

Predicting The Role of Organisational Listening and Job Resources in Job Engagement

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ABSTRACT

Job engagement is defined as one's enthusiasm and involvement in his or her job. Individuals who are profoundly engaged with their job are motivated by the work itself. They will, in general, work harder and more productively than others and are bound to create the outcomes that their clients and organisation need. Although existing empirical studies have provided evidence that perceived organisational support (POS) and supportive leader behaviour can significantly predict job engagement, the effect of organisational listening on employee job engagement is still under researched. Guided by the Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model, this study proposed that organisational listening is a vital predictor of job engagement. We analysed whether organisational listening holds a more substantial statistical power than perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour as job resources. We conducted an online survey that involved 207 employees from a Malaysian IT management consulting company. After analysing the survey data through multiple regression analysis, the results showed that organisational listening was a significant predictor of job engagement. Besides, organisational listening showed an incremental validity above and beyond perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour in predicting job engagement. These findings suggest that employees become engaged in their job when they believe that the leader incorporates values and action to listen accurately and is supportive. Implications in theoretical and practical perspectives were discussed.

Keywords: *Organisational listening, job engagement, job resources, perceived organisational support, supportive leader behaviour.*

INTRODUCTION

Many a time, financial bottom lines, revenue, budgeting, planning, return of investment (ROI) and return of expenses (ROE) are the key factors that affect the survival of a corporation. However, underlying all of these factors of corporation success is an essential foundation that is often overlooked—job engagement. Job engagement has been regarded as a desirable condition (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Job engagement is defined as one's enthusiasm and involvement in his job. Individuals who are profoundly engaged with their job are motivated by the work itself. Kahn (1990) defined job engagement as "the harnessing of organisation members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during work performances (p. 694) and later added the psychological presence component (Kahn, 1992). The psychological presence is mediated by availability, safety and meaningfulness, which lead to the outcomes of performance, experience and growth (Kahn, 1992). Extant studies found that if employees' physical, cognitive and emotional are taken care of, employees will generate greater returns on task performance, innovative behaviour, mental and physical health. These employees are also less likely to voluntarily leave the organisation (Shurak et al., 2021).

According to Qualtrics EmployeeXM (2020), the trend of employee engagement is low. In its recent survey with 13,551 employees across 17 countries and regions found that only 53% of employees were engaged in their work. When compared to the global average, employee engagement in Malaysia stood at an average of 54%. This figure is far below its neighbour country, Thailand (72%) but is higher than Singapore (47%).

As job engagement or work engagement has become a buzz word in human resources (Freeney & Tiernan, 2006), it has also received considerable attention from communication researchers (e.g., Chhetri, 2017; Kahn, 1990; Men et al., 2019; Osborne & Hammoud, 2017; Saks, 2006). There is a growing acknowledgement that creating a positive climate in the workplace that fosters job engagement might help overcome problems associated with workplace stress and dissatisfaction. It is well-noted that highly engaged employees are 10% more likely to exceed performance expectations, while companies with high levels of engagement achieve 2.5 times more revenue growth and 40% less attrition (Qualtrics EmployeeXM, 2020). Many scholars, hence, have investigated possible predictors and antecedents that would affect job engagement (e.g., Ali et al., 2020; Saks, 2019; Arendt et al., 2019). Several studies have identified predictors of job engagement, including perceived organisational support (e.g., Liu et al., 2019), job resources (e.g., Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019), listening behaviour (e.g., Jonsdottir & Kristinsson, 2020) and personal characteristics (e.g., Zhao et al., 2020). These studies have provided consistent results of the possible factors affecting job engagement. However, still missing from this stream of research is other contextual factors affecting job engagement. Hence, introducing the new variable of organisational listening leads to deeper understanding of the phenomena. To fill this gap, this study aims to examine whether organisational listening predicts work engagement and whether it predicts work engagement above and beyond more frequently studied job resources (i.e., perceived organizational support and supportive leader behaviour).

