



Research Article

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Influence of Socio-Organizational and Personal Resources of the Employee on the Positive Perception of Work

Talgat Tumashbay¹

Garifolla Yesim¹

Meirkhan Spanov²

Nurila Ibrayeva²

Rauan Kemerbay¹

Aisha Shaldarbekova²

¹Eurasian National University,
Astana, Kazakhstan

²Mukhtar Auezov South Kazakhstan State University,
Shymkent, Kazakhstan

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Abstract

In a global context, socio-organizational and personal resources play a significant role in shaping people's perception of work. The aim of the study is to investigate the role of socio-organizational and personal resources and their impact on the positive perception of work social environment. In the article authors empirically examine the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between social organizational resources and organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as well as the effect of personal resources on engagement through the expansion of social resources. The research results demonstrate that resources influence organizational commitment and job satisfaction both directly and indirectly. Moreover, the effect mediated by work engagement is stronger than the direct effect. Understanding and promoting these resources can be beneficial for both employees and organizations worldwide.

Keywords: *positive job perception, social environment, Job Demands-Resources model, socio-organizational resources, social support outside the workplace*

1. Introduction

The present study aims to demonstrate how an employee's positive perceptions of work are influenced by organizational and personal resources. Positive job perception in this study refers to a complex structure of experiences and evaluations related to the work process, which are expressed in job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Mendoza-Briceño et al., 2021). Work is a factor that builds a person's security and quality of life, as well as a very important condition for mental well-

being (Honkaniemi et al., 2015). Authors agree with research findings indicating that most people develop a sense of quality of life due to their work, and unemployed people have the lowest levels of happiness, regardless of income or gender or generation (Kapustina, 2021; Milovanska-Farrington, Farrington, 2022). Apart from satisfying material needs, work allows a person to participate in public life, creates prestige, promotes activity, and gives meaning to life (Van Hootegem et al., 2023).

Literature on the subject under study (Fadare et al., 2022; Alakhars et al., 2022; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) defines organizational resources and organizational aspects of work that enable the achievement of professional goals, reduce the costs associated with excessive workload, and stimulate personal growth and learning (Sveshnikova et al., 2022). These include factors related to the job itself (social environment, salary, development opportunities (Syzdykova et al., 2022)), interpersonal factors (leadership styles, job support (Zohair et al., 2021)), and organizational factors (clarity of professional roles, participation in decision-making) (García-Hernández et al., 2021). Personal resources stem from the innate and acquired mental, physical and social qualities of the employee (Pagán-Castaño et al., 2020), their competencies and skills (Irkhin et al., 2021), as well as the social connections they have (Kuzu, Özilhan, 2014).

2. Conceptual Background

Resources play an important part in burnout processes, which naturally adversely relate to the quality of life on the job, as can be deduced from the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, as described by Radic et al. (2020). The model considers burnout as the outcome of long-term occupational stress caused by excessive job demands, which can be mitigated through available resources such as social support or self-efficacy. According to this model, each profession has specific risk factors that can result in burnout in the absence of sufficient resources (Montayev et al., 2022).

A positive perception of work is a component of a positive perception of life in general. Thus, work becomes the source and content of the sense of the quality of life (Kuang & Li, 2022).

Work resources satisfy basic human needs. For example, reinforcing feedback and participation in decision-making fulfills the need for competence, social support from supervisors and peers satisfies the need for belonging, and the sense of control and freedom of decision-making meets the need for autonomy (Basson, Rothmann, 2018). Satisfaction of these needs contributes to the intrinsic motivation of the employee (Li et al., 2023). However, the availability of ample resources also contributes to intrinsic motivation. It can be assumed that this owes to the fact that, first, a work environment rich in resources fosters work engagement. In addition, employees who are convinced that the employer cares about their needs are likely to respond in kind with a strong commitment to the organization (Bakker et al., 2008). Some researchers have found that workers who have high levels of resources are more engaged in their work than those who have fewer resources (Bakker, Van Emmerik, et al. 2010; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Wang et al., 2023). In one study, the authors demonstrate that job resources, as measured by supervisor support, feedback availability, and coaching, offset the negative effects of workload and work-related emotional demands on work engagement (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). These results have been reproduced in the studies of Dutch and Finnish teachers (Bakker, Van Emmerik, et al. 2010). This research reveals that such work resources as the feeling of autonomy at work, support from colleagues, relationship with the supervisor, acceptance of innovations, and frequency of feedback counterbalance the contribution of stress to burnout and promote greater work engagement.

