPNWS validation in Brien *et al.* (2012), Boudrias *et al.* (2014) used the scale to verify a predictive model of Psychological Health at Work in Canada and France. Recently, Sánchez-Oliva *et al.* (2017) and Catalán *et al.* (2018) have validated the scale in Portuguese and Spanish, respectively. Both of these latter studies have confirmed the validity and reliability of the three-dimension operationalization of BPNWS. Furthermore, the results demonstrate the cross-cultural validation of the scale (Sánchez-Oliva *et al.*, 2017; Catalán *et al.*, 2018). Clearly, the confirmation of BPNWS in Vietnamese adds strength to this validation.

As mentioned in section 2.3.2 of chapter 2, Longo (2016) criticized the four items measuring the need for relatedness in BPNWS for being too specific. They measure employees' feeling of being understood and heard, being able to trust in and being a friend of their colleagues (Brien *et al.*, 2012). Clearly, the operationalization makes sense to express how people feel cared for, and connected with others at work within SDT and has been validated in later studies as specified above. However, most of the later studies examined employees' BPNW in relation to other topics at the individual employee level, e.g. employees' psychological health at work (Boudrias *et al.*, 2014), and employees'

engagement and burnout (Catalán *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the very specific items of relatedness which tap into individual experiences fit well within the frameworks at this level.

In contrast, for issues at the organizational level such as HRD policies, the very specific deconstruction may challenge researchers to determine explicitly how organizational policies can link to a particular employee's individual feeling of being understood/heard, being able to trust in and being in friendship with others at work. This makes it difficult to design direct questions on the relationship for the current study's instruments as noted in section 3.4.1 of chapter 3 – Methodology and methods. Because there has been very little research on the relationship with issues at organizational level since BPNWS was first developed and validated (2012), this challenge has not been previously identified in the literature. The current study provides evidence of this difficulty and echoes the criticism made by Longo (2016). It calls for BPNWS to be developed in such a way that research at both levels (individual and organizational) can be facilitated.

5.2. Lecturers' job engagement in the university

Finding 2 of the current study is that lecturers have a medium level of job engagement (4.38) which the UWES authors interpret as feeling engaged at least once a week (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). This result is slightly higher than that found amongst academics in Irish public institutions (4.07) (Byrne and MacDonagh, 2017). However, both of the results are in the range of the medium level (from 3.07 to 4.67) and around the international mean score (4.10)

calculated by the UWES authors from their international data of 12,161 employees from nine countries (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004).

The percentage of highly-engaged lecturers in this study (38.9%) is far lower than that in Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) report (nearly 60%). Moreover, 4.9% of Vietnamese lecturers reported low engagement at work, which is just a little higher than that in Schaufeli and Bakker's the same report (4.2%). The differences may derive from the fact that the investigated case concerns Vietnamese lecturers whereas the earlier report concerns international cross-occupations, including salvation army officers, blue collar workers, hospital staff, white collar workers (profit sector), civil servants, physicians, nurses, university staff, paramedics, police officers, teachers, managers, white collar workers (non-for-profit sector), and social workers/psychologist. Additionally, the time of the data collection for this research (2017) is later than that of the report (2004). The reasons for the lecturers' job engagement in the current case (finding 9) may also underpin the differences. These will be discussed later.

Finding 3 of the study confirms a significant but weak difference in lecturers' job engagement among the four age groups. This is in agreement with Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) outcome, and Lovakov *et al.*'s (2017) study which found a positive relationship between employees' job engagement and ages, meaning engagement increased with age. However, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) report a generally small correlation between these variables (<.20). By contrast, Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006) found no difference in job engagement between academics of different ages in South African HE institutions.

Finding 3 also confirms that there is a non-significant relationship between lecturers' job engagement and gender. This is in line with the outcomes of

Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006), and Zecca *et al.* (2015) and Garg (2014) (cited in Bui and Tran, 2017); but contradicts the research by Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004), and Klusmann *et al.*, (2008, cited in Klassen *et al.*, 2012). Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) study found men had a slightly higher score for engagement than women whereas Klusmann *et al.* (2008) found the opposite. Additionally, Klassen *et al.* (2012) obtained a mixed result, which varied by country. Specifically, there was a significant but weak relationship between teachers' job engagement and gender in their Omani samples (i.e. women's job engagement is higher than men's), and an insignificant relationship in their samples from Australia, Canada, China (Hong Kong), and Indonesia. This led the authors to suggest the differences in job engagement between groups of ages and genders may be the result of the various national settings (Klassen *et al.*, 2012).

Moreover, the parts of finding 3 with respect to academic qualification (having or not having a doctorate); and job level are in line with Barkhuizen and Rothmann's (2006) study. Specifically, the authors have found that academics in possession of a doctoral degree are more absorbed in their job than those holding lower degrees. However, this relationship had a small effect. Additionally, these authors did not find any difference in academics' vigour and dedication between the doctoral-degree holders and the rest. Similarly, in the current study, the mean of job engagement total score of those holding a doctoral degree (Mean = 76.1, Std.De = 12.7) is slightly higher than that of those possessing lower qualifications (Mean = 71.5, Std.De = 14.6). This difference is significant but weak.

In Barkhuizen and Rothmann's (2006) study, three job levels were used, namely professor, senior and junior academics. Professors' dedication was higher than senior lecturers', which was higher than junior lecturers'; professors'

absorption was the highest, followed by juniors' and the lowest was for seniors'. No difference in vigour between the three job levels was found in Barkhuizen and Rothmann's (2006) study. In the current research, the three corresponding job levels are superior, senior and lecturer/lecturer assistant. Job engagement of the highest-ranking lecturers (superior) (Mean = 79.6) is just slightly higher than that of senior lecturers (Mean = 79.2) which is followed by that of lecturer assistants/lecturers (Mean = 72.9). Again, the significant differences in both studies had similarly small effect.

The current study has also found that academics who are managers have a slightly higher total score for job engagement than those who are not managers (Mean = 77.8, Std.De = 11.2; and Mean = 72.9, Std.De = 14.3, respectively). The difference is significant and modest in effect. This is in line with the outcome of Bui and Tran's (2017) study with young Vietnamese employees, which confirms a higher engagement level for managers than for other staff. There may be various reasons for managers' higher job engagement. Johnson (2010) suggests one factor is managers having more opportunities for professional development. This is an important point about the potential of career management support for managers in any organizations to enhance their job engagement.

The titles of Professor or Associate Professor have significant and modest impact on lecturers' job engagement in this study. This can be explained by the financial and non-financial benefits that the HRD policies confer on these title-holders, benefits which were described by the interviewees in the qualitative findings. These titles, which are special awards different from any levels of the job, seem to be peculiar to some HE environments such as Viet Nam. Thus, there

have not been any other published studies, describing the relationship between this variable and academics' job engagement.

Length of service in the current study was not related to job engagement. This agrees with a cross-national study by Klassen *et al.* (2012) on teachers' engagement. The same results have been found for the other variables such as units of working and fields of teaching in the university, although the different units may offer different policies and working conditions/environment.

In conclusion, if the university/units want to improve the HRD practices, they should focus on those demographical variables that have a significant and, at least, modest relationship with lecturers' job engagement reported above, which would include (non)managerial position and (non) Professor/Associate Professor titles. This is because the differences with weak effect may not be considered as meaningful (Klassen *et al.*, 2012).

5.3. Reasons for lecturers' job engagement

Finding 9 reports the main reasons for lecturers' job engagement in the university. Accordingly, there are both positive and negative factors increasing or decreasing lecturers' job engagement. The negative factors (e.g. favouritism and unfairness) can explain why 4.9% of the respondents have low engagement and more than half have medium engagement. Conversely, the positive reasons (e.g. the purpose of the job, and training support from the organization) can explain why 38.9% of the respondents have high engagement despite some failings in working conditions. Clearly, this illustrates the advantage of the mixed methodology approach, that is, the qualitative findings can support the quantitative ones within the framework (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2014).

Regarding the reasons for lecturers' job engagement, the results of the current study *indicate both types of job engagement antecedents: personal* (e.g. lecturers' competence and love of the job) *and contextual factors* (e.g. job meaningfulness, and organization's job demands and culture). This supports Fleck and Inceoglu's (2010) claim that both individual and external factors can affect employee job engagement during their work life. For instance, lecturers in the current study can feel more engaged when their competence is improved over the time (i.e. personal/individual factor). Lecturers may lose their job engagement if organizational problems have been persistent; or they can feel disengaged in the short-term when overloaded with administration, then become highly engaged in the long-term with the advantages taken from doing the functions, e.g. possessing important information and relations in the organization. These are situational/organizational/external factors. Such examples in finding 9 also partly support Kahn's (2010) claim that job engagement is not dead, but resilient depending on both types of factors/reasons.

From the perspective of JD-R model (see page 42-43), the reasons for job engagement relate to both job demands and job resources of the lecturer job in Vietnamese HE. In finding 9, the lecturer job demands include requirements to continuously innovate, update the work, and self-improve lecturers' competence; and the university's working requirements (e.g. the standard of minimum teaching/research hours; administrative responsibility). Mauno *et al.*'s (2010) claim that overburdened job demands can turn into negative job stressors. The examples of job demands in the current study, such as lecturers' stresses by simultaneously taking on heavy teaching, research and administrative roles and the university's higher research expectation do support the claim above.

Finding 9 has found job resources for lecturers include the meaningfulness of the job, its interpersonal/social relations (i.e. the diversity of the relations, interpersonal supports/interactions from colleagues/managers/supervisors and students), good social status, flexible working time, and working environment (i.e. HR quality, organizational culture, procedures/internal processes and organizational structure). The results of the present study support the addition of resources (i.e. personal resources) to the JD-R model proposed by Xanthopoulou et al. (2007, 2009; cited in Durán, Extremera and Rey, 2010). Specifically, lecturers' personal factors (i.e. competence, love of the job, and sense of self-responsibility) have been found as their own resources for their job.

The reasons for lecturers' job engagement expresses the mechanism depicted for JD-R model by Bakker and Demerouti (2007). In other words, the job resources for lecturers are not only functional in achieving lecturers' work goals and reduce their job demands and the attached cost (e.g. meeting lecturers' work requirements and supporting lecturers' well-being). They also stimulate their growth, learning and development (e.g. support from interpersonal relations at work to improve lecturers' competence). Furthermore, the relationship between the reasons and BPNW in the current study explicitly shows the model's underlying psychological premise about motivation (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). This premise is that employees' need satisfaction motivates their job engagement (Imperatori, 2017). Specifically, the satisfaction of the job resources fulfils lecturers' BPNW in order to meet the job demands. Therefore, the fulfilment leads to the high work engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). Applied to the current study, if a lecturer's competence fits the job demand, their need for competence is satisfied and this, in turn, leads

to higher job engagement. Another example is that lecturers-students relationship as the factor of interpersonal/social relations affects lecturers' job engagement through lecturers' relatedness fulfilment. This is similar to Klassen *et al.*'s (2012) conclusion that when students are able to satisfy a teacher's need for relatedness, this fosters job engagement. Together with many examples of how lecturers' satisfaction of the other job resources links to lecturers' BPNW and job engagement, a relationship between JD-R model and SDT is clearly demonstrated in the literature and in the present study.

Additionally, the motivational nature of the relationship between the reasons and BPNW can also be seen as an illustration to SET. Specifically, there is an exchange of lecturers' job engagement for the resources they have received from the university (Saks, 2006). For instance, lecturers felt little or no support from the university/units when they had to take on too much administrative work; had unclear work instructions; wasted their personal resources because of poor cooperation between the departments/sub-systems; felt impotent to stop academic plagiarism; or received low financial compensation. In other words, if lecturers have low job resources, they cannot pay back the organization with high job engagement. Previous studies have also found similar outcomes, e.g. Livingston's (2011) claim that faculty cannot satisfactorily engage in all three roles of teaching, research and service; and Vehviläinen, Löfström and Nevgi's (2018) finding that academic plagiarism has a negative impact on university teachers' emotional engagement.

As for the details of the reasons, lecturers mentioned *the meaningfulness of the job* as one of the main reasons for their job engagement. This is especially strong in public institutions such as Tiên Phong University. In other words,

people working in this kind of organization may attach higher perceived meaningfulness to their work, thereby affecting their job engagement (Byrne and MacDonagh, 2017). The information provided by the lecturers does confirm their experience of the good purpose of their job for the society/students, which then enhances their engagement. This also links to the importance of the job's meaningfulness as a motivator for people working in public institutions claimed by Perry *et al.* (2010). Additionally, the finding of the meaningfulness of the job confirms one of three compulsory psychological conditions of job engagement pointed out by Kahn (1990) (i.e. the feeling of meaningfulness, the sense of safety, and the availability of one's self and other resources for the job). This supports Fairlie's (2011, cited in Lee *et al.*, 2017) quantitative findings that meaningful work has positive correlation with engagement and negative one with disengagement. Furthermore, the finding is in line with Livingston's (2011) outcome of the positive relationship between the meaningfulness of faculty job and faculty members' job engagement.