STUDY RATIONALE

The JD-R model suggested job resources will increase work engagement because they play both an intrinsic and an extrinsic motivational role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Job resources are defined as physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Examples of job resources are perceived organisational support (POS), autonomy/job control, social support from supervisor and co-workers, task significance, task variety, growth opportunities performance feedback/recognition, and supervisory support/coaching (Saks et al., 2022; Yuan et al., 2020; Freeney & Tiernan, 2006). Organisational listening is hypothesised as a job resource in this study. Burnside-Lawry (2012) defined organisational listening as “an organisation that incorporated values and actions to listen accurately—the perception that the organisation has accurately received and understood the message sent, and in a supportive manner—that enhanced the relationship between an organisation and its stakeholders” (p.113).

The investigation of organisational listening as a predictor of work engagement is of paramount importance due to two reasons. First, listening is the vital corollary of speaking. It is well-acknowledged that communication is a process of giving, receiving and exchanging messages that are completely understood by both sender and receiver. Craig (2006) explained that while communication in its recommended two-way process involves dialogue, it must involve speaking and listening. Besides, dialogue is more than a single utterance and also

more than turn-taking at speaking. A shared meaning-making process highlights organisational power constructions and demands, which increases the value placed on interacting with diverse stakeholder groups to arrive at new meanings and understandings (Taylor & Kent, 2014). This resulted in the opportunity to develop meaningful partnerships among and with stakeholders, in this case, the employees, and dialogue is at the root of employee engagement that contributes to meaning-making (Taylor & Kent, 2014). Therefore, in the context of employee engagement, this is not enough until both employer and employee work together to agree upon a shared understanding of goals and objectives, and listening skills are just as important as speaking skills for the communication to be effective in the workplace.

Second, while the significance of listening in job engagement and organisational performance from the Qualtrics' research has been outlined above, the examination of listening has rarely been taken as one of the predictors to be tested in a hypothesised model. In other words, while listening is one of the most demanding aspect of the communication process, its effect is least emphasised (Abd Rahim, 1987). The reason being that listening is mostly based on the relational paradigm of public relations (Borner & Zerfass, 2018). In a study systematically analysed listening as an organisational activity (Borner & Zerfass, 2018) explained, research on examining the role of organisational listening within the disciplinary fields that focus on organisational communication relevant domains, be it from internal or external contexts, as well as public relations and corporate communication is scarce, despite the concepts of two-way interaction, dialogue, engagement, relationships and even symmetrical communication are used extensively in these fields of practice (Lewis, 2020; Mcnamara, 2018, 2019, 2020). In light of the above, we hypothesised that organisational listening can influence one's job engagement beyond other consistent factors which have been studied in organisational communication literature.

JD-R MODEL

The Job-Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is a quintessential framework for investigating employee well-being or ill-being in an organisation (Crawford et al., 2010; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Scholars introduced it to explain the development of job burnout and well-being phenomenon among employees (Demerouti et al., 2001). Extant studies showed that the JD-R model has gained much attention among Western scholars and in various disciplines, such as job performance in the school environment, healthcare organisations and private sectors (Jonsdottir & Kristinsson, 2020). The JD-R model demonstrates that every occupation or job environment has its characteristics in terms of job demands and job resources, which are two working conditions associated with different psychological processes in terms of job engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).

The definition of job demands refers to that job usually requires employees to spend both physical and/or psychological efforts (i.e., cognitive and emotional) on organisational and social aspects. It points to "things employees have to be done" (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). The job offers various resources to the employees belonging to the organisation to trigger the employees to stay positive, concentrate on the operational goals and stimulate job involvement. Job resources are presented in different ways, such as salary and job upgrading opportunities, interpersonal support from colleagues and supervisors, participation in organisational decision-making, and effective communication and feedback towards working performances (Bakker et al., 2007). Scholars highlighted the function of job resources in a

working environment, including reducing psychological and psychosocial pressures among the employees, activating working goals in an organisation, and cultivating personal growth for a long-term goal (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001). Furthermore, job resources also could minimise the impacts of job demands on employees' well-being (Bakker et al., 2005). It populates the logic of the original JD-R model that there is a negative association between job resources and job demands (Bakker et al., 2008).