The creators of the JD-R model suggest that employees experience two processes – energetic and motivational. The first type of process leads to burnout and psychological problems. The second results in greater engagement and a positive attitude to work. The motivational process is the subject of our interest in this study because it is largely made up of everyday work experience. Consistent with this process, the presence of abundant job resources contributes to the development of work engagement, which, in turn, generates positive attitudes toward work, e.g., commitment to the organization and responsible behavior (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). However, resources outside

the work environment, such as family support, can also contribute to positive perceptions of the job (Li, Wang, 2022).

Researchers concerned with the positive role of resources (Chen, Fellenz, 2020; Goetz, Wald, 2022) point out that individual resources can positively influence and reinforce each other. In other words, there is a gain spiral between different types of resources (Chalutz, Cohen, 2022). Several studies have shown that organizational resources (supervision at work (Bakker, Van Veldhoven, et al., 2010)) and social resources (social support (Ángeles López-Cabarcos et al., 2022)) influence work engagement through personal resources (self-esteem and self-efficacy beliefs). Thus, the presence of substantial organizational and social resources reinforces personal resources, which, in turn, strengthens job commitment (Sahadi et al., 2022).

2.1 Organizational and Social Resources and Work Engagement

Research findings consistently indicate that work engagement is positively linked to many important elements of human work, such as achievement levels (Bakker et al., 2008), pay levels (Ángeles López-Cabarcos et al., 2022), proactive behavior and motivation to develop (Dikkers et al., 2010), customer satisfaction (Imran et al., 2020), and work environment resources such as high levels of autonomy, availability of task level feedback, diversity of responsibilities, support from managers and peers, coaching, and opportunities for growth (Bakker et al., 2007; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Nilsen, Kongsvik, 2023). In this light, a study by Cook and Gilin (2023) should be mentioned, which finds work engagement to be negatively related to the job factors that Ch. Maslach et al. (2008) named as sources of burnout, i.e. workload, lack of control, insufficient remuneration, insufficient job feedback, low pay, low support from colleagues and managers (Baran, 2022), sense of injustice, and conflict of values. The researchers have discovered that the value of the relationship of these factors with work engagement is opposite to that with job burnout.

Studies confirm that various types of resources (job control (Lambekova et al., 2017), support from seniors and peers, organizational climate, feedback, and agreement to innovation) affect organizational commitment by raising work engagement (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Hu et al., 2022; Cao et al., 2019).

2.2 Personal Resources, Work Engagement, and a Positive Perception of Work

One assumption of the JD-R model is that social and organizational resources promote a positive perception of work through personal resources. Thus, in addition to the link between a positive perception of work with resources in the job environment, researchers have analyzed the association with personal resources, which show a positive relationship between organizational commitment and the sense of control and self-esteem in the workplace (Mauno et al., 2007), as well as self-efficacy (Goetz, Wald, 2022). Organizational commitment also positively correlates with two personality traits – low neuroticism and high extraversion (Flavián et al., 2022), as well as type A personality (Hallberg et al., 2007).

D. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) analyzed the role of three personal resources, namely the sense of self-efficacy, work-related self-esteem, and optimism, as predictors of engagement by conducting the questionnaire of 42 fast-food restaurant employees. A range of scales was utilized in the study to assess organizational resources, including autonomy, coaching, and team climate, as well as personal resources, such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, level of optimism, and engagement. The respondents completed the battery of scales over five consecutive workdays, with only items related to the workday being selected from standardized questionnaires. The results give evidence that the considered personal resources reduce work stress and promote engagement.

Thus, each day, employees determined the amount of personal and organizational resources and work engagement with regard to that specific day. The study concludes that the level of autonomy, as well as coaching and team climate, act as predictors of self-efficacy. Furthermore,

increased job resources owing to improved personal resources promoted better work engagement. Mediating effects of personal resources are also confirmed by other empirical studies (Huo, Jiang, 2023).

In this study, authors present data focusing on the socio-organizational and personal resources whose positive role was emphasized by the developers of the JD-R model. Socio-organizational resources include job control, psychological climate, job support, and social support outside the workplace. Personal resources, in turn, include self-efficacy beliefs. A positive attitude towards work in our study comprises such factors as organizational commitment, work engagement, and job satisfaction (Brokmeier, et al., 2022). These factors are of particular importance for Kazakhstan's catering sector, which includes both international chain companies and small private enterprises with minimal staff (Bayev et al., 2022; Sokolova et al., 2021).