Interestingly, Byrne and MacDonagh (2017) have found two antecedents of academics' engagement in Irish public institutions which are '*love*' and '*support*'. Specifically, '*love*' (understood as academics' emotional connection with their job/organization), and '*support*' (understood as academics' perception of their working environment and their feeling of being valued and appreciated by their organization), determine why and how academics' engagement or disengagement emerges (Byrne and MacDonagh, 2017). As with their Irish counterparts, the lecturers in the current study feel engaged in their job because of their great love of the job. Indeed, because of the love and their sense of self-responsibility, lecturers can relish the job demand of continuous innovation and

update, voluntarily spending more personal resources on the job (e.g. in applying new teaching methods), which is called ‘sacrifice’ by the Irish academics. Support from managers/supervisors in both studies has been highlighted as an important resource for academics’ work and job engagement/love. Specifically, academics present a high level of engagement when they feel supported and respected by their supervisors/managers/colleagues as in the current study (e.g. supporting in career direction and publications), or by their line managers/head of their department as in the Irish study (e.g. effectively managing timetables, emotionally supporting and understanding when solving problems such as student complaints), and vice versa.

As mentioned before, the university’s HR quality is also a source of support for lecturers’ job in the present study. *HR quality* is associated with recruitment/selection that is an element of high-performance HR practices (Pham-Thai *et al.*, 2018). This factor contributes to the practices that have been found as one of two key drivers for lecturers’ job engagement in Vietnam (i.e. transformational leadership and high-performance HR practices) (Pham-Thai *et al.*, 2018). Although Pham-Thai *et al.* (2018) used a different scale to measure lecturers’ job engagement, their quantitative finding above are in line with the qualitative data from the current study on the impact of HR quality on lecturers’ job engagement. Specifically, where HR quality is good as a result of strong recruitment/selection, lecturers feel motivated to work co-operatively. The opposite is also true. This is also in line with Zhong, Wayne and Liden’s (2016) claim that high-performance HR practices directly relates to employees’ job engagement.

Organizational culture has been found to strongly affect lecturers' job engagement in the present study, e.g. the perceived unfairness highly diminishes lecturers' feeling of being recognized, respected and competent. This is in agreement with Zhong, Wayne and Liden's (2016) work in which organizational culture was a critical antecedent of job engagement.

The present study has found three inter-connected values emerging in the university practices, including family spirit, favouritism, and work dishonesty. The finding indicates both positive and negative aspects of family spirit. Understandably, family spirit itself is not wrong. Family values and relationships are labelled "the strongest source of motivation" in Vietnamese people's lives (Hoang, 2008). Therefore, family spirit (encompassing values and relationships) is said to contribute to a happy and close work environment of the university. However, if family spirit is over-emphasized in organizations, e.g. through exploiting personal/relative relationships, work ethic is negatively affected (McCornac, 2012). This is illustrated in the current study with respect to favouritism. Here, family spirit strengthens work dishonesty by driving work decisions (e.g. recruitment, research grant distribution) based on personal relationships. Lecturers considered such decisions as a source of unfair treatment by the university. This is in line with Chen *et al.*'s (2017) claim that decisions based on relative favouritism (i.e. nepotism) are seen as unfair in China, Brazil, and America. More generally, factionalism, which is an expression of favouritism, is not only one of the greatest threats for governmental organizations in Vietnam as MacLean (2013) claimed, but also for other kinds of public organizations such as HE institutions as demonstrated by the lecturers in this study.

Lecturers provided plentiful examples about the broader scope of favouritism, work dishonesty and other negative cultural factors, leading to their perception that the university's work environment was unfair. This perception results in lecturers' having lower BPNW satisfaction and job engagement. Importantly, this outcome is in line with previous studies which confirm the positive link between fairness and BPNW (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016), and job engagement (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Saks, 2006) and vice versa.

In short, the reason related to organizational culture in this study indicates that the perceived mismatch between lecturers' own positive values and the negative ones emerging from the university's practices leads to a low level of lecturers' job engagement. This mirrors Wildermuth and Pauken's (2008) and Rich, LePine and Crawford's (2010) contention that congruency between organizational and individual values is an antecedent of employees' job engagement. Specifically, when organizational values (whether positive or, as in this case, negative) are lived and visibly supported by the organizational leaders and other stakeholders, e.g. the broad acceptance/adoption of the values in working decisions in the university, they will be important factors affecting all aspects of the organization (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008).

In the current study, *transparent and effective information/instructions and cooperations among the university's/units' departments* are important reasons for lecturers' job engagement. These factors contribute to organizational alignment, which is generally defined as "a process by which key organizational components - strategy, culture, processes, people, leadership, and systems are linked to best accomplish the needs of the organization" (Tosti & Jackson, 2000; cited in Alagaraja and Shuck, 2015, p. 21). Depending on how well these factors support

lecturers' work effectiveness, their job engagement is increased or decreased. This outcome supports Alagaraja and Shuck's (2015) claim that engagement happens only when employees' goals are aligned with organizational processes and practices. Understandably, in principle, employees' work goals are often aligned with organizational goals. However, in practice, organizational goals are not always implemented by proper procedures/processes, leading to a mismatch with employees' work purposes, and a negative impact on individual work. The perceived mismatch makes employees decide not to invest their knowledge, skills and abilities into the pursuit of the shared goals (Alagaraja and Shuck, 2015). Thus, these reasons mean university management need to improve its procedures/processes in order to enhance lecturers' job engagement.

As has been seen, finding 9 shows a positive relationship between an antecedent which is lecturers' BPNW satisfaction, and a consequence that is their job engagement. This supports previous studies that have found a positive link between the two objects (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015; Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). More specifically, the current study has elaborated which reasons (antecedents) positively/negatively affect which need(s) in BPNW in order to contribute to the literature with in-depth evidence.

5.4. Relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement through lecturers' BPNW

5.4.1. General relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement through BPNW

The relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement has been quantitatively expressed in finding 5. Most of the HRD policies increase

rather than reduce the respondents' job engagement. This means that organizational HRD policies can be considered antecedents of job engagement. Therefore, the outcome supports previous studies which have confirmed the impact of specific HRD and/or relevant HRM practices on employees' engagement, e.g. appropriate recognition and reward (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Saks, 2006); and high-performance HR practices (Pham-Thai *et al.*, 2018). Although HRD practices had a moderate relationship with employee engagement in Shuck *et al.*'s study (2014), the positive impact of HRD policies in the current study may help to explain why approximately 95% of the respondents had from medium to high level of job engagement in finding 2.

Moreover, the relationship between the organizational HRD policies and lecturers' satisfaction of psychological needs at work is confirmed in the study. Specifically, around 70% of the respondents agreed and 30% of them disagreed on the fulfillment of the feeling of autonomy, competence, trustworthy and supportive work environment by the university HRD policies (finding 6). This general outcome, supported by the qualitative outcomes of the study (e.g. finding 9 and 10), is in line with the literature on antecedents of BPNW. For instance, Van den Broeck *et al.* (2016) found that the three needs were negatively related to role stressors, and positively related to job resources, and social support. In the present research, HRD policies related to the work system (e.g. increasing research expectation and assigning administration role) might be leading to lecturers' job role stressors. Thus, lecturers may feel that the stressors do not satisfy their needs for autonomy and competence. HRD policies related to supporting and developing lecturers' competence and other resources for their job (e.g. training and financial support) and shaping organizational values (e.g.

accepting favouritism, rewarding by performance outcomes) may or may not satisfy lecturers' need for relatedness. In this way, HRD policies are confirmed as antecedents of lecturers' psychological needs at work and support the claims of previous studies on the impact of specific antecedents on employees' BPNW.

Finding 7 has found that academic managers are more likely than non-managers to recognize the positive impact of HRD policies on their need for trustworthy and supportive work environment. Because job engagement has relationship with BPNW (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015), finding 7 might explain finding 3 which indicates that managerial lecturers have higher job engagement than non-managerial ones. In other words, because managers feel more supported through the HRD policies and work environment, they tend to be more engaged in their job than non-managerial lecturers. To my knowledge, the relationship between work positions and their satisfaction of the two needs for trustworthy and supportive work environment by HRD policies has not been investigated in the literature. It is a pity that not enough qualitative data in the study elaborated upon this finding.

Finding 8 shows that lecturers who have higher job engagement tend to appreciate more the positive impact of the university HRD policies on their need for autonomy, competence, and trustworthy and supportive work environment. This finding links finding 5 (i.e. the relationship between HRD policies and job engagement) and findings 6, and 7 (i.e. the relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' psychological needs at work) above. The connection shows the possible mediating role of lecturers' satisfaction of the psychological needs at work between the organizational HRD policies and their job engagement.

Finding 11 provides two reasons for lecturers' feeling of almost no impact of HRD policies on their job engagement, i.e. lecturers' focus on personal work goals only and their frustration of long-lasting problems. Thus, finding 11 does not help explain more in-depth the mediating role of BPNWS in the relationship between HRD policies and job engagement. At least, both the reasons reflect the role as an antecedent of BPNW for job engagement as found by Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen (2015) when lecturers' BPNW are satisfied by themselves (i.e. the former reason) or unsatisfied by the organization (i.e. the latter reason).

Within the HRD field, there has been little work investigating the relationship between HRD practices, job engagement and SDT needs (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). Thus, finding 8 and 11 provide more empirical evidence of the relationship and support Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen's (2015) suggestion that HRD policies might be used to leverage employees' SDT needs in order to enhance their engagement.

5.4.2. Relationship between specific groups of HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement through BPNW

A part of finding 5, finding 10 and finding 12 show the results related to specific types of HRD policies. There have been very few previous studies investigating how different types of HRD policies affect BPNW and job engagement. Therefore, it may be not possible to compare with previous literature how some of the university's more specific and/or unique policies relate to job engagement through BPNW.

As for the policy group of *training*, finding 5 indicates that training programmes have a positive impact on job engagement for over 75% of the

respondents. This is in line with the outcomes of Pham-Thai *et al.* (2018) in which training and development as an element of high-performance HR practices positively affect lecturers' job engagement in Vietnam. This may be because learning opportunities and supervisor support also have a positive link to employees' work engagement (Sarti 2014; cited in Lee *et al.*, 2017).

Additionally, finding 10 shows that the training programmes of the university (i.e. teaching and research methods, knowledge transfer, and on-the-job training) can help the organization improve its HR quality and develop good social and interpersonal relations between lecturers and their supervisors/managers. In this way, lecturers' needs for competence and relatedness are satisfied, contributing to an increase in their job engagement. This is in line with previous studies on specific training programmes. For instance, Kim (2014) claims that having managerial coaches (i.e. employees are coached by managers, meaning on-the-job training) improves employees' job performance and satisfaction with work via role clarity. Thus, from the SDT perspective, this contributes to the satisfaction of employees' need for competence. Furthermore, managerial coaches provide managerial/supervisor support, a source of social support for employees, which is linked to the three needs of BPNW (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016), especially relatedness. This satisfaction of the need for competence and relatedness will motivate people to do their jobs presenting an increased engagement. An example of this mechanism is when academics in universities are self-determined and motivated to teach with role clarity and managerial support, the teaching quality and teaching engagement is enhanced (Esdar, Gorges and Wild, 2016).

Finding 12 emphasizes the university's effective training need analysis as a strong recommendation by lecturers. Since, if training does not seek to satisfy learners' specific needs, employees are less likely to attend the programmes and/or really engage in the courses. This supports Poell's (2014) claim that employees' motivation to learn has an important impact on workplace learning and organizational effectiveness. Similarly, Esdar, Gorges and Wild (2016) assert that strong motivation is crucial for high performance in highly competitive, uncertain, and self-dependent working environments such as HE. Consequently, organizational effectiveness can only be improved through training if training needs analysis is taken seriously and done effectively.

The lecturers in the current study also made recommendations about the types of training they wanted. Specifically, lecturers expect the university's training programmes to be more applied rather than theory-driven. This expectation – that lecturers should be able to transfer the organizational training to their day-to-day work – needs to be incorporated into any training at the design stage (Massenberg, Schulte and Kauffeld, 2017). Specifically, transfer design has positively and directly impacted motivation to transfer after training (Massenberg, Schulte and Kauffeld, 2017).

With respect to the second group of HRD policies (competence development), finding 10 found the policies of connecting research/researchers with business corporations/organizations using scientific services/outcomes and financial grants can make lecturers feel competent to meet the job demand, to do meaningful work for the society, and to receive financial compensation. Consequently, such feelings of being competent and supported/related enhance lecturers' job engagement and vice versa. Clearly, the former policies show

lecturers' need for transferring their research outcomes into products, services and systems to serve society, and receive back a better income. This matches the term "commercialization of research findings" defined by Downie (2006, cited in Namdarian and Naimi-Sadigh, 2018). The current study identifies some challenges to research transfer. These are in line with Namdarian and Naimi-Sadigh's (2018) findings from Iran. For example, the Vietnamese lecturers emphasized the university's focus on transferring research in natural sciences and technologies; and highlighted the real difficulty of transferring findings in social sciences and humanities into commercialized products/services in Vietnam. Namdarian and Naimi-Sadigh (2018) also found the same focus and concluded intrinsic values (e.g. unclear application of humanities research in society) and technological nature of humanities (e.g. the soft nature – intellectual and innovational technology focusing on thinking, ideology, values, viewpoints, individual and organizational behaviours) were two of the main barriers to transferring research outcomes of such areas. Importantly, both of these studies confirm the meaningfulness of this solution such as benefiting communities for economic, social and cultural development (Esdar, Gorges and Wild, 2016), one of the main reasons of lecturers' job engagement in the present study.