Several studies confirmed the theoretical assumption in the JD-R model. For instance, a study conducted by Bakker et al. (2004) stated that school teachers' job resources are significantly associated with their job satisfaction and performance on extra roles beyond teaching tasks. Contrarily, if schools do not provide rewards to teachers, it increases the chance of withdrawal from work or reduces their teaching motivation (Bakker et al., 2003). Pierce et al. (2009)'s study reported that job demands, along with time pressure, can cause job-related negative emotions and mental pressures. Muala (2017) applied the JD-R model in a news agency setting, which showed that high job demands, and low job resources could cause job stress (i.e., one type of negative job engagement outcome) among journalists in the news organisations

Up-to-date, scholars are also highly interested in modifying and extending the JD-R model by inviting other relevant factors to become more suitable for the specific research context. For instance, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) considered personal resources into the JD-R model, such as optimism, self-efficacy and organisational-based self-esteem, which would collaborate with job resources to predict the outcomes of job engagement. Volpone and Avery (2013) articulated that discrimination regarding specific gender, ethnicity, or other self-identical characteristics should be considered as one type of job demands in an employment setting and being analysed in the JD-R model framework. Therefore, based on these calls, Lee (2019) confirmed the role of job discrimination in the JD-R model, which moderated the associations between job demands, job resources and psychological well-being among employees. Moreover, Idris et al. (2011) proposed that psychological safety climate (PSC) can be an antecedent variable to the two dominant job conditions, job demands and job resources since PSC initially influences the working environment and employee performances. However, there is not enough study to extend or modify the JD-R model by considering communication-related factors such as organisational listening, which is an essential element for various outcomes (e.g., job engagement) in the organisational setting.

EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

The concept engagement has been widely investigated not only in business and management-related literature (e.g., human resource) (Welch, 2011) and communication-related literature, such as social media engagement, CSR engagement, civic engagement and dialogic engagement (Taylor & Kent, 2014). However, these terms are somehow not operationalised well (Stoker & Tusinski, 2006); it concentrates more on the particular context, rather than a commonly shared definition. For example, in psychology and human communication literature, social engagement is defined as "the interaction and connection with family members, friends, and other social ties" (Zunzunegui et al., 2003), which is associated with human cognitive functions, social learning, and relationship maintenance (Krueger et al., 2002). In media studies, researchers defined media engagement as "the involvement of media channels", to get a connection or relation with the environment (Calder & Malthouse, 2015). Employee engagement, on the other hand, refers to the employee's working role and task orientation.

Different scholars have conceptualised employee engagement from various angles (Saks, 2006). For example, Maslach and Leiter (1997) defined it as "the energy, efficacy, and involvement in a work-related state". Quirke (2017) stated that employee engagement is the process of emotional interaction, associating with employees' performance in their organisation. Furthermore, Eldor and Harpaz (2016) mentioned that employee engagement should be considered as a psychological process to shape employees' working processes and organisational behaviour, including physical, emotional, and cognitive efforts. Kompaso and Sridevi (2010) defined employee engagement in a similar way: the process of developing an emotional connection between the employees and the organisation.

From the above definitions, it is clear that employee engagement is essential to any corporate organisation (Osborne & Hammoud, 2017). An early study showed that employee engagement cultivates employee's psychological health and well-being in an organisation, which could lead to job satisfaction, optimal job performance and growth (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Bolman and Deal (2014) articulated that employees' participation is always subject to effective engagement, like employee autonomy and rewards from the managers. When employees feel they are fully engaged in a job environment, their performance motivation and flow experiences can be triggered (Mills & Fullagar, 2008). Employee engagement gives remarkable impacts on both employees and the organisation itself. By reason, scholars stated that employee engagement is a critical element in managing corporate visibility and organisational profitability. Organisations that are highly engaged with employees usually hold immense visibility and more significant profit than those who perform insufficient employee engagement. In turn, for employees, when they are working in a highly engaged environment, their productivity and satisfaction towards the organisation would be ensured (Albrecht et al., 2015).

Employee engagement has become a critical challenge in today's corporate world. It involves the leadership capacity of the employers, the organisational culture of the workplace, and communication strategies. Studies indicate that employers or leaders in an organisation are the dominant influencers of employee engagement; effective employee engagement is the foundation of a healthy employer-employee relationship. Thus, appropriate employee engagement, along with effective leadership provides a clear direction for the organisation's long-term development. Besides that, organisational culture is another leading contributor to effective employee engagement, shaping psychological ownership among employees. It is easier and more effective to conduct employee engagement when employees work in a psychologically safe environment (Dollard & Bakker, 2010).