3. Methods

The study was conducted based on catering enterprises in the city of Shymkent, the Republic of Kazakhstan in 2022. Of these, four enterprises were fast-food restaurants of large catering networks (Burger King, KFC, LC, Dodo Pizza) (group 1), and eight were catering companies with up to 20 employees (group 2).

The study involved a total of 232 employees of catering enterprises, medium and low-skilled staff, of which 134 people were assigned to group 1 and 98 people – to group 2. Respondents were selected regardless of gender, social status, age (generation), or the presence of any special skills. The sampling criterion was only the consent of the respondents and the agreement of enterprise management to participate in the study.

According to selection results, the vast majority of subjects were women (N=188; 80.3%). The respondents' ages ranged from 21 to 49 years (M = 28.76; SD = 4.21). Years of experience in the food service industry varied from 1 to 22 years (M = 4.42; SD = 3.52).

In the first phase of the study, authors assessed direct and indirect job involvement-mediated relationships between job control and organizational commitment. Job control was defined by us as the degree to which an employee is free to plan and perform professional activities and to influence their work environment, or the freedom to dispose of organizational, social, and personal resources with which they can influence their work environment. Control can be viewed in two aspects – as the worker's autonomy in action and as participation in decision-making. The term "freedom of action" comes closest to autonomy in meaning. To measure this variable authors used an adapted version of the Factual Autonomy Scale (FAS) (Olsen, Mason, 2023).

In turn, organizational commitment describes a psychological state characterized by a strong attachment to the organization and the decision to continue being a member of it. Commitment includes three components – affective, continuous, and normative. This variable was assessed with an adapted version of the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) by J.P. Meyer and N. Allen (Pishchik, 2017).

Authors used the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) adapted by Zecca et al. (2015) to test work engagement. The UWES assesses three levels of engagement, including vigor, dedication to work (enthusiasm), and job absorption. However, this study only focused on the overall level of work engagement.

In this context, authors propose hypothesis H1: there is a direct (mediated by work engagement) and indirect relationship between job control and organizational commitment.

In the second phase, authors approached job satisfaction as a dependent variable. Authors investigated whether socio-organizational resources, i.e., job support and psychological climate at work, influenced job satisfaction directly or indirectly through organizational commitment. Job support included support from supervisors and co-workers. This aspect was quantified using the questionnaire "What kind of support and help can you count on" (Questionnaire) by M. Widerszal-Bazyl and R. Cieslak (2000).

Psychological climate refers to the way employees perceive and interpret the organization's environment. Employees in the organization develop a cognitive view of the job environment that allows them to evaluate their workplace in terms of their personal attitudes and values, as well as their psychophysical well-being. As a result of this process, the work environment takes on personal, motivational, and emotional meaning for the employee. To measure psychological climate, authors used a psychological climate questionnaire described by A.I. Dontsov et al. (2020).

Job satisfaction includes, above all, judgments and evaluations of the job. Job satisfaction was assessed in the study using Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Li, Huang, 2017). Work engagement was evaluated with the UWES.

Hypothesis H₂ proposes the following: there is a direct (mediated by organizational commitment) and indirect relationship between job support and psychological climate and job satisfaction.

In the third phase, authors tested whether resources from outside the work environment were related to job satisfaction and whether work engagement mediated these relationships. In this study, authors define social support as an individual's subjective beliefs about the availability of social connections, derived from knowledge of where and from whom one can get help when needed.

The method adopted for assessment was the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) as adapted by Ciułkiewicz et al. (2022). Job satisfaction was quantified using the JSS, and work engagement was tested with the UWES method.

The purpose of the next phase of the study was to determine how personal resources such as self-efficacy beliefs relate to work engagement and whether social support mediates this relationship.

Self-efficacy beliefs can take a general or specific form. The first type refers to generalized beliefs about the ability to act effectively in new, ambiguous, and unpredictable situations. The second form refers to self-efficacy beliefs in specific areas or even activities, such as communication, learning, or performing specific professional activities.

At this stage of the study, authors examined only generalized beliefs about self-efficacy at work. To measure generalized self-efficacy beliefs, authors used the Russian-language version of R. Schwarzer and M. Jerusalem's General Self-Efficacy Scale (1995). The social support and job satisfaction variables were assessed using the tools described earlier.