The policies related to financial support, e.g. financial grants for lecturers' postgraduate study and academic conference participation, contribute to lecturers' feeling they have great organizational support. This is because having access to useful training on the job is a part of organizational support (Rothmann and Welsh, 2013). Previous studies have found positive relationships between organizational support and both job engagement and BPNW. For instance, Rothmann and Welsh (2013) found organizational support is moderately

associated with job engagement. In Van den Broeck *et al.*'s (2016) review, organizational support positively links to all needs of BPNW, and relates especially strongly to the need for autonomy. However, as mentioned at the beginning of this section, there is a lack of research on BPMW as a mediator of the relationship between HRD policies and job engagement. Therefore, the findings in the current study not only support previous studies on job engagement and on BPNW separately, but also confirm the role of BPNW as a mediator in the relationship between HRD policies and job engagement.

Within the third group of HRD policies (*work systems*), finding 5 shows that providing teaching assistants is one of the policies that lecturers most wanted to see broadly in the university, particularly for professors (as suggested in finding 12). Together with the other two policies in this group, i.e. reducing the standard teaching hours for lecturers undertaking postgraduate study and increasing expectations of publication, finding 10 has found that these three solutions can increase either lecturers' job engagement or disengagement. This is because the policies can facilitate lecturers' resources to meet the higher job demands, e.g. giving lecturers teaching assistants or lower teaching load so that they can have more time on research. In this way, lecturers feel competent and supported, leading to their higher job engagement. Conversely, the policies can also make lecturers exhausted because of the higher expectation of research publication while taking simultaneously different heavy roles, including teaching, research and administration. This results in lecturers feeling incompetent, not supported and not self-determined at work, leading to lower job engagement. Similar outcomes have been found in previous studies on both job engagement and BPNW. Livingston (2011) found the same problems with faculties' job

engagement in the United States. That is, they did not engage simultaneously in all three responsibilities (teaching, research and service) because of limited working time. More specifically, Nguyen, Klopper and Smith (2016) confirm that having a heavy teaching load is one of the greatest barriers to lecturers' engagement in research in the context of Vietnam. In both of these studies, academics were faced with high job demands in every sphere of responsibility. As a result, such high job demands may decrease academics' job engagement (Livingston, 2011) until they feel sufficiently competent and/or supported from the organization to meet the new higher demands.

Related to BPNW, Van den Broeck *et al.* (2016) found that work overload was negatively correlated with fulfilment of the need for autonomy and competence. Additionally, the demand conflict between different responsibilities, i.e. between teaching and research, diminished junior academics' BPNW in Germany (Esdar, Gorges and Wild, 2016). Although the studies above were conducted separately, they both suggest that satisfaction of BPNW is a mediating factor between the job demands and employees' job engagement. Specifically, based on Van den Broeck *et al.*'s (2016) study, high job demands decrease the satisfaction of autonomy and competence. Based on the studies on job engagement above, when the needs for autonomy and competence are not satisfied, they will decrease job engagement. Applying to the present study, the HRD policies associated with the university's job demands (e.g. higher expectation of research publication, postgraduate qualifications and teaching load) may negatively affect lecturers' needs for autonomy and competence, thereby decreasing their job engagement. Thus, finding 10 of the current study is in agreement with previous research.

For the group of HRD policies related to *career management*, finding 5 indicates that providing guidance on career plan is another policy that lecturers most wanted to be implemented in the university. This may explain why a review of MOET (cited in Hayden and Lam, 2010) concluded that there is no effective framework for decisions about career development in Vietnamese HE institutions. Finding 10 shows that the policies such as on-the-job training, life-long award of the job titles of Professor/Associate professor; and providing guidance for departmental managers on how to assign responsibilities to lecturers so that lecturers can meet the requirements of higher job levels can either increase or decrease lecturers' job engagement. For example, when supervisors support their subordinate lecturers in planning and achieving a clear and effective career path, and when managers help lecturers solve conflicts in career/work goals, lecturers' needs for being competent and supported are fulfilled leading to their higher job engagement. Conversely, supervisors' ineffective support, managers' avoidance of solving career/work conflict, and professor/associate professor holders' low commitment to high-quality research make lecturers feel incompetent, unsupported, and disconnected in value of fairness. These feelings result in lecturers' lower job engagement.

The outcomes above support Sarti's (2014; cited in Lee *et al.*, 2017) finding of positive relationship between supervisor support and employees' work engagement. Furthermore, Pham-Thai *et al.* (2018) claim that promotion is one of seven high-performance HR practices that increase lecturers' job engagement in Vietnam. Finding 10 above supports this claim in the way that perceived unfair promotion cannot increase lecturers' job engagement. More generally, Schaufeli and Salanova (2010, p. 411) assert that the key issue of employees' job

engagement is “to keep developing themselves through their career”. This is confirmed in the present study. When the lecturers can get career advancement fairly, they tend to invest themselves more in their job.

In terms of BPNW, fairness perception is positively related to the three basic needs (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). The same relationship is confirmed in the current study. For example, the policy of life-long persistence of Professor/Associate Professor title is perceived as a source of unfairness because it leads to a low commitment of the title-holders to high-quality research publications. It then results in lecturers feeling that their own sense of fairness is not related to the policy practice. Fairness is also confirmed as a predictor of job engagement (Albrecht, 2010). In the present study, lecturers’ perceived (un)fairness is revealed as a reason for job engagement and an antecedent of BPNW. Therefore, the impact of the policies regarding career management on fairness perception seems to extend and connect the separate outcomes related to the relationship between fairness and BPNW and job engagement.

Similarly, perceived organizational support, e.g. career and work support by managers/supervisors in the case, predicts BPNW (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016) and job engagement (Saks, 2006). For example, lecturers claimed that supervisors’ effective on-the-job training satisfied their needs for competence and relatedness, thus enhancing their job engagement. Thus, this variable connects the BPNW and job engagement, showing the relationship among the relevant policies and BPNW and job engagement.

For the fifth group related to *performance management*, the HRD policies and their implementation relate most to the university’s cultural values. This illustrates Leiter and Maslach’s (2010) claim that a performance management

system can be a setting in which the relevant parties can express and promote their values. For instance, finding 10 shows that because the criteria of performance evaluation are too general, their application becomes subjective and unfair, leading to equalized and emotionalized outcomes. Additionally, a lack of confidentiality in the collection of lecturers' evaluation on management practices leads to unethical and inadequate use of the feedback. In contrast to those practices, finding 12 indicates lecturers' recommendation of how to build a fair performance management system, through mechanisms such as KPI and external evaluation. These are indicative of a lack of value congruence between lecturers' expectations and the organization's practices, leading to an perceived lack of fit because of the lack of the shared values – an important component of faculty members' job engagement (Livingston, 2011) and an antecedent for employee job engagement (Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010). Furthermore, the lack of feedback confidentiality, like in the university case, is confirmed to have a negative influence on job engagement (Drory, 1993; Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984; cited in Jain and Ansari, 2018).

Moreover, the policy of minimum research hour/point standard seems to focus on quantitative rather than qualitative aspects of research outputs. This illustrates O'Meara *et al.*'s (2000; cited in Livingston, 2011) warning that focusing on the number of academics' outputs ignores more important measures such as the quality of their teaching, research, and service. In the university case, the quantitative focus not only leads to quality being overlooked but also gives rise to lecturers trying to achieve the required quantity via unethical ways. This adds to the value incongruence mentioned above.

The implementation of the university HR policies leads to the emergence of certain negative values, such as favouritism, including nepotism, and unethical work practices. This is in line with Ferris, Fedor, Chachere, & Pondy's (1989; cited in Cho and Yang, 2018) conclusion that negative values create a political environment in the organization in which behaviour is strategically designed to maximize one's self-interest. This leads lecturers to perceive the policy implementation as unfair. The findings also illustrate Mintzberg's (1983) and Kacmar and Baron's (1999) (cited in Jain and Ansari, 2018) claim that organizational politics have a considerable effect on performance evaluation, resource allocation and managerial decisions, causing a decrease in overall organizational efficiency and effectiveness. The current study has found that the negative values existing in such an environment reduce lecturers' job engagement. This supports Karatepe's (2013; cited in Jain and Ansari, 2018) claim that organizational politics has a negative relationship with work engagement.

Additionally, lecturers' feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness in such environment are diminished. This supports Van den Broeck *et al.*'s (2016) contention that organizational politics and perceived unfairness is negatively related to the three SDT needs. This is also confirmed by Cho and Yang's (2018) study. This found that perceived organizational politics affects employees' feeling of autonomy since they do not know which actions are appropriate in such an environment. As a result, value congruence affects both BPNW and job engagement. In the current study, when value congruence occurs, e.g. lecturers feel performance evaluation is fair (i.e. genuinely based on

performance outcomes), lecturers' BPNW are fulfilled leading to their higher job engagement. The opposite is also true as discussed above.

Similarly to performance management, the HRD policies related to *recognition/reward/compensation/punishment* are closely associated with the university/units' values. Specifically, the policies and their implementation make lecturers perceive the values of (un)fairness, (non-)equalization, (non-)emotionalism, (non-)favouritism, work (un)ethics in the university and its' units. This illustrates Fairweather's (2005, cited in Livingston, 2011) claim that HE institutions' values can be communicated through the reward and pay system. The perceived values such as (un)fairness, in turn, affect BPNW satisfaction (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016) and job engagement (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008; Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010).

Finding 5 confirms that the policies regarding recognition and reward based on performance outcomes have a positive impact on job engagement for over 75% of the respondents. This result is supported by the qualitative findings such as lecturers' fairness perception and recommendation of reward and recognition, and compensation based on their performance contribution and outcomes. These findings mean both financial and non-financial benefits of the reward/recognition/compensation/punishment system. Thus, they are in agreement with Pham-Thai *et al.*'s (2018) finding of a positive relationship between lecturers' job engagement and performance-related pay. However, this is different from Sarti's (2014; cited in Lee *et al.*, 2017) outcome that did not find a significant relationship between financial rewards and work engagement.

Finding 10 indicates that in some units, the reward and recognition operation is "just for fun", equalized, and based on out-of-job criteria. Together

with inadequate punishment implementation, the system of recognition/reward/compensation/punishment is perceived as ineffective and unfair. This leads to unsatisfied BPNW and decreased job engagement from those who believe they are not being adequately recognized and rewarded. This strongly supports Deci *et al.*'s (1977; cited in Fall and Roussel, 2014, p. 209) claim that "as far as compensation goes, when employees perceive unfairness, they feel less satisfied and make less effort in their work".

In principle, all of the units want to recognize and reward adequately lecturers who are excellent and good performers. However, when a lower award attracts a higher bonus (i.e. the second salary for staff getting the *good* performer award is higher than the monetary reward for staff getting the *excellent* performer one) or when punishment is inadequate, a circumstance arises that Clark (1986) and Fairweather (2002, 2005) (cited in Livingston, 2011) call "expecting one but rewarding the other". Thus, most lecturers only try to achieve the lower award rather than the higher award in order to receive the higher bonus. This seems to control lecturers' motivation to work. This contradicts Fall and Roussel's (2014) suggestion that compensation plans should not make employees feel controlled because according to SDT, the controlling reward will diminish lecturers' intrinsic work motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; cited in Fall and Roussel, 2014). Additionally, the system is said to reward everyone equally, rather than relying on an accurate assessment of the lecturers' real competence. As a result, it did not function as a positive reinforcement system specified by Bénabou and Tirole (2003; cited in Fall and Roussel, 2014).

The last group of HRD policies in the current study is about *organizational communication*. Finding 5 indicates that more than 50% of respondents want a

lecturer's handbook that includes HRD policies. Additionally, finding 10 shows that both of the policies of developing platforms to receive and feedback on lecturers' ideas/opinions, and publishing and updating lecturers' policy handbook have relationship with lecturers' BPNW, thereby affecting their job engagement. Specifically, the policies can contribute to or undermine the effectiveness/transparency of the university's procedure/internal process and the perceived safety of interpersonal/social relations. These can satisfy or diminish lecturers' feeling of autonomy, competence and relatedness, thereby increasing or decreasing their job engagement. The findings also confirm the importance and considerable impact of the two-way communication on lecturers' job engagement. This is in line with Pham-Thai *et al.*'s (2018) result that two-way communication can create a supportive atmosphere making employees feel trusted and safe to express and employ their selves in the job.