In organisational communication literature, scholars highlighted the importance of communication in employee-organisation relationship management (EOR). For example, Walden et al. (2017) found that employee communication is the essential antecedent of employee engagement and organisational commitment. Rhee and Moon (2009)'s findings reported that communication factors, such as information adequacy are closely associated with employee engagement in an organisation. Hence, internal communication or employee communication is a necessary strategy to foster employee engagement and subsequently achieve long-term personal and organisational goals.

ORGANISATIONAL LISTENING AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Originally, the concept of listening was from political communication perspectives (Dobson, 2014; Wurzelbacher, 2009). Scholars indicated that when politicians conduct campaigns in

the community, especially during presidential and other major elections' candidature, it is necessary to gain support and trust among the mass public via conversations and other expressions. By doing so, the public voice would be obtained but the effects of such engagement are minimal, and the public's feeling has always be ignored (Eveland et al., 2020). Listening skills among politicians are somehow defective (Brownell, 2017). In recent years, scholars call for further investigation on the concept of listening and its function in other disciplines, such as business management, public relations and organisational communication (Charan, 2012; Macnamara, 2018) as listening is directly or indirectly related to staff motivation, staff loyalty and workplace productivity in an organisation (Lloyd et al., 2017).

Listening in an organisation usually involves two-way communication processes with employees, stakeholders and the public (Macnamara, 2018). It would be the situation of having an engagement with employees within the workplace or holding a dialogue with external stakeholders. Macnamara (2018) defined the term "organisational listening" based on literature from different contexts. He firstly differentiated the characteristics between interpersonal listening and organisational listening: interpersonal listening is a direct and synchronous communication process, but organisational listening is an asynchronous and completed interaction that happened in an organisational setting. Generally, organisational listening related to the environment at both social and organisational levels.

As a necessary skill, organisational listening exists in both situations of internal and external communication for an organisation (Capizzo, 2018). Previous studies analysed its functions and relationships under the umbrella of internal communication, such as organisational sustainability maintenance and employee engagement. Ruck et al. (2017) found that senior managers and their perceptiveness listen to employees' voice are associated with organisational emotional engagement and internal satisfaction in British companies. Cheng et al. (2013) stated that in companies based in Taiwan, internal listening behaviour is positively associated with opinion exchange between leader and members, subsequently related to work engagement. Furthermore, Mishra et al. (2014) revealed that the effects of internal listening are also positively associated with employee relations. Thus, openly sharing information and listening to employees' voices are essential factors for an organisation's long-term development.

Some studies concentrated on organisational listening by involving the concept of dialogue in organisational communication. For example, Johansson et al. (2014) found that effective two-way leadership communication provides opportunities for dialogue in an organisation. In detail, leaders with good communication ability are more likely to listen to the employees, and handle employee relations in proper ways; in a nutshell, they are good listeners (De Janasz et al., 2009). Empirical research also focused on the significant relationship between employee voice/silence and working behaviour (Brinsfield, 2014), which should be the main foci in organisational communication.

Listening in the organisational context received scant attention from researchers, and most of the studies concentrated on the terms such as "employees' voice", "internal dialogue" and "speak up". Nevertheless, these definitions and logics shined lights on future research to examine organisational listening in different contexts, and it would be constructive to listening scholarship since organisational listening is initially connected with the policies, social structures, system and processes (Macnamara, 2018). It could benefit organisational decision making, policymaking and reputation management. Besides, organisational listening theory building should be further conducted.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Considering that studies about the JD-R model did not take organisational listening as one of the job resources that could affect job engagement, introducing the new variable of organisational listening leads to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. Toeing that line, the conceptual framework of this study is illustrated in Figure 1.

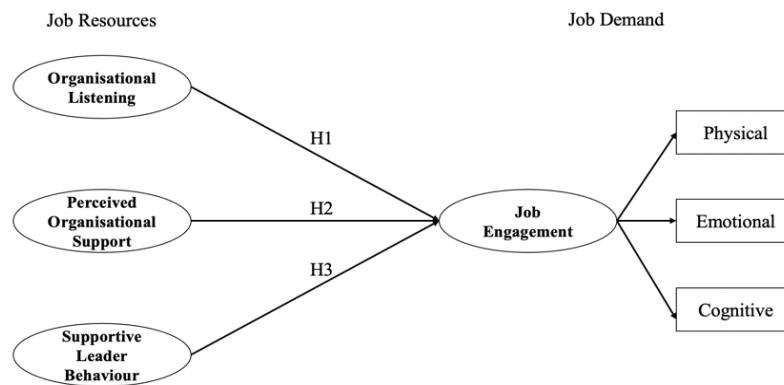


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

Hypotheses of the Study

The hypotheses of the study are classified into general hypotheses (H) and specific hypotheses (SH). Both are summarized as follows:

H1: Perceived organisational support (POS) will significantly predict job engagement positively.