At this stage, authors put forward hypothesis H₃: there is a direct (mediated by social support) and indirect relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and work engagement.

The hypotheses were tested using the PROCESS method based on regression analysis (Hayes, 2017). PROCESS allows obtaining unstandardized coefficients *B* and confidence intervals for three effects: direct, indirect, and general. In statistical analysis, the direct effect (relationship *c*) refers to the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, while the indirect effect (relationships *a* and *b*) indicates the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable with the mediator in between. The relationship *a* reflects the link between the independent variable and the mediator, and relationship *b* demonstrates the association between the mediator and the dependent variable. The combination of direct and indirect effects results in the overall effect. To confirm the presence of mediation, the *B* coefficients for *a* and *b* (indirect effect) must be statistically significant. Moreover, the Sobel test is used to determine the significance of mediation.

4. Results

4.1 Relationship between Job Control and Organizational Commitment

Table 1 provides the values of *B* and confidence intervals for the direct, indirect, and general effect, as well as the *F*-test and *R*², indicating the proportion of variance explained, in group 1.

Table 1: The effects of job control on organizational commitment (group 1)

	Job control		
	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.19***	0.03	[0.1; 0.25]
Direct effect	0.065**	0.03	[0.03; 0.11]
Indirect effect	0.125***	0.02	[0.05; 0.17]

The model with job control as the independent variable yielded the following results: $F(2, 226) = 13.16$, $p = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.12$. The B coefficient is an unstandardized regression coefficient, SE is the standard error, and CI represents the confidence interval. Statistical significance is denoted by * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, and *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 1 displays the values of B coefficients for relationships a and b. The study found both the direct and indirect effects to be statistically significant. However, the indirect effect of job control, which was mediated by work engagement, was stronger than the direct effect.

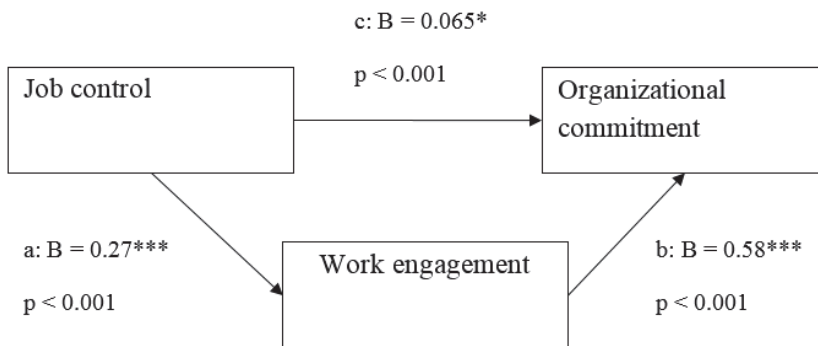


Figure 1: Values of B for the direct and indirect impact of job control on organizational commitment (group 1)

The authors conducted a Sobel test to confirm the presence of the mediation effect, which yielded a significant result ($z = 2.76$; $p < 0.01$). The findings suggest that work engagement plays a mediating role in the relationship between job control and commitment to the organization, particularly among employees in large food service chains. Table 2 presents the values of B and confidence intervals for the direct, indirect, and general effects, as well as the fit statistic F and R^2 , which indicate the percentage of explained variance, for group 2.

Table 2: The effects of job control on organizational commitment (group 2)

	Job control		
	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.18***	0.025	[0.08; 0.23]
Direct effect	0.11***	0.025	[0.05; 0.12]
Indirect effect	0.07**	0.02	[0.06; 0.19]

In the model where job control is the independent variable, the fit statistic F is 10.21 with 2 degrees of freedom for the numerator and 114 for the denominator, resulting in a p-value of 0.001. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that 12% of the variance is explained by the model. The unstandardized regression coefficient (B), standard error (SE), and confidence interval (CI) are

reported for each predictor. Statistical significance is indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$).

The values of B for the relationships a and b are provided in Figure 2. Both the direct and indirect effects prove statistically significant, but for workers in small food service establishments, the indirect effect of job control mediated by work engagement is stronger than the direct effect.