Lecturers expect to be informed and updated about what is going on in the university/units, including policies and practices, to feel more competent and connected at their workplace. This helps lecturers avoid having to beg for information, thus, also enhancing their feeling of autonomy. On this point, organizational communication is one aspect of organizational support which is confirmed to have a positive relationship with the three SDT needs (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016).

Lecturers' recommendations about effective organizational communication align with the literature. Leiter and Maslach (2010) suggest that maintaining ongoing communication, and informing employees of the organization's plans are effective ways to enhance individual capabilities and job engagement. Fearon, McLaughlin and Morris (2013) also emphasize that the strong lines of

communication that facilitate effective collective interaction between the organization and its employees can promote work engagement. Indeed, Byrne and MacDonagh (2017) conclude that having open lines of communication and recognizing employees' work effort can keep them engaged in the job even when they are overloaded. This is because employees' voices can be a driver of work engagement (Byrne and MacDonagh, 2017). This is confirmed in the current study because with effective two-way communication, lecturers can raise their voices, which make them satisfied with the work environment.

The specific communication solution of online forums recommended by the lecturers is an initiative also found in the literature in many forms such as surveys, blogs, meetings, or dialogues. This recommendation supports Imperatori's (2017) contention that the use of information technology facilitates better organizational communication. Thus, the different types of forum/technologies, in turn, can help organizations increase employees' participation in the job and workplace, meaning higher engagement (Leiter and Maslach, 2010).

Furthermore, encouraging lecturers to use online forums is seen as a direct way to communicate with management levels and thereby reduce the chance of (un)intentional information distortion by the people in between. This reflects the fear of fabrication of communication within a political environment which negatively affects job engagement (Drory, 1993; Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984; cited in Jain and Ansari, 2018), e.g. in the university/units' context.

In summary, chapter 5 has tried to discuss all of the findings in relation to the literature. There are many interesting points in the data. However, the discussion has focused on the twelve key findings and provided an in-depth comparison between the findings and previous studies in literature. As can be seen, the discussion shows that previous studies focus on the relationship between some HRD policies and BPNW or and job engagement separately. The present study clarifies the mediating role of BPNW between HRD policies and job engagement. This highlights the main contribution of the current study to the literature, which is the way that HRD policies impact on job engagement indirectly, by satisfying (or not satisfying) BPNW.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

The thesis has reported the journey of this research. This chapter, Conclusion, will summarize how and why the research questions were developed, how the study was designed and conducted, and what was found. Finally, this chapter will present the contribution of the thesis to the field, the perceived limitations of the study and recommendations for practice and further research.

6.1. Summary of the study

Job engagement has received more and more attention from researchers and practitioners in HRD (Zigarmi et.al., 2011; cited in Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi, 2014). This is because job engagement has been demonstrated to have a positive relationship with employees' well-being and performance, leading to improved organizational outcomes, such as higher productivity, e.g. profit, efficiency, or quality (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002; Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010). However, engagement is a two-way relationship. Thus, organizations have an important role to create the right work environment for employees' engagement, e.g. work place relationships and values (Wildermuth and Pauken, 2008). For this purpose, HRD policies, being interventions to develop employees, have provided positive solutions for employee engagement in organizations in different industries (Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi, 2014).

The university under examination has a strategic objective of integrating into global HE and being a pioneer of Vietnamese HE innovation (Đại học Tiên Phong [Tiên Phong University], 2014a). As such, it is having to face profound changes in global and national HE. For example, universities everywhere are

being asked to improve performance quality to meet what employers require from graduates in the new context of the knowledge and automation economy (Arvanitakis and Hornsby, 2016). In Vietnam, universities are also being asked to prepare human capital and knowledge/research resources for national industrialization and modernization (Thủ tướng [Prime Minister], 2012). All these contextual demands create pressures on lecturers who perform vital jobs in universities, e.g. greater expectations in teaching delivery and higher standards of research publication. As a result, these demands may lead to lecturers' overload and stress (Bowen, Rose and Pilkington, 2016), affecting their job engagement in their key job responsibilities (Byrne and MacDonagh, 2017). This can diminish lecturers' well-being and performance. Thus, this may lead to worse outcomes for the organization (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002; Rich, LePine and Crawford, 2010). In other words, engaged employees are more productive, creative, and willing to do extra work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008), while disengaged ones present a lack of commitment and motivation which can negatively affect organizational success (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010; Gallup, 2018). This is especially challenging for lecturers in the research site - a leading university with a pioneering mission. Thus, it should be a key concern of the university.

As mentioned before, HRD interventions can be potential solutions for the problem. However, there has been little research examining the psychological mechanism of how HRD can impact on job engagement, particularly under the framework of SDT (Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015). Specifically, from an SDT perspective, it is argued that the mechanism is that HRD policies can satisfy their BPNW, which, in turns, keeps employees engaged in their job.

Responding to the call for better theory and practical solutions, the current study developed two main research questions as follows:

1. How are current HRD policies affecting lecturers' BPNW, and through this, their job engagement?

2. How can the university use HRD policies to enhance lecturers' job engagement through affecting lecturers' BPNW?

To answer the first question, two sub-questions were developed, as below:

1.1. What are the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement?

1.2. How does the lecturers' satisfaction of BPNW by the HRD policies relate to the reasons for lecturers' job engagement and disengagement?

Based on the research questions, a *mixed method approach* was chosen in order to provide extensive quantitative and in-depth qualitative data about the research problem for researchers and policy makers. For these purposes, a *questionnaire* was designed and electronically delivered. Additionally, a *semi-structured interview* was conducted to get rich data to answer the questions. The measures of job engagement and BPNW developed by previous studies were considered. As a result, UWES and BPNWS were selected for use in the questionnaire. The study also adopted a definition of HRD which encompasses two components, i.e. competence development and cultural development, from the plethora of HRD definitions found in the literature. Specifically, HRD "is a mechanism in shaping individual and group values and beliefs and skilling through learning-related activities to support the desired performance of the host system" (Wang *et al.*, 2017, p. 1175). The selected definition underpinned the

questions in the questionnaire and interviews as well as the data analysis and discussion.

After analyzing data from 406 useable responses to the questionnaire and 43 interviews, the study arrived at twelve findings. *Findings 1 to 8* are based on the quantitative data. Specifically, the three-factor model of UWES has not been confirmed while that of BPNW has been found in the sample. More than 50% of the respondents have medium job engagement, 38.9% have high engagement and approximate 5% have low engagement. Job engagement has a weak relationship with age, job level, and qualification; a modest relationship with Professor/Associate professor title and management position; and no relationship with working department, teaching field, gender, and length of experience. Because the weak effect size indicates a very small influence of the variables on each other (Klassen *et al.*, 2012), the university should pay attention to the variables that, at least, modestly affect lecturers' job engagement. Specifically, professors/associate professors have higher job engagement than those who have not been awarded the titles; and manager lecturers have higher job engagement than the remaining staff. This suggests that policy makers need to consider the relevant HRD policies, e.g. the policy of life-long award for the job titles and policies of managerial development.

Most of the university's and units' HRD policies increase lecturers' job engagement. Around 70% of the respondents agreed on the positive influence of the university HRD policies on their needs for autonomy, competence, and a trustworthy and supportive work environment. However, the remaining 30% who disagreed represents a considerable challenge for the university policy-makers.

There is no relationship between lecturers' agreeing about the positive influence of the policies and the various demographical groups, except for the two groups related to management position. Specifically, many more manager-than non-manager lecturers recognize the positive impact of HRD policies on their needs for a trustworthy and supportive work environment. Job engagement has a positive relationship with lecturers' overall evaluation of the positive impact of the university's HRD policies on the four needs mentioned. In other words, lecturers who have higher level of job engagement tend to say that the HRD policies more satisfy their needs for autonomy, competence, and a trustworthy and supportive work environment.

Certain types of HRD policies, e.g. offering training programmes, and recognition and reward based on performance outcomes have the most positive impact on the respondents' job engagement. The policies of providing teaching assistance, guidance on career plan, and lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies are most frequently highlighted for adoption. The policies of training on how to transfer research outcomes into practice and providing guidance for line managers on how to support lecturers' career advancement are known least by the respondents.

Findings 9 to 12 are based on the qualitative data. Specifically, the findings highlight three groups of reasons for lecturers' job (dis)engagement. The first group is related to the job itself (i.e. job meaningfulness, positive interpersonal and social relations at job level, job demands at job level, good social status, flexible working time, and financial benefits). The second group is related to lecturers' personal resources (i.e. competence, love of the job, and sense of self-responsibility). The final group is related to organizational factors (i.e. job

demands at organizational level, organizational structure, HR quality, interpersonal and social relations at organizational level, organizational culture, procedures/internal processes, and financial compensation). The results also indicate that lecturers who focus exclusively on their own career goals are likely to have their needs satisfied already, leading to their feeling that HRD policies have almost no impact on their BPNW and job engagement. Moreover, lecturers' frustration at the organization's long-lasting negative practices make them feel there is almost no impact of HRD policies on their job engagement. The feeling of frustration can explain why, for the quantitative outcome presented earlier, 30% of the respondents disagreed about the positive impact of HRD policies on their needs for autonomy, competence, and a trustworthy and supportive work environment, which in turns, reduces lecturers' job engagement.

It needs to be remembered that all of the interviewees belong to the 95% respondents who have medium and high job engagement because all of the volunteers with low job engagement could not commit to a definite time for the interview. This may be a weakness of this study. Nonetheless, the interviewees provided extensive in-depth information on the practices that can mean lecturers' BPNW go unsatisfied and they are disengaged from their job, e.g. work decisions based on favouritism, work dishonesty, and performance evaluation based on emotionalism and equalization. There seems to be a paradox between the quantitative (i.e. 95% respondents have medium and high job engagement) and qualitative findings (i.e. a great deal of negative practices which can reduce lecturers' job engagement). In fact, the interviewees clearly explained the reasons for their job engagement but, at the same time, they were very critical about the negative practices that led to their feeling of unfairness, which can reduce

lecturers' job engagement. They showed their desire to make the practices better (in order to enhance their job engagement still further) by providing many detailed suggestions for improvement.

The qualitative findings confirm that the way HRD policies do or do not satisfy lecturers' BPNW links to the reasons for their job engagement or disengagement. This also confirms the mediating role of BPNW in the relationship between HRD policies and job engagement. Specifically, the policies related to training and supporting lecturers' competence development satisfy their needs for competence to master their job and the work environment, and for being cared for by the organization. These link to the reasons of lecturers' perception of the job meaningfulness, of how to meet the job demands, and of support to get better financial compensation. Thus, the policies can increase lecturers' job engagement and vice versa.

The policies related to the work system, i.e. reducing teaching hours so lecturers can attend training, providing teaching assistants, and increasing expectation of publication mainly affect lecturers' needs for competence and relatedness. If lecturers feel supported and able to work more effectively even when faced with higher work requirements, they will likely feel greater job engagement and vice versa.

When the policies related to career management fulfill lecturers' needs for being autonomous in their career path, for competence, and being supported by their supervisors/managers, the policies can increase lecturers' job engagement. This is because, satisfying these needs links to lecturers' expectation of having good interpersonal and social relations, being competent to meet the job demands, and being respected/supported with fairness in workplace.

The policies related to recognition/reward/compensation/punishment and performance management satisfy lecturers' feelings of fairness and being respected (relatedness). These policies can increase lecturers' job engagement because they link to the reasons of expected positive values and effective organizational procedures.

The policies related to effective two-way communication satisfy lecturers' feelings of being self-determined (autonomy), mastering the work (competence), and being heard, respected and understood at work (relatedness) by providing them with transparent and essential information/instructions. These link to two main reasons for lecturers' job engagement, namely transparent and effective information/instructions and good interpersonal and social relations.

As such, both quantitative and qualitative results confirm that the satisfaction of lecturers' BPNW by HRD policies can affect lecturers' job engagement. This is a clear answer for Research Question 1.

With respect to Research Question 2, lecturers recommend specific solutions related to all groups of HRD and their perceived shortcomings.

With respect to *training*, it is not easy for lecturers to attend training programmes because of heavy teaching and administrative work. Thus, the university should carefully analyze lecturers' training needs and make the training programmes about how to transfer knowledge/research outcomes more application-oriented than theory-oriented. This will increase the transferability post training. This helps lecturers improve their efficacy and effectiveness to overcome the heavy workload and received more benefit from training.

With respect to *supporting lecturers' competence development* (i.e. sabbatical leave, providing teaching assistants, and connecting research/researchers with business corporations and organizations using scientific services/outcomes), the main challenges include an organizational lack of financial and HR resources to deal with heavy workloads, research grants, the remained first salary, hiring more staff where required, and a jealous climate spread by those who cannot receive benefits from these policies. Thus, it is recommended that the university gets agreement on specific research outcomes from lecturers who take sabbatical leave. Doing this will optimize return on investment. Additionally, it is recommended to overcome the financial constraints by providing teaching assistance for professors only rather than for all lecturers. This will keep professors' talents directed at the more difficult tasks. Another recommendation is supporting lecturers to look for investors/partners to develop their research outcomes and market their final products to get benefits for both the university and lecturers. Lecturers emphasize that it is important to communicate well about the policies in order to solve the problem of jealousy.