SH1.1: POS will significantly predict physical features of job engagement positively.

SH1.2: POS will significantly predict emotional features of job engagement positively.

SH1.3: POS will significantly predict cognitive features of job engagement positively.

H2: Supportive leader behaviour will significantly predict job engagement positively.

SH2.1: Supportive leader behaviour will significantly predict the physical features of job engagement positively.

SH2.2: Supportive leader behaviour will significantly predict emotional features of job engagement positively.

SH2.3: Supportive leader behaviour will significantly predict cognitive features of job engagement positively.

H3: Organisational listening will significantly predict job engagement positively.

SH3.1: Organisational listening will significantly predict the physical features of job engagement positively.

SH3.2: Organisational listening will significantly predict the emotional features of job engagement positively.

SH3.3: Organisational listening will significantly predict cognitive features of job engagement positively.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Procedure

This study tested the effect of JD-R model variables, particularly job resources and validate the effect of organisational listening in employee engagement by using a survey method. Data were collected from 207 employees in an IT management consultation company located in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. To participate in this study, the participant must have worked at the organisation for at least a year and possessed specific skills set. A URL link for the English web survey was e-mailed to the respondents. The pool of respondents was 54.6% male and 45.4% female with an average age of 25.80 years ($SD = 1.65$). 87.9% had at least a Bachelor's degree, and most of the respondents were ethnic Malay (50.7%). The majority of the respondents were single (80.2%). Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the survey respondents.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	20-25	65	31.4
	26-30	138	66.6
	31-35	4	1.93
Gender	Male	113	54.6
	Female	94	45.4
Marital Status	Married	41	19.8
	Single	166	80.2
Education	Bachelor Degree	182	87.9
	Diploma	13	6.3
	Master's Degree	11	5.3
	Professional Certification	1	0.5
Race	Malay	105	50.7
	Indonesian	22	10.6
	Arab	21	10.1
	Chinese	13	6.3
	Indian	11	5.3
	Vietnamese	12	5.8
	Thai	16	7.7
	Khmer	5	2.4
	Bumiputera Sabah	2	1

Measures

a. Dependent Variable

Job engagement acts as the dependent variable of the study, and consistent with Kahn (1990)'s definition of engagement, it means "the harnessing of organizational members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (p. 694). Hence, it comprises three dimensions: physical engagement, emotional engagement and cognitive engagement. To measure job engagement accurately, each dimension is measured with six items, adapted from Rich et al. (2010), with a 7-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). The total number of items for the overall job engagement, therefore, is 18 items. An example of physical engagement is "I strive as hard as I can to complete my job"; while an example of the item for emotional engagement is "I feel positive about my job" and cognitive engagement is that "I pay a lot of attention to my job when I'm at work" (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.96$, $M = 5.92$, $SD = 0.83$).

b. Independent Variable

Organisational listening. Organisational listening was defined as an organisational culture that openly acknowledges the right of employees to speak and share their ideas and opinions in the organisation. Six items were adapted from Longweni and Kroon (2018) to measure this variable. Among the examples of items used are “There are ways for me to communicate my ideas to senior management” and “My manager is seeking my views or/and other employees’ or employee representatives’ views” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.92$, $M = 5.63$, $SD = 0.90$).

Perceived organisational support. Six items were used to measure the degree to which employees felt that their contributions were valued by the organisation (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). Items were adapted from Malik (2013), Pasion-Caiani (2014), Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002). An example of the item is “This organisation is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.90$, $M = 5.15$, $SD = 0.92$).

Supportive leader behaviour. Supportive leader behaviour was measured by the extent to which employees felt they are respected and their feelings are cared for by the leader. Six items were adapted from Malik (2013), Pasion-Caiani (2014), Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) to measure this variable (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). An example of item is “My manager gives encouragement and support at work” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.91$, $M = 5.47$, $SD = 0.93$).

Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied for the data analysis. Using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 22.0, frequency, percentages, means and standard deviation were presented as descriptive statistics in the results to answer the research objectives. For the inferential statistics, correlation and simple multiple regression analysis were used to test the research hypotheses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Prior to hypothesis testing, this study performed a correlation analysis to examine the relationships between study variables. Based on the analysis, results show that job engagement dimensions were found to have a strong and be positively correlated with organisational listening ($r = .80$, $p < .01$), perceived organisational support ($r = .73$, $p < .01$) and supportive leader behaviour ($r = .66$, $p < .01$) (Table 2). This result supported past studies with the findings of if the leader is an individual who supports (being supportive, including listening) and attentive and able to stimulate the understanding and motivation, this will help employees to get tasks done effectively and efficiently as they have a positive belief that their contributions are valued and acknowledged by the leader and organisation (Ariani, 2014; Ruck et al., 2017). In detail, organisational listening is more highly related to the physical aspect of job engagement ($r = .73$, $p < .01$) compared to emotional ($r = .71$, $p < .01$) and cognitive ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), suggesting that the more the organisation listens to the employees, the more they would commit the energy and effort to complete their jobs. As for supportive leader behaviour, it is more highly correlated with the emotional aspect of job engagement ($r = .66$, $p < .01$), indicating that the more the superior gives support and encouragement to the subordinates, the more the employees feel attached to their work compared to cognitive aspect ($r = .62$, $p < .01$) and physical engagement ($r = .45$, $p < .01$) at work. Although there was a significant correlation between supportive leader behaviour and physical engagement, the

magnitude of the correlation was weak. The results also showed that perceived organisational support showed the highest correlation with the emotional aspect of job engagement ($r = .78$, $p < .01$), explaining that the positive perceptions of surveyed respondents harboured towards the organisation, the more the employees feel attached to their work. These findings suggested that perceived organisational support led to affective commitment. In a nutshell, these results indicated that the more the organisation listens and gives support to the employees, the more the employees perceive the organisation to be supportive and in return, the more they were engaged with their job.

Table 2: Correlation matrix for studied variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Job Engagement	-	.87**	.88**	.89**	.80**	.73**	.66**
2 Job Engagement (Physical)	-	-	.65**	.68**	.73**	.51**	.45**
3 Job Engagement (Emotional)	-	-	-	.65**	.71**	.78**	.66**
4 Job Engagement (Cognitive)	-	-	-	-	.68**	.60**	.62**
5 Organisational Listening	-	-	-	-	-	.73**	.65**
6 Perceived Organisational Support	-	-	-	-	-	-	.61**
7 Supportive Leader Behaviour	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

** $p < .01$

Predictors for Job Engagement and Its Dimensions

Further analysis was carried out, using simple multiple regression to identify the best predictor(s) for job engagement as a whole and its dimensions (physical, emotional and cognitive). The regression analysis would help assess the unique predictive power of additional test variables. Results showed that all factors (organisational listening, perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour) positively predicted overall job engagement. Table 3 shows that three factors all together explained 70% of the variance in overall job engagement ($R^2 = .701$). From the result, organisational listening ($\beta = .494$, $t = 8.083$, $p = .000$), perceived organisational support ($\beta = .250$, $t = 4.301$, $p = .000$) and supportive leader behaviour ($\beta = .188$, $t = 3.576$, $p = .000$) were positively associated with overall job engagement.

Sub-hypotheses 1.1, 2.1 and 3.1 stated if perceived organisational support, supportive leader behaviour and organisational listening significantly predict the physical dimension of engagement. Result showed that only organisational listening was statistically significant to physical dimension of engagement ($\beta = .728$, $t = 15.128$, $p = .000$). A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 203) = 228.871$, $p = .000$) with an R^2 of .530. Perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour were found as insignificant predictors for the physical dimension of engagement. Hence, sub-hypotheses 1.1 and 2.1 were rejected.

Sub-hypotheses 1.2, 2.2 and 3.2 stated if perceived organisational support, supportive leader behavior and organisational listening significantly predict cognitive dimension of engagement. Result showed that all factors were statistically significant to predict cognitive dimension of engagement. In detail, organisational listening contributed 46% of variance ($R^2 = .464$) in cognitive dimension of engagement. This indicated that organisational listening ($\beta = .681$, $t = 13.266$, $p