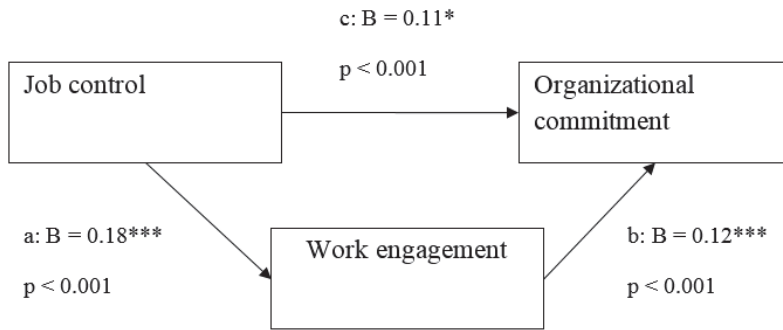


Figure 2: Values of B for the direct and indirect impact of job control on organizational commitment (group 2)

The Sobel test proves the effect of mediation ($z = 2.54$; $p < 0.01$). The relationship between control and work engagement is particularly pronounced among small-scale catering staff. The results also confirm that work engagement acts as a mediating factor in the relationship between job control and commitment to the organization.

4.2 Relationship between Socio-Organizational Resources and Job Satisfaction

Tables 3 and 4 present data on the effects of direct, indirect, and global work support and psychological climate on job satisfaction in different study groups.

Table 3: The influence of job support and organizational climate on job satisfaction (group 1)

	Job support			Psychological climate		
	B	SE	95% CI	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.50***	0.08	[0.33; 0.66]	0.41***	0.12	[0.24; 0.66]
Direct effect	0.28***	0.07	[0.15; 0.43]	0.19*	0.12	[0.02; 0.41]
Indirect effect	0.22***	0.05	[0.11; 0.33]	0.22**	0.08	[0.09; 0.42]

The model with social support as the independent variable yielded an F -value of 35.58 ($p = 0.001$) and an R^2 of 0.11. Meanwhile, the model with psychological climate as the independent variable yielded an F -value of 69.95 ($p = 0.001$) and an R^2 of 0.18. The unstandardized regression coefficient B , standard error SE , and confidence interval CI were used to evaluate the significance of the results, with the significance levels denoted by * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, and *** $p < 0.001$.

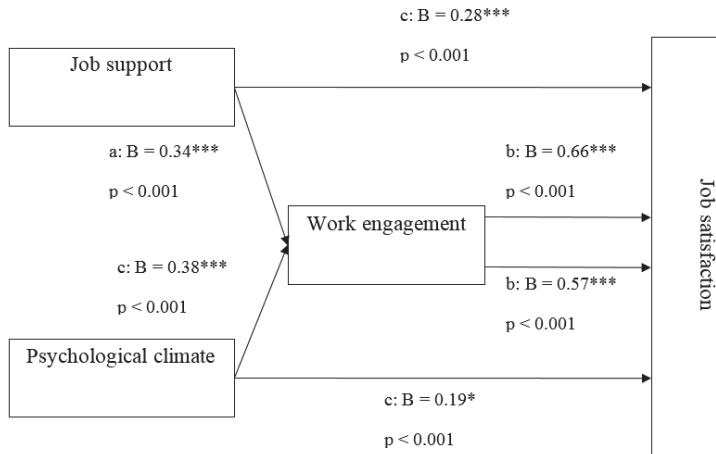


Figure 3: Values of *B* for direct and indirect effects of job support and psychological climate in the organization on job satisfaction (group 1)

Table 4: The influence of job support and organizational climate on job satisfaction (group 2)

	Job support			Psychological climate		
	B	SE	95% CI	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.60***	0.09	[0.35; 0.7]	0.48***	0.10	[0.22; 0.60]
Direct effect	0.44***	0.08	[0.18; 0.45]	0.39*	0.10	[0.10; 0.40]
Indirect effect	0.22***	0.06	[0.14; 0.38]	0.20**	0.10	[0.12; 0.46]

In the model where social support is the independent variable, the fit statistic (*F*) is 45.76, with a significant *p*-value of 0.001 and an *R*² of 0.12. In the model where psychological climate is the independent variable, the fit statistic is 79.24, with a significant *p*-value of 0.001 and an *R*² of 0.16. The values of *B*, *SE*, and *CI* for each model are presented, with significance levels indicated as **p* < 0.05, ***p* < 0.01, and ****p* < 0.001.