For *career management*, lecturers expect more proactive responses from managers/supervisors to solve the conflict between lecturers' objectives/directions and the organizational task allocation. This recommendation is important to overcome the challenge from the paternalistic style of supervisors or older/senior staff when leading younger/junior lecturers. Changing from the life-long to term-fixed award of professor/associate professor titles was recommended to increase the commitment of the title-holders to responsibilities requiring higher level of talent. This may be resisted by the current title-holders.

For *performance management and recognition and reward/ compensation/ punishment*, the biggest challenges are the negative values/practices (e.g. favouritism, work dishonesty, unfairness) that have been accepted within the university for a long time. Thus, the university should apply KPIs and external evaluation of lecturers' work outcomes to change the current vague evaluation system and to promote a fair work environment. The university should also restructure the compensation system so that it is fairer and more motivating, i.e. providing fair compensation for every single responsibility that lecturers take on and adequate bonuses for relevant awards.

All of the recommendations aim to make the relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' BPNW more effective in order to enhance lecturers' job engagement.

6.2. Contribution

The study has contributed to the body of knowledge on job engagement, BPNW, and HRD in a number of ways. Firstly, the study uses the UWES in Vietnamese, and with a sample of Vietnamese lecturers. This contributes to the international database of the scale to suggest how to use the scale generally or in a Vietnamese context. Because the study did not confirm the three-factor structure of UWES, it supports the suggestion that researchers should test how well the scale fits their sample first, instead of automatically applying the original three-factor model of UWES (Klassen *et al.*, 2012).

Secondly, the study supports previous research on the antecedents of job engagement. For example, the study confirms the antecedents found by Byrne and MacDonagh (2017), namely the meaningfulness of the job, the job feature of

interpersonal and social relations, and lecturers' love of the job. Additionally, the study adds two distinctive reasons for lecturers' job engagement in the Vietnamese context, e.g. flexible working time is seen as an advantage of the job because it helps lecturers do additional jobs for the purpose of income generation, and organizational culture (e.g. family spirit, and favouritism).

Furthermore, chapter 5 discussed lecturers' job resources in relation to their job demand in the context of the JD-R theory originally proposed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007). Specifically, the current study found that lecturers' job resources (mainly mentioned above) make them able to meet the job demands, i.e. the requirements of continuously innovating, updating the work, and self-improving lecturers' competence; and the university's working requirements (e.g. the standard of minimum teaching/research hours; administrative responsibility). In this way, the study demonstrates the motivational mechanism underpinning the JD-R theory that links to the enhancement of lecturers' job engagement. Specifically, the satisfaction of the job resources fulfils lecturers' BPNW in order to meet the job demands, leading to high work engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016).

Thirdly, the current study responds to the call to validate BPNWS across nations (Sánchez-Oliva *et al.*, 2017). Indeed, to my knowledge, this is the first time BPNWS has been translated into Vietnamese and tested with a sample of Vietnamese lecturers. The confirmation of BPNWS in this study contributes to the validation of the scale. This supports Sánchez-Oliva *et al.*'s (2017) suggestion of a potential use of BPNWS in different country settings.

Fourthly, because there have been little research in the HRD field examining the critical influence of BPNW, as a mediator on job engagement

(Shuck, Zigarmi and Owen, 2015), the present study provides empirical evidence of the mediating role of BPNW in the relationship between HRD and job engagement. In particular, it investigates lecturers' opinion, as insiders, of their BPNW and job engagement and recommendations related to HRD policies. This contributes to the cross-country literature on these topics.

Fifthly, the study has been developed using the relatively new definition of HRD proposed by Wang *et.al* (2017). This definition specifies two clear components of HRD, which facilitates determining the HRD policies in the study. Therefore, the study is an illustration of the possibility of applying the definition in research on HRD practice.

Finally, the findings contribute empirical evidence to a new area of exploration in HRD, which is the impact of the relationship between organizational alignment and employee engagement on individual performance. According to Alagaraja and Shuck, organizational alignment is the fit/integration of "intricate complexities of internal networks, processes, and connections to the external environment" (2015, p. 18). As can be seen, all proposed HRD policies can affect the relationship because the purpose of the policies is to operate all processes in the organization. More specifically, the study has identified key HRD policies/interventions, namely providing different platforms to receive and feedback lecturers' opinions, and publishing lecturers' handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies. The implementation of these policies can promote a positive relationship between the university's/units' procedures/internal processes and lecturers' job engagement. Lecturers claimed that such a relationship, in turn, has positive impact on their performance. This claim demonstrates Alagaraja and

Shuck's (2015) inference of the potential of HRD to improve individual performance.

6.3. Limitations

Although the study has made several contributions to the field, it also has some limitations. First of all, the study used a self-report questionnaire to measure lecturers' job engagement, BPNW, and their evaluation and recommendations of how HRD policies can satisfy their psychological needs at work, thus enhancing their job engagement. A self-report questionnaire is a useful tool to collect a large number of responses, but it might include invalid answers (Demetriou, Ozer and Essau, 2015). The invalid answers may be caused by the respondents' tendency to respond in a certain way regardless of the item content, and/or a lack of clarity in the item content (Demetriou, Ozer and Essau, 2015). There may be other problems with participants a) misunderstanding the questionnaire items, b) giving answers they believe to be true but are not (because they lack self-awareness) or c) deliberately lying (because they want to appear more impressive) (Demetriou, Ozer and Essau, 2015). Therefore, "it is never clear precisely what is being measured" (Razavi, 2001, p. 4). In other words, it is impossible to control every reason for the invalid answers, especially the reasons from the respondents' viewpoint. Therefore, the study has to accept the imperfection of self-report questionnaires. Nevertheless, in-depth interviews were used as a way to triangulate the research outcomes as presented in chapter 3, page150-151.

Another limitation is related to BPNWS. As discussed in chapter 3 (page 121), and chapter 5 (page 281-282), section D was initially intended to measure

lecturers' overall evaluation of the impact of HRD policies on their BPNW. However, because four items on the need for relatedness are very specific (Longo *et al.*, 2016), it would have been difficult to state directly and explicitly that HRD policies can satisfy lecturers' need for being able to trust their coworkers, for being understood and heard, and for being a friend with their coworkers. Therefore, the four items were replaced with two items about feeling of a trustworthy and supportive work environment. This made it easier for respondents to understand the relationship between HRD policies and their need for caring about and being cared for in the workplace. However, the scale of BPNW, here, could not be used in its full form. Thus, this does not allow the study to conclude directly about the quantitative relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' need for relatedness as measured exactly in BPNWS.

Additionally, the study cannot test the relationship between UWES and BPNWS to make more quantitative contributions. This limitation is because the three-factor model of UWES was not confirmed and the two-factor model produced poor fit to the sample. Thus, the study used the total score of UWES for the tests in SPSS. Meanwhile, previous studies do not recommend using the average or total score for BPNWS because the three SDT needs predict unique variance, meaning it would be inappropriate to average the measures (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2016). As a result, it is not appropriate to run tests with the total or average BPNWS in SPSS. This is a limitation of the study.

Moreover, as discussed in chapter 5 (page 296), finding 7 has found that more manager- than non-manager lecturers recognize the positive impact of HRD policies on their feeling of a trustworthy and supportive work environment. To

my knowledge, this issue has not been mentioned in the literature of HRD. It is a pity that this difference was not explored further in the interviews.

One more limitation is the low response rate to the email questionnaires of the study. Previous studies have found that the response rate is between 20% and 28.5% for single contact (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2006). It rises to 41% for two contacts and 57% for three or more contacts (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). In the current study, although lecturers were contacted up to three times, the response rate is just 26%. This may be because respondents were given only one month in which to respond.

Finally, interview sampling relied on volunteers. As a result, the participation rates of different demographical groups of interviewees were not as balanced as expected. For example, there was only one lecturer from Unit 5 and one from School 8. Likewise, there was no lecturer with low engagement, compared to 16 with medium engagement and 27 with high engagement. This might have restricted the richness of the data. However, as mentioned earlier, although the interviewees had medium and high job engagement, they were very critical when providing detailed information on how negative practices can lower lecturers' job engagement. Thus, data about the antecedents and consequences of disengagement were still plentiful.

6.4. Recommendations

6.4.1. For the university and units

For the university and its units, it is important to approach the HRD from a definition which specifies the key characteristics of HRD. As discussed in chapter 2 (page 67), the definition of HRD proposed by Wang *et al.* (2017) may

be a useful starting point. This is because the definition illustrates the nature of HRD on the basis of which, a comprehensive framework of HRD interventions can be identified. This systematic approach may help the organization effectively integrate the interventions and avoid conflicts between them.

The study recommends that the university and its units use surveys or other methods to investigate lecturers' job engagement/BPNW and the influence of HRD policies, periodically and whenever signs of dissatisfaction appear, e.g. turnover and/or complaints from stakeholders increase. This helps the organization not only collect lecturers' opinions but also demonstrate that it cares about lecturers' feelings and ideas.

The findings show the existence of some problems in the university/units arising from negative values, e.g. favouritism, work dishonesty, and unfairness. This affects all procedures and internal processes of the organizations, including policy implementation. The negative values have lowered job engagement of a number of lecturers and need to be tackled. These problems relate directly to HRD because HRD is a mechanism for shaping cultural values and skilling people based on the outcomes of the shaping process (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, the organization needs to care about not only the content of the policies but also the way policies are practised and values enacted.

Finally, the university/units should consider what lecturers suggest in this study, e.g. how to improve training programmes, to adjust the reward/recognition/compensation/punishment systems, to review performance management, and to improve the procedures/internal processes to better align organizational and employee goals. These may provide the university/units with suitable solutions to the current problems and a sustainable future.

6.4.2. For further research

The present study has investigated the relationship between HRD policies and lecturers' job engagement through the mediator of BPNW satisfaction in the context of Vietnamese HE. It is hoped that further research can validate the findings/relationship in different contexts, e.g. other industries within Vietnam, and other countries.

Based on the discussion of finding 1 in chapter 5, this study endorses Wefald and Downey's (2009) recommendation that, future researchers should check the operationalization of UWES in order to decide how to use the scale for their research and what quantitative models should be applied.

With regard to BPNW, it is recommended that future research should further develop the operationalization of the need for relatedness to facilitate both quantitative and qualitative design within a mixed methodology approach in the field of policy studies. This is because the current items measuring the need for relatedness in BPNWS are very specific (Longo *et al.*, 2016), being most suitable for research at the individual level. Thus, the items are not easily applied to a unit of organization or, indeed, the whole organization. As a result, this presents a change when designing research instruments for topics at the organizational level such as HRD policies.

Although the present study confirms the mediating role of BPNW in the relationship between HRD policies and job engagement, it did not measure how much the satisfaction of BPNW by HRD policies can affect job engagement. Therefore, more quantitative research is needed to investigate the precise nature of the relationship.

To sum up, this study investigated the impact of HRD policies on job engagement through BPNW fulfillment within a university context in Vietnam. It found that HRD policies enhance lecturers' job engagement when they satisfy lecturers' BPNW. In other words, the more HRD policies create an autonomous, effective, trustworthy and supportive work environment, the more likely they are to satisfy lecturers' needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. Furthermore, the study identified various problems with the implementation of HRD policies, which can lead to lecturers' job disengagement. These problems include favouritism, unfairness, and work dishonesty. Of course, more research is needed, both quantitative and qualitative, to better understand the precise relationship, and especially the psychological mechanisms underpinning it, between HRD policies and job engagement in different contexts.

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Appendix 1. Questionnaire

(English version)

SURVEY:

THE IMPACT OF HRD POLICIES ON LECTURERS' JOB ENGAGEMENT

Dear Lecturers,

I am Nguyen Anh Thu, a lecturer of [name of the University], and a PhD student of The University of Warwick, The United Kingdom.

I am doing a study on the impact of HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement in [name of the University], to make recommendations on how HRD policies can help the university enhance lecturers' job engagement.

Below is the questionnaire to collect data for the study. I would appreciate your taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

Your responses are voluntary, will be confidential and are used only for the purpose of research.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me via ---@warwick.ac.uk, or [my business email]; or email to my supervisor, Dr. Justine Mercer, at [email address].

Thank you so much.

Nguyen Anh Thu

SECTION A

Question 1: Please select the levels of the scale which best reflect your opinion on the following statements.

	Never 0	Almost never (A few times a year or less) 1	Rarely (Once a month or less) 2	Sometimes (A few times a month) 3	Often (Once a week) 4	Very often (A few times a week) 5	Always (everyday) 6
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Time flies when I am working.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
My job inspires me.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I feel happy when I am working intensely	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am proud of the work that I do	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am immersed in my work	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
To me, my job is challenging.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I get carried away when I am working.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

SECTION B

Question 2: Please select the levels of the scale which best reflect your opinion on the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly disagree 3	Slightly agree 4	Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
My work allows me to make decisions.	0	0	0	0	0	0
I can use my judgement when solving work-related problems.	0	0	0	0	0	0
I can take on responsibilities at my job.	0	0	0	0	0	0
At my work, I feel free to execute my tasks in my own way.	0	0	0	0	0	0
I have the ability to do my work well.	0	0	0	0	0	0
I feel competent at work.	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am able to solve problems at work.	0	0	0	0	0	0
I succeed in my work.	0	0	0	0	0	0
When I am with the people from my work environment, I feel understood.	0	0	0	0	0	0
When I am with the people from my work environment, I feel heard.	0	0	0	0	0	0
When I am with the people from my work environment, I feel as though I can trust them.	0	0	0	0	0	0
When I am with the people from my work environment, I feel I am a friend to them.	0	0	0	0	0	0

SECTION C

Question 3: Please give me your opinion about the following human resource development (HRD) policies.

In this research, policy refers to written statements online and in hard copy that guide the managers and employees on how to handle issues in the organization. Besides, the activities which are officially implemented and written in organizational documents are seen as the content of policies.

HRD policies pertain to training, career development, performance appraisal, and recognition and rewards, etc.

For each policy/activity, please select answers in ONLY one of three columns below:

- Column “BEING IN PLACE”: If the policy is in place in your organization, please select the level of its impact on your engagement according to the provided scale.

- Column “NOT BEING IN PLACE”: If the policy has not been put in place in your organization, please choose your preference of applying it according to the provided scale.

- Column “DO NOT KNOW”: If you do not know whether the policy has been in place in your organization, please select this column.

HRD Policies/Activities	BEING IN PLACE	NOT BEING IN PLACE	DO NOT KNOW
Offering training programmes in teaching methods and/or research methods and skills	▼ - Strongly reduces my engagement; - Slightly reduces my engagement;	▼ - Should be adopted as the highest priority; - Should be adopted soon;	0
Offering training programmes in how to transfer research outcomes into practice	- No impact; - Slightly increase my engagement; - Strongly increase my engagement	- Should be adopted when possible; - Should not be adopted	0
On-the-job training delivered by supervisors and/or managers			0

Funding (wholly or partially) for other programmes to enhance lecturer's competence (e.g. postgraduate study and/or activities related to lecturer's competence enhancement, e.g. academic conferences)			0
Reducing teaching for training attendance without loss of proper compensation (e.g. reducing required teaching hours; teaching leave for training attendance, etc.)	▼ - Strongly reduces my engagement;		0
Paid sabbatical leave for research or internship.	- Slightly reduces my engagement;	▼ - Should be adopted as the highest priority;	0
Providing teaching assistants to reduce lecturer's overwork.	- No impact;	- Should be adopted soon;	0
Providing guidance on how to develop a career plan for lecturers	- Slightly increase my engagement;	- Should be adopted when possible;	0
Providing guidance for departmental/line managers on how to assign responsibilities to lecturers so that they can meet the requirements of higher job ranks and positions.	- Strongly increase my engagement	- Should not be adopted	0
Developing platforms to receive lecturers' opinions regarding organizational work and give lecturers detailed feedback on their opinions.			0
Publishing lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies			0

Performance appraisal based on performance outcomes			0
Issuing regulations to ensure the performance appraisal system accurately classifies the levels and quality of lecturers' performance.	▼ - Strongly reduces my engagement; - Slightly reduces my engagement; - No impact; - Slightly increase my engagement; - Strongly increase my engagement	▼ - Should be adopted as the highest priority; - Should be adopted soon; - Should be adopted when possible; - Should not be adopted	0
Recognition and reward based on performance outcomes			0
Recognition and reward based on seniority			0
Recognition and reward based on qualification/professional certificates			0
Recognition and reward based on managerial levels and positions.			0

Other HRD policies that you are interested in?

	BEING IN PLACE	NOT BEING IN PLACE
Other HRD policy 1	▼ - Strongly reduces my engagement; - Slightly reduces my engagement; - No impact; - Slightly increase my engagement; - Strongly increase my engagement	▼ - Should be adopted as the highest priority; - Should be adopted soon; - Should be adopted when possible; - Should not be adopted
Other HRD policy 2		
Other HRD policy 3		
Other HRD policy 4		
Other HRD policy 5		

SECTION D

Question 4: Please select the levels of the scale which best reflect your opinion on the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Slightly Agree 4	Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
Overall, the current HRD policies make me feel autonomous at work.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Overall, the current HRD policies create conditions for me to complete my job well.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment trustworthy	0	0	0	0	0	0
Overall, the current HRD policies make my work environment supportive	0	0	0	0	0	0

SECTION E

Your personal information

Question 5: Please tell me about your ages.

- Below 30
- From 30 to Under 40
- From 40 to Under 50
- 50 or Above

Question 6: Please tell me your gender.

- Female
 - Male
-

Question 7: Please tell me about your job level.

- Lecturer assistant
 - Lecturer
 - Senior lecturer
 - Superior lecturer
-

Question 8: Please tell me about your qualification.

- Bachelor
 - Master
 - Professional Doctorate
 - PhD
-

Question 9: Please tell me your job title.

- Professor
 - Associate Professor
 - Not applicable
-

Question 10: Please tell me your affiliated university or school.

- [Affiliated University/School 1]
- [Affiliated University/School 2]
- [Affiliated University/School 3]
- [Affiliated University/School 4]
- [Affiliated University/School 5]
- [Affiliated University/School 6]
- [Affiliated University/School 7]
- [Affiliated University/School 8]

Question 11: Please tell me about your main discipline of teaching.

Question 12: Please tell me about your management position (if applicable).

Question 13: How many years have you been working in the university?

Question 14: Do you agree to participate in in-depth interviews of this study (taken in July or August 2017)?

- Yes
- No

If Yes, please provide your contact details below for facilitating the arrangement of interviews.

- Your name _____
- Your preferred email _____
- Your phone number _____
- Suitable time period(s) for you to be interviewed (in July or August 2017 if known) _____

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Please click the button >> bellow to submit your answers

THANK YOU SO MUCH.

Questionnaire

(Vietnamese version)

KHẢO SÁT: ẢNH HƯỞNG CỦA CHÍNH SÁCH PHÁT TRIỂN NGUỒN NHÂN LỰC ĐẾN SỰ GẮN KẾT VỚI CÔNG VIỆC CỦA GIÁNG VIÊN

Kính gửi Quý Thầy/Cô,

Tôi là Nguyễn Anh Thư, là giảng viên trường _____, và là nghiên cứu sinh tại đại học Warwick, Vương quốc Anh.

Tôi đang thực hiện đề tài nghiên cứu về ảnh hưởng của chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực đến sự gắn kết với công việc của giảng viên ở _____. Nghiên cứu này hướng đến đề xuất cách thức mà các chính sách có thể góp phần tăng cường sự gắn kết với công việc của giảng viên.

Dưới đây là bảng hỏi để thu thập dữ liệu cho nghiên cứu của tôi. Rất cảm ơn Thầy/Cô đã dành thời gian để trả lời bảng hỏi này.

Nội dung trả lời của Thầy/Cô là hoàn toàn tự nguyện, sẽ được giữ kín và chỉ được sử dụng cho mục đích nghiên cứu.

Nếu Thầy/Cô có bất kỳ câu hỏi hay băn khoăn gì, Thầy/Cô có thể trao đổi với tôi qua email: @warwick.ac.uk, hoặc edu.vn; hoặc gửi email tới TS. Justine Mercer, giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi, theo địa chỉ @warwick.ac.uk.

Một lần nữa, xin trân trọng cảm ơn Thầy/Cô.
Nguyễn Anh Thư

PHẦN A

Câu hỏi 1: Thầy/Cô vui lòng chọn mức độ biểu hiện của những mệnh đề dưới đây phù hợp với mình nhất.

	Không bao giờ 0	Hầu như không (Vài lần/1 năm hoặc ít hơn) 1	Hiếm khi (1 lần/1 tháng hoặc ít hơn) 2	Thỉnh thoảng (Vài lần/1 tháng) 3	Thường xuyên (1 lần/1 tuần) 4	Rất thường xuyên (Vài lần/1 tuần) 5	Luôn luôn (Hàng ngày) 6
Khi làm việc, tôi thấy mình tràn đầy năng lượng.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi thấy công việc mình đang làm rất ý nghĩa và có mục đích.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi thấy thời gian trôi nhanh khi tôi làm việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Khi làm việc, tôi thấy mạnh mẽ và đầy sinh lực.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi nhiệt tình với công việc của mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Khi làm việc, tôi quên hết mọi thứ quanh mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công việc truyền cảm hứng cho tôi.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Khi thức dậy vào buổi sáng, tôi cảm thấy muốn làm việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi thấy vui khi làm việc với cường độ cao.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi tự hào về công việc mình làm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi chìm đắm trong công việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mỗi lần làm việc, tôi có thể làm liên tục trong một khoảng thời gian rất dài.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Đối với tôi, công việc của giảng viên đầy thách thức.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi bị cuốn vào công việc đến mê mải.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi có tinh thần bền bỉ khi làm việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi thấy rất khó để tách mình khỏi công việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi liên tục cố gắng ngay cả khi công việc không suôn sẻ.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>

PHẦN B

Câu hỏi 2: Thầy/Cô vui lòng chọn mức độ đồng ý của mình với những nhận định sau:

	Rất không đồng ý 1	Không đồng ý 2	Khá không đồng ý 3	Khá đồng ý 4	Đồng ý 5	Rất đồng ý 6
Công việc cho phép tôi tự ra quyết định.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi có thể sử dụng ý kiến của mình khi giải quyết các vấn đề liên quan đến công việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi có thể đứng ra đảm nhận các trọng trách trong công việc của mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trong công việc, tôi cảm thấy thoải mái thực hiện các nhiệm vụ theo cách của mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi có thể thực hiện được công việc của mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi thấy mình đủ năng lực làm việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi có thể giải quyết các vấn đề phát sinh trong công việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi thành công trong công việc của mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi cảm thấy được đồng nghiệp hiểu mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi cảm thấy được đồng nghiệp lắng nghe.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
Tôi cảm thấy có thể tin tưởng được đồng nghiệp.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi cảm thấy tôi như là người bạn với đồng nghiệp của mình.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

PHẦN C

Câu hỏi 3: Thầy/Cô vui lòng chia sẻ ý kiến về những chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực sau đây.

Trong nghiên cứu này, Chính sách được hiểu khái quát là các tuyên bố thành văn (được phổ biến trực tuyến hoặc trong văn bản giấy) có vai trò hướng dẫn các nhà quản lý và nhân viên giải quyết các vấn đề trong tổ chức. Bên cạnh đó, các hoạt động chính thức được áp dụng trong toàn tổ chức và được ban hành trong các văn bản của tổ chức cũng được xem là nội dung của chính sách.

Chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực đề cập đến các lĩnh vực đào tạo - bồi dưỡng nhân viên, phát triển sự nghiệp của nhân viên, đánh giá thực hiện công việc của nhân viên, ghi nhận và khen thưởng nhân viên, .v.v.

Với mỗi chính sách/hoạt động, Thầy/Cô vui lòng **CHỈ CHỌN MỘT** trong các cột sau:

- Cột "ĐANG ĐƯỢC THỰC HIỆN": Nếu chính sách đang được thực hiện ở đơn vị của Thầy/Cô, Thầy/Cô hãy chọn mức độ ảnh hưởng của chính sách đó tới sự gắn kết của mình với công việc theo thang đo được cung cấp.

- Cột "CHƯA ĐƯỢC THỰC HIỆN": Nếu chính sách chưa được triển khai ở đơn vị của Thầy/Cô, Thầy/Cô hãy chọn mức độ ưu tiên cho việc áp dụng chính sách đó theo thang đo được cung cấp.

- Cột "KHÔNG BIẾT": Thầy/Cô chọn cột này nếu không biết chính sách có được áp dụng ở đơn vị

minh hay không.