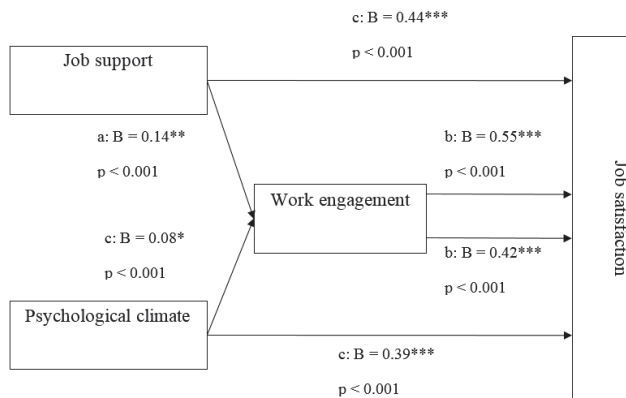


Figure 4: Values of *B* for direct and indirect effects of job support and psychological climate in the organization on job satisfaction (group 2)

The results indicate that job support is linked to job satisfaction directly or indirectly with work engagement involved. The indirect effect on job satisfaction ($z_1 = 4.28$; $P < 0.001$; $z_2 = 4.33$; $P < 0.001$) are confirmed by the Sobel test.

While indirect effects on job satisfaction are somewhat stronger than direct ones for employees of large food service chains (Figure 3), the direct effect of job support on job satisfaction is much more important for employees of small food service establishments (Figure 4).

As for psychological climate, the indirect effect is statistically significant among the workers of large catering chains (Table 3), and both direct and indirect effects are significant for the employees of small enterprises (Table 4). In large companies, psychological climate contributes to job satisfaction by strengthening work engagement ($z = 3.15$; $P < 0.01$), while the direct effect of psychological climate on job satisfaction is fairly weak (Figure 3). In smaller companies, however, the team's psychological climate has a direct impact on job satisfaction (Figure 4).

The findings from both subject groups confirm that work engagement mediates the relationship between the job resources and job satisfaction. The study also confirms the direct relationship between job support and job satisfaction, and to some extent, between the workplace psychological climate and job satisfaction.

4.3 Relationship between Social Support and Job Satisfaction

Tables 5 and 6 show results on the direct, indirect, and overall effects of social support on job satisfaction in different groups of respondents.

Table 5: The influence of support outside the workplace on job satisfaction (group 1)

	Support outside the workplace		
	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.42***	0.1	[0.24; 0.64]
Direct effect	0.20*	0.1	[0.01; 0.44]
Indirect effect	0.22**	0.09	[0.09; 0.42]

The statistical analysis of the model with social support as the independent variable showed a significant effect ($F(2,72) = 17.11$; $p = 0.001$) with an explained variance of 19% ($R^2 = 0.19$). The unstandardized regression coefficient (B) and standard error (SE) were used to estimate the effect size, and the confidence interval (CI) was calculated. The level of significance was indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$).

Table 6: The influence of support outside the workplace on job satisfaction (group 2)

	Support outside the workplace		
	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.51***	0.12	[0.3; 0.65]
Direct effect	0.30**	0.12	[0.05; 0.5]
Indirect effect	0.28**	0.10	[0.1; 0.45]

In the model with social support as the independent variable, the fit statistic shows a significant relationship between the variables ($F(2,82) = 19.22$; $p = 0.001$; $R^2 = 0.19$). The unstandardized regression coefficient B, standard error SE, and confidence interval CI are provided, and the level of significance is indicated by * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

The data presented indicates that social support has a positive impact on job satisfaction in both groups, with a direct and indirect effect mediated through increased work engagement. The

statistical analysis shows that the dependence between social support and job satisfaction is important, as demonstrated by the low p-value and high R² value for both groups. The unstandardized regression coefficient (B) and standard error (SE) values are also provided to indicate the magnitude and precision of the relationship, respectively.

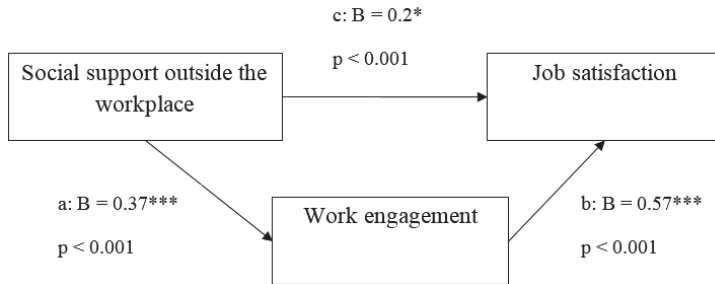


Figure 5: Values of B for direct and indirect effects of social support outside the workplace on job satisfaction (group 1)