	ĐANG ĐƯỢC THỰC HIỆN	CHƯA ĐƯỢC THỰC HIỆN	KHÔNG BIẾT
			0
Tổ chức các khóa đào tạo về phương pháp giảng dạy và/hoặc phương pháp nghiên cứu khoa học.	<input type="text" value="Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tổ chức các khóa đào tạo về phương pháp chuyển giao kết quả nghiên cứu vào thực tế.	<input type="text" value="Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Đào tạo trong công việc dưới sự hướng dẫn của một giảng viên có kinh nghiệm (supervisor) và/hoặc người quản lý.	<input type="text" value="Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hỗ trợ kinh phí (toàn bộ hoặc một phần) cho các chương trình nâng cao năng lực khác của giảng viên. (Ví dụ: học sau đại học, dự hội thảo khoa học, .v.v.).	<input type="text" value="Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Giảm việc giảng dạy để giảng viên tham gia bồi dưỡng nâng cao trình độ (vấn duy trì đãi ngộ phù hợp). (Ví dụ: Giảm giờ định mức, tạm ngừng giảng dạy để tham gia các khóa đào tạo, .v.v).	<input type="text" value="Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nghỉ làm việc có hưởng lương để làm nghiên cứu hoặc đi thực tế.	<input type="text" value="Tăng mạnh gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Phát triển đội ngũ trợ giảng để giảm tải công việc của giảng viên.	<input type="text" value="Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hướng dẫn cách thức lập lộ trình phát triển sự nghiệp cho giảng viên.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text" value="Nên áp dụng sớm"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Hướng dẫn lãnh đạo đơn vị về việc giao nhiệm vụ cho giảng viên để họ có thể đáp ứng đủ điều kiện của việc nâng bậc chuyên môn và/hoặc đề bạt.	<input type="text"/>	Nên áp dụng sớm	<input type="checkbox"/>
Phát triển các hình thức tiếp nhận ý kiến của giảng viên về công việc của nhà trường và phản hồi chi tiết đối với ý kiến của họ.	<input type="text"/>	Nên áp dụng sớm	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ban hành Sổ tay giảng viên trong đó công bố đầy đủ hệ thống chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực.	<input type="text"/>	Nên áp dụng khi có thể	<input type="checkbox"/>
Đánh giá thực hiện công việc dựa trên kết quả thực hiện.	Tăng mạnh gắn kết với công việc	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ban hành các quy định để đảm bảo hệ thống đánh giá thực hiện công việc phân loại được chính xác mức độ và chất lượng hoàn thành công việc của giảng viên.	<input type="text"/>	Ưu tiên áp dụng cao nhất	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ghi nhận và khen thưởng dựa trên kết quả thực hiện công việc.	Tăng mạnh gắn kết với công việc	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ghi nhận và khen thưởng dựa trên thâm niên.	Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ghi nhận và khen thưởng dựa trên bằng cấp/chứng nhận trình độ chuyên môn.	Tăng mạnh gắn kết với công việc	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ghi nhận và khen thưởng dựa trên cấp bậc và chức vụ quản lý.	Tăng một chút gắn kết với công việc	<input type="text"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Các chính sách/hoạt động phát triển nguồn nhân lực khác mà Thầy/Cô quan tâm?

	ĐANG ĐƯỢC THỰC HIỆN	CHƯA ĐƯỢC THỰC HIỆN
Tên chính sách/hoạt động 1	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Tên chính sách/hoạt động 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Tên chính sách/hoạt động 3	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Tên chính sách/hoạt động 4	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Tên chính sách/hoạt động 5	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

Thầy/Cô vui lòng kiểm tra lại để chắc chắn rằng: Với mỗi chính sách/hoạt động, Thầy/Cô **CHỈ CHỌN MỘT** trong các cột trả lời được cung cấp.

PHẦN D

Câu hỏi 4: Thầy/Cô vui lòng chọn mức độ đồng ý của mình với những nhận định dưới đây.

	Rất không đồng ý 1	Không đồng ý 2	Khá không đồng ý 3	Khá đồng ý 4	Đồng ý 5	Rất đồng ý 6
Nhìn chung, các chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực hiện nay làm tôi thấy mình tự chủ trong công việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nhìn chung, các chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực hiện nay tạo điều kiện cho tôi hoàn thành tốt công việc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nhìn chung, các chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực hiện nay tạo một môi trường làm việc đáng tin cậy đối với tôi.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nhìn chung, các chính sách phát triển nguồn nhân lực hiện nay tạo một môi trường làm việc hỗ trợ tốt cho tôi.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

PHẦN E

Thông tin cá nhân về Thầy/Cô

Câu hỏi 5: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết tuổi của mình.

Dưới 30 Từ 30 đến cận 40 Từ 40 đến cận 50 Từ 50 trở lên

Câu hỏi 6: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết giới tính của mình

Nữ Nam

Câu hỏi 7: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết chức danh nghề nghiệp của mình.

Trợ giảng Giảng viên Giảng viên chính Giảng viên cao cấp

Câu hỏi 8: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết học vị của mình.

Cử nhân Thạc sĩ Tiến sĩ Tiến sĩ khoa học

Câu hỏi 9: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết học hàm của mình

Giáo sư Phó giáo sư Không áp dụng

Câu hỏi 10: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết Trường/Khoa mà mình đang công tác.

Trường 1 Trường 2 Trường 3 Trường 4 Trường 5 Trường 6 Khoa 1 Khoa 2

Câu hỏi 11: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết ngành đào tạo chính mà Thầy/Cô đang tham gia giảng dạy

Câu hỏi 12: Thầy/Cô vui lòng cho biết chức vụ quản lý của mình (nếu có).

Câu hỏi 13: Thầy/Cô đã công tác tại _____ được bao nhiêu năm?

5

Câu hỏi 14: Thầy/Cô có đồng ý tham gia phỏng vấn sâu trong khuôn khổ nghiên cứu này không? (thời gian phỏng vấn là tháng 7 - 8/2017)

Có Không

Nếu Thầy/Cô đồng ý, xin vui lòng cho biết thêm những thông tin bên dưới để thuận lợi cho việc sắp xếp phỏng vấn.

Họ và tên	<input type="text"/>
Địa chỉ email thường dùng	<input type="text"/>
Số điện thoại thường dùng	<input type="text"/>
Thời gian trả lời phỏng vấn trong tháng 7-8/2017 nếu Thầy/Cô đã xác định được:	<input type="text"/>

TRÂN TRỌNG CẢM ƠN THẦY/CÔ!

Thầy/Cô vui lòng ấn phím >> bên dưới để các câu trả lời được ghi nhận

Appendix 2. Interview schedule

*** Interviewee's information**

Code of the interview (Organization's name–number of this interview, e.g. Unit 1-1):	
Title and Name of the interviewee:	
Level of their job engagement (after processing questionnaires) (write the average score in the next box):	High engagement (4-6): Medium engagement (3-3.99): Low engagement (below 3):
Level of satisfaction by HRD policies (section D in the questionnaire): Policies-autonomy: Policies-competence: Policies-trustworthy working environment: Policies-supportive working environment:	
Additional HRD policies suggested by the interviewee (extracted from the open-ended question in section C of the questionnaire):	

*** Introduction:**

I am Nguyen Anh Thu. I am looking at the impact of HRD policies on lecturers' job engagement in the university.

Thank you so much for agreeing to be interviewed.

I do appreciate your agreement to being recorded to make data processing easier.

Please let me know if there are any question(s) that you do not want to answer. We will move to the next question.

Please let me know if you want to stop the interview at any time. You do not have to provide the reasons.

Please be reassured that all of your responses will be confidential and only used for research purposes.

*** Questions:**

1. Please tell me your general feeling of lecturer job.

2. During your time of doing lecturer job, when have you felt engaged and highly engaged in your job?

3. Please tell me what made you feel engaged in your job at that time.

(If the interviewee mentions HRD policies, move to question 5)

4. At that time, what HRD policies made you engaged in your job?

5. What factors of the policies made you engaged in your job? (Please tell me examples)

5.1. How did the factors affect your feeling of autonomy in doing the job? (Please tell me examples)

(If the interviewee feels difficult to grasp the meaning of 'autonomy', provide an explanation as follows: Autonomy means you feel you have the rights to decide, judge, take responsibilities and execute the job in your way.)

5.2. How did the factors affect your feeling of being able to do and succeed in the job? (Please tell me examples)

(If the interviewee feels difficult to give examples, give them suggestion as follows: Have you ever had a situation where an HRD policy provides you with more resources and opportunities to do your job better?

Or Have you ever had a situation as a result of a HRD policy where the organization said "Yes, you can do X, whatever that is" but, when it came to it, you weren't able to? The theory didn't match the reality, as it were?")

5.3. How did the factors affect your interaction with your coworkers to get understood and heard by them; to trust them and be their friend? (Please tell me examples)

(If the interviewee feels difficult to give examples, give them suggestion as follow:

+ How did the factors affect your managers and colleagues' reaction ...

- when you shared your ideas of work?
- when you proposed solutions for problems at work?
- when you need help at work?

+ How did the factors affect your managers and colleagues' share of their thoughts and feelings at work with you?)

6. Thanks for sharing your engagement time. Now, I'd like you to think about the opposite scenario: any time you feel disengaged in your job. Please tell me about the time.

7. Please tell me what made you feel disengaged in your job at that time.

8. At that time, what HRD policies made you disengaged in your job?

9. What factors of the policies made you disengaged in your job? (Please tell me examples)

9.1. How did the factors hinder your feeling of autonomy in doing the job? (Please tell me examples)

9.2. How did the factors hinder your feeling of being able to do and succeed in the job? (Please tell me examples)

9.3. How did the factors make difficulties for your interaction with your coworkers to get understood and heard by them; to trust them and be their friend? (Please tell me examples)

(If the interviewee feels difficult to give examples, give them suggestion as follow:

+ How did the factors make difficulties for your managers and colleagues' reaction ...

- when you shared your ideas of work?
- when you proposed solutions for problems at work?
- when you need help at work?

+ How did the factors make difficulties for your managers and colleagues' share of their thoughts and feelings at work with you?)

10. How do you think the policies can be improved to make you more engage in the job? (noted: ask this question after the interviewees talk about every HRD policy).

* Card sorting if required

* **Conclusion:**

- Is there anything you'd like to add?

- Thank you so much for your time and information you have provided me.

Appendix 3: Cards of HRD policies

<p style="text-align: center;">A-1</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Offering training programmes in teaching methods and/or research methods and skills</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">A-2</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Offering training programmes in transferring research outcomes into practice</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">A-3</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Funding (wholly or partially) for other programmes to enhance lecturer's competence (e.g. postgraduate study and/or activities related to lecturer's competence enhancement, e.g. academic conferences)</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">B-7</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Reducing teaching for training attendance without loss of proper compensation. (e.g. reducing required teaching hours; teaching leave for training attendance, etc.)</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">A-4</p> <p style="text-align: center;">On-the-job training delivered by supervisors and/or managers</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">B-8</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Providing teaching assistants to reduce lecturer's overwork</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">A-5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Paid sabbatical leave for research or internship</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">C-9</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Providing guidance on how to develop a career plan for lecturers</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">A-6</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Support to the development of research competence, e.g. financial support to (international) publications; investment to excellent research groups</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">C-10</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Providing guidance for departmental managers how to assign responsibilities to lecturers so they can meet the requirements of higher job levels and positions</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">C-11</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Connecting research/researchers with business corporations and organizations using scientific services/outcomes</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">D-12</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Developing platforms to receive lecturers' ideas/opinions regarding organizational work and give lecturers detailed feedback on their ideas/opinions</p>

<p style="text-align: center;">D-13</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Publishing lecturer handbook with the inclusion of HRD policies</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">E-14</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Performance appraisal based on performance outcomes</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">E-15</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Fair and independent lecturer competence appraisal from students and others</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">F-16</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Payment based on contribution</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">F-17</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Recognition and reward based on performance outcomes</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">F-18</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Punishment policies for under performers</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">G-19</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Union role in delivering benefits and developing engagement culture</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">G-20</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Voting for leaders in universities instead of assigning leaders from top down</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">G-21</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Confidentially collecting feedback on management in universities</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">G-22</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Transparent and measurable KPI for university leaders/managers</p>

App 4. Email conversations regarding the permission of using UWES and BPNWS

* *For UWES*

Schaufeli, W.B. (Wilmar) [REDACTED] [one of the authors of UWES]

|Sun 6/26/2016, 3:23 PM

Dear Thu,

You may use the UWES freely as long as it is not for commercial, but exclusively for academic purposes.

As far as your other questions are concerned, I can refer to the many papers that I have written on work engagement (and the UWES), which can be downloaded from my website (address below).

With kind regards,

Wilmar Schaufeli

Wilmar B. Schaufeli, PhD | *Social and Organizational Psychology* | P.O. Box 80.140 | 3508 TC Utrecht, The Netherlands |

Tel: [REDACTED] | Mobile: [REDACTED] |

Fax: [REDACTED] | Site: [REDACTED]

Op 20 jun. 2016, om 06:01 heeft Nguyen, Anh Thu het volgende geschreven:

Dear Prof.Dr. Wilmar Schaufeli,

I am Nguyen, Anh Thu. I am studying PhD in the Centre for Education Studies of the University of Warwick, Coventry, UK.

I am interested in job engagement of lecturers in higher education in Vietnam. I have been impressed by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale which is developed by you and your colleagues. For me, the scale is one of very few measurements which are clear and intuitively accurate. I intend to apply this scale in my PhD project.

I would like to ask you some questions regarding the scale as follows:

1. The scale seems to be approached psychologically, so how to ensure that a person with the high psychological engagement (as they response to the scale) also experiences the high behavioural engagement in practice?

2. Based on the scale, how can we conclude whether a person highly engages or disengages in their job? Do we use the average of the scores of all statements that the person has chosen?

3. If I would like to use the scale as a part of my research instrument, could you please give me the instruction to get your permission to do that?

I know you are very busy. I am looking forward to hearing from you.

I am so sorry for any inconvenience.

Thank you so much

Your sincerely,

Best regards,

Thu Anh Nguyen.

** For BPNWS*

Boudrias Jean-Sébastien [redacted] [one of the authors of BPNWS]

Reply all|

Fri 12/16/2016, 7:05 PM

Nguyen, Anh Thu;

Brunet Luc <[redacted]>

You forwarded this message on 12/16/2016 9:51 PM

Dear Thu Anh,

This questionnaire is in the public domain. Therefore, it can be used for research purposes.

Otherwise, we transferred our copyrights to the Journal where the article has been published.

If you need to contact Dr. Brien, I give the email of a colleague of might have her contact details.

God luck in your research.

Jean-Sébastien Boudrias, Ph.D., psy.

Professeur titulaire

Département de psychologie

Université de Montréal

T. [REDACTED]

C. [REDACTED]

De : Nguyen, Anh Thu

Envoyé : 16 décembre 2016 06:44

À : Boudrias Jean-Sébastien

Objet : Please reply me! Question about the copyright of the Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale

Dear Prof. Jean-Sébastien Boudria,

Please reply my email below which was sent you and Prof. Geneviève A. Mageau last week. However, I could not contact Prof. Geneviève A. Mageau because of a technical problem of email delivery system. Also, I could not contact Dr Maryse Brien as I could not find her contact. Please help me to ask your co-authors of the paper about the copyright for me.

I will be grateful with your help.

Thank you so much.

Merry Christmas and Happy New Year.

Thu Anh Nguyen

From: Nguyen, Anh Thu

Sent: Sunday, December 11, 2016 5:12 PM

To: [REDACTED]; [REDACTED]

Subject: Question about the copyright of the Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale

Dear Geneviève A. Mageau and Jean-Sébastien Boudria,

I am Nguyen, Anh Thu. I am a PhD student of Centre of Education Studies, The University of Warwick, United Kingdom.

I am doing a research on the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and their basic psychological needs at work. I have found the the scale you and your colleagues have developed very interesting and possibly useful for me to investigate the relationship.

Therefore, I would like to ask you whether I can use the scale in my questionnaire to survey with the lecturers in Vietnam.

I will translate from the English version of the scale into Vietnamese to deliver the questionnaire to the Vietnamese lecturers.

The scale will be only used for the purpose of research.

I hope you will agree.

I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Thank you so much.

Best regards,

Thu Anh Nguyen

Christine Roland-Levy [REDACTED] **[President-Elect of the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP)]**

Wed 4/5, 8:09 PM

Dear Thu Anh Nguyen,

Thank you for asking, but I believe that what you have already done is exactly the procedure and you do not need any more permission for using that scale as the authors have agreed.

I wish you all the best with your PhD.

Christine

Pr. Dr. Christine Roland-Lévy

Vice-President of the National Council of the Universities CNU 16

President-Elect of the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP) www.iaapsy.org

Mobile: [REDACTED]

https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Christine_ROLAND-Levy/contributions

Le 5 avr. 2017 à 05:52, Nguyen, Anh Thu a écrit :

To whom it may concern,

I am Nguyen, Anh Thu. I am a PhD student in the Centre of Education Studies, the University of Warwick, UK.

I am looking at the relationship between lecturers' job engagement and their basic psychological needs at work. I am interested in the scale developed by Dr. Maryse Brien and her colleagues which was published in the article titled "The Basic Psychological Needs at Work Scale: Measurement Invariance between Canada and France" on the journal *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 2012, vol.4, no.2, pp.167-187.

The scale is very interesting and possibly useful for me to investigate the relationship.

Therefore, I would like to use the scale in my questionnaire to survey with the lecturers in Vietnam.

I will translate from the English version of the scale into Vietnamese to deliver the questionnaire to the Vietnamese lecturers.

The scale will be only used for the purpose of research.

I have contacted Dr Brien and Prof.Jean-Sébastien Boudria (two of the authors) to ask about the copy right to use the scale for the research purpose. I have received the response from Prof.Jean-Sébastien Boudria saying that I can use the scale for my PhD project because it has been published widely. He also advised me to contact the journal about the copy right.

So I would like to ask you whether I can use the scale. This email is sending to you as you are the board of officers of the International Association of Applied Psychology where possesses the journal “Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being”.

I hope you will agree.

I am so sorry for any inconvenience.

I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Thank you so much.

Best regards,

Thu Anh Nguyen

Appendix 5. Consent letter



RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET

Student Name:	Nguyen, Anh Thu
Supervisor Name:	Dr. Justine Mercer
Researcher Email	Supervisor Email

Research Purpose

I am investigating how human resource development (HRD) policies affect the work of lecturers in _____. I hope to make recommendations that improve the HRD policies.

You indicated in the questionnaire that you were willing to be interviewed so I could elicit more in-depth information on the same topic.

Estimated Participation Duration: 45-60 minutes

Risks

There are no physical risks.

If you do not want to answer any question, you will not be forced to answer and we will just move to the next question.

The interview will be recorded to facilitate data processing. Please email me prior to the interview if you do not wish this to happen.

Confidentiality

Your identity and the information that you provide will not be shared with other participants, nor with others in the community. The recordings and all data will be kept in my secure password-protected laptop. Should the information you provide appear in related publications, it will be presented in such a way that readers cannot create a link between the information and you.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation is completely voluntary. You do not have to finish the interview if you do not want to. You can drop out of the interview for any reason at any time.



RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

Student Name: Nguyen, Anh Thu
Supervisor Name: Dr. Justine Mercer
Participation Duration:
Date:
Researcher Email _____ **Supervisor Email** _____

I confirm that I have read and understood the Information Sheet for the above project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I agree to take part in the above study.

I do/do not agree for the interview to be recorded.

I understand that the information provided by me will be held and processed for the purposes of publication in scientific journals and presentation at scientific conferences.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without being penalized or disadvantaged in any way.

Signatures:

Study Participant

Print name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Person obtaining consent

Print name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Appendix 6. Ethical approval

(For the purpose of anonymity, the individual information of the student and the name of the university have been redacted)



WARWICK
THE UNIVERSITY OF WARWICK

Application for Ethical Approval for Research Degrees

(PhD, EdD, MA by research)

Student number: —

Student name: **Nguyen, Anh Thu**

PhD EdD MA by research

Project title: The impact of human resource development policies on lecturers' job engagement:
The case of —

Supervisor: Dr. Justine Mercer

Funding body (if relevant): Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) Studentship

Please ensure you have read the Guidance for the Ethical Conduct of Research available in the handbook.

Methodology

Please outline the methodology, e.g. observation, individual interviews, focus groups, group testing etc.

The project will be conducted in two stages. During the first stage, online questionnaires via Qualtrics or SurveyMonkey will be sent to the Academic Offices of the affiliated universities and schools of ———, then they will send the questionnaires to their lecturers. At the end of the questionnaire, lecturers will be asked if they agree to participate in following-up interviews and their contact information requested.

During the second stage, I will conduct semi-structured individual interviews with as many lecturers as possible.

Participants

Please specify all participants in the research including ages of children and young people where appropriate. Also specify if any participants are vulnerable e.g. children; as a result of learning disability.

For the questionnaire, the participants will be all the lecturers of 6 affiliated universities and 2 affiliated schools of ———.

For interviews, as mentioned above, the participants will be the lecturers who have agreed to this. If there are too many volunteers, I will select the interviewees based on the following criteria (stratified sampling):

1. Being representative of all three levels of job engagement, namely not engaged, partly engaged, and fully engaged;
2. Coming from all the affiliated universities and schools of ——— ;
3. Being in both management and non-management positions;
4. Being at all professional levels, namely junior lecturers, lecturers, and senior lecturers;
5. Including both males and females.

Respect for participants' rights and dignity

How will the fundamental rights and dignity of participants be respected, e.g. confidentiality, respect of cultural and religious values?

If any participant feels unhappy to answer any question, I will not force them to respond and will move to the next question.

I will pilot and have my supervisor review the questionnaire and interview guide to avoid ambiguity and get feedback from the piloted respondents about what and how questions should be asked.

Confidentiality and anonymity will be strictly maintained throughout the interview and questionnaire, respectively; and related publications. Specifically, participants will not be asked to provide their names nor any information to identify them on their questionnaire responses. If respondents agree to participate in the interviews, their contact details will not be shared with anybody.

The interviews will be recorded with the participants' prior agreement. The recordings and all other data collected from the participants will be saved in a password-protected laptop.

The risk of disclosure of sensitive or private information may arise. Specifically, lecturers may disclose such information about particular managers or other lecturers in terms of the topic. None of this information will be shared with anybody.

Privacy and confidentiality

How will confidentiality be assured? Please address all aspects of research including protection of data records, thesis, reports/papers that might arise from the study.

As mentioned, all data will be saved in my own password-protected laptop.

In my thesis or any related reports/papers, any information regarding a specific (sensitive) situation provided by the participants will be presented in such a way that readers cannot create a link between the information and particular participants. For example, I will use pseudonyms for the participants and hide the title of the courses which can lead the readers to think about specific lecturers.

Consent

How will prior informed consent be obtained from the following?

From participants:

When lecturers complete the questionnaires, they will be given a consent tick box to participate in following-up interviews. If they tick this box, they will be asked to provide their contact detail so that I can contact them to arrange interviews.

From others: N/A

If prior informed consent is not to be obtained, give reason: N/A

Will participants be explicitly informed of the student's status?

In the introduction to the questionnaires and interviews, my status as a student of The University of Warwick and a lecturer of — will be revealed to participants. This status can be verified by my official Warwick and — emails attached. This may reassure the lecturers as I am their — colleague and a researcher who is required to follow the ethical code set up by the University of Warwick.

Also, my supervisor's email will be provided to the participants so that they can contact her if they have any concerns about my project.

Competence

How will you ensure that all methods used are undertaken with the necessary competence?

Before selecting the methods, I will discuss with my supervisor to consider which are the most suitable for my project.

Additionally, I will have gained knowledge and skills from five modules on research methodology, namely Philosophies of Social Research, Practice of Social Research, Quantitative Methods and Qualitative Methods offered by the ESRC DTC, and Advanced Research Methods offered by Centre for Education Studies, the University of Warwick. Therefore, I will know how to design a suitable methodology for the project.

In addition, I will pilot the questionnaire and interview schedule. The pilots will provide me with valuable feedback and I will adjust the research instruments to avoid problems affecting the quality of data.

Protection of participants

How will participants' safety and well-being be safeguarded?

The participants' safety and well-being will be protected through confidentiality and anonymity as presented earlier. Furthermore, I am looking at an uncontroversial topic. Thus, it is not likely to involve situations which negatively affect the participants.

Child protection

Will a CRB check be needed? Yes No (If yes, please attach a copy.)

Addressing dilemmas

Even well planned research can produce ethical dilemmas. How will you address any ethical dilemmas that may arise in your research?

Throughout my project, the BERA ethical guidelines for researchers will be strictly obeyed. When an ethical dilemma arises, I will follow the guidance and seek advice from my supervisor. Specifically, I will maintain the principles of confidentiality, anonymity and individual respect to the participants. For example, if a lecturer at management level wants me to disclose what their subordinates told me, I will explain that, for ethical reasons, I am not able to disclose information provided by any participants. It is hoped that I can get the manager's shared perception of the principles.

Misuse of research

How will you seek to ensure that the research and the evidence resulting from it are not misused?

The thesis and other subsequent papers/reports will be reviewed by my supervisor and/or other colleagues to ensure that no information or findings resulting from the research can be misused.

Nobody will be allowed to access the raw data. I will not share the raw data.

Support for research participants

What action is proposed if sensitive issues are raised or a participant becomes upset?

If sensitive issues are raised, depending on my assessment of the severity of the upset, I will ask the interviewee if they would like a moment to compose themselves; if they would like to stop the interview, or stop the interview, myself.

Integrity

How will you ensure that your research and its reporting are honest, fair and respectful to others?

I will be honest about the purpose of my research in the questionnaires and interviews. All participants will be treated respectfully and their data will be kept confidential. I will try to be fair in evaluating the information provided by the various participants noting that they will have different job-roles, levels of seniority and qualifications. I will not intentionally distort the data collected but will use appropriate methods of data analysis to ensure the data is as accurate as possible.

What agreement has been made for the attribution of authorship by yourself and your supervisor(s) of any reports or publications?

My supervisor has agreed that I will be the first or sole author of any publications, depending on her level of input into the specific article.

Other issues: N/A

Signed:	[Redacted]	Date: 2/2/2017
Student:	[Redacted]	Date: 2/2/2017
Supervisor:	[Redacted]	

Please submit this form to the Research Office (Donna Jay, Room B1.43)

Office use only

Action taken:

Approved
 Approved with modification or conditions – see below
 Action deferred. Please supply additional information or clarification – see below

Name: MICHAEL HAMMOND
Signature: [Redacted]
Date: 4/2/2017

Stamped:

Notes of Action: Centre for Education Studies
University of Warwick
Cover by 2/4 7AL