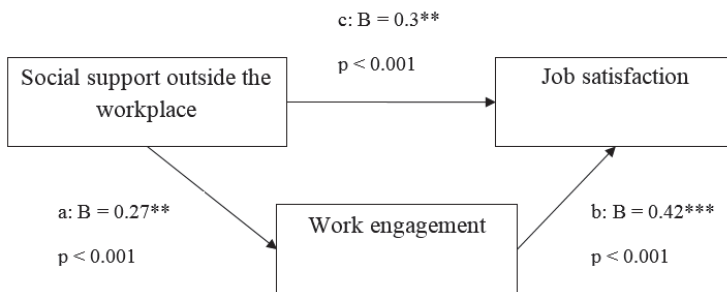


Figure 6: Values of B for direct and indirect effects of social support outside the workplace on job satisfaction (group 2)

Figures 5 and 6 illustrate that the relationship between engagement and job satisfaction is particularly strong in both groups. The mediation effect is confirmed with the Sobel test ($z_1 = 3.12$; $P < 0.01$; $z_2 = 3.31$; $P < 0.01$).

4.4 Relationship between Self-Efficacy as a Personal Resource and Work Engagement

Tables 7 and 8 present results for the direct, indirect, and overall effects of the relationship between the sense of self-efficacy and work engagement.

Table 7: The impact of self-efficacy beliefs on work engagement (group 1)

	Overall sense of self-efficacy		
	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.76***	0.08	[0.55; 0.88]
Direct effect	0.62***	0.08	[0.43; 0.75]
Indirect effect	0.14***	0.03	[0.05; 0.19]

The model with self-efficacy as the independent variable yielded significant results ($F(2,508) = 79.11, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.14$) with unstandardized regression coefficients B, standard errors (SE), and confidence intervals (CI) presented, indicating the strength of the relationship between self-efficacy and the dependent variable. Significance levels for $*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, \text{ and } ***p < 0.001$ are also provided.

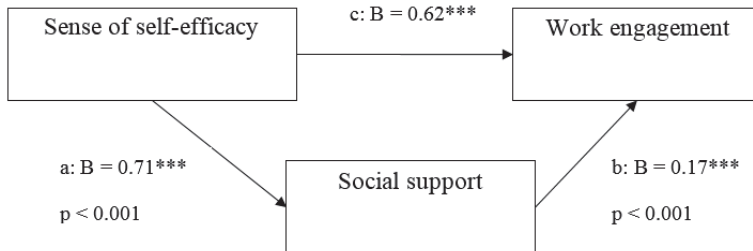


Figure 7: Values of B for direct and indirect effects of self-efficacy on work engagement (group 1)

Table 8: The impact of self-efficacy beliefs on work engagement (group 2)

	Overall sense of self-efficacy		
	B	SE	95% CI
General effect	0.55***	0.05	[0.5; 0.9]
Direct effect	0.18***	0.05	[0.4; 0.85]
Indirect effect	0.62***	0.02	[0.05; 0.25]

The model with self-efficacy as the independent variable shows significant results, with a fit statistic of $F(2,586) = 85.34, p = 0.001$ and $R^2 = 0.14$. The unstandardized regression coefficient B, standard error SE, and confidence interval CI are reported, with statistical significance denoted by $*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, \text{ and } ***p < 0.001$.

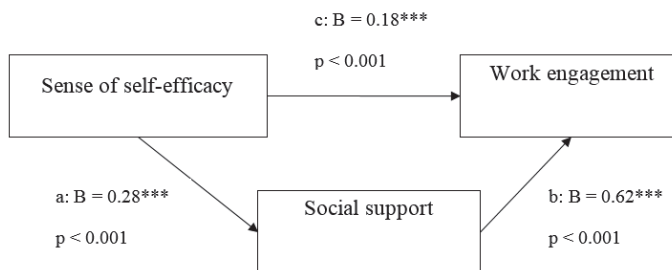


Figure 8: Values of B for direct and indirect effects of self-efficacy on work engagement (group 2)

The results presented in Tables 7 and 8 and Figures 7 and 8 suggest that overall self-efficacy beliefs for members of both groups are associated with engagement both directly and indirectly with the involvement of social support. The mediating effect of specific and general self-efficacy is corroborated by the Sobel test ($z_1 = 3.19; P < 0.01; z_2 = 3.33; P < 0.01$). However, among employees of large chain restaurants, a notably stronger effect is observed with a direct relationship (Figure 7), while in employees of small catering companies, the effect is stronger with the indirect influence of social support (Figure 8). The findings, therefore, confirm that self-efficacy beliefs directly promote engagement, as well as influence it indirectly through increased social support.

5. Discussion

Differences in the value of direct and indirect effects of socio-organizational and personal resources on organizational commitment and job satisfaction can be explained by the following circumstance.

Large network organizations have in-house support in the form of corporate benefits, healthcare programs, and professional training, and the performance of job functions is more standardized there. All of the above leads to the fact that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are to a greater extent mediated by the indirect effect of work engagement.

In small catering outlets, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are more directly dependent on available social and organizational resources, such as control and support at the workplace, the psychological climate in the small team, and social support in the family (Okojide et al., 2023).

The findings of this study are consistent with previous research on the association between organizational resources, employee commitment, performance, and personal achievement. The results show higher levels of achievement than unengaged employees, whether judged by the employee, their supervisor, colleagues, or customers (Bakker et al., 2007). For instance, a study by Kumar (2021) focuses on Spanish restaurant workers based on a survey of their customers, evaluating the quality of service of individual employees, as well as studying the level of customer loyalty. A structured modeling analysis of mediation finds that resources held by employees, as well as work engagement, are associated with the climate prevailing in the team, which in turn is linked to improved quality of service and higher customer loyalty.

A study on Greek employees of a fast-food chain suggests that work engagement can predict pay grades. Salary can be seen as an indicator of high performance, which indirectly confirms the relationship between work engagement and achievement. Similarly, German studies (Bakker et al., 2008; Bakker, Van Emmerik, et al. 2010; Bakker, Van Veldhoven, et al., 2010), conducted mainly under the direction of A.B. Bakker on different occupational groups confirm that the level of professional achievement of employees scoring high on the engagement scale is estimated to be higher than that of unengaged employees. A.B. Bakker, Van Veldhoven, et al. (2010) believe that work engagement can lead to higher professional achievement through four different mechanisms – positive emotions, good health, resource mobilization, and the phenomenon of contagion by the engagement of co-workers.

Concerning the first of these mechanisms, research shows that people who experience positive emotions in the workplace see more positive opportunities for their work, are more open and friendly to others, assimilate new information more easily, and have more faith in their abilities and greater optimism (Bakker, Van Emmerik, et al. 2010). In addition, happy employees likely enjoy more support from supervisors and coworkers. All of these factors can contribute to high achievement levels of engaged employees.

The second mechanism whereby engagement can lead to better performance is good health. Numerous studies find that engaged employees show better health – they are less likely to complain of headaches, heart problems, muscle tension, neck muscle ankylosis, or toothaches (Fadare et al., 2022).

Another factor behind the high performance of engaged employees may be the ease with which they mobilize their personal and work-related resources. For instance, a study by Goetz and Wald (2022) demonstrates an inverse relationship between job and personal resources and commitment to work. Work engagement is often found to be associated with the presence of great job and personal resources. However, it is also important to note that work engagement can have a positive impact on both personal and job-related resources.

The final mechanism through which engagement influences achievement at work is the crossover interaction between highly engaged employees and the work environment as a whole. The phenomenon of crossover interaction between studios was that engaged employees, by communicating their optimism to others and openly demonstrating positive work attitudes and pro-

social behavior, create a climate conducive to work. Working in such an environment promotes satisfaction and highly professional performance. However, a Scandinavian study with a three-year interval of measurements in a social group of more than 2,500 fast-food workers (participants were representatives of generation Z) deserves special attention (Hakanen et al., 2008). This research reveals that employees characterized by great organizational resources in the first section exhibited higher levels of work engagement after three years. The engagement measured in the first section, in turn, contributed to stronger organizational commitment in the second section.

6. Conclusion

The results presented in this study demonstrate that both organizational, social, and personal resources contribute to employees experiencing a positive perception of work – job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Work engagement plays an important part in shaping this positive perception. In the reported study, work engagement mediates the relationship between organizational and social resources and positive perceptions of work. In addition, the study discovers that personal resources lead to increased engagement by influencing social resources.

The study's findings have practical implications for management practitioners, as they demonstrate the significance of organizational and social resources in shaping positive attitudes and emotions toward work. Furthermore, future research could explore how employees' personal resources impact their positive perception of work.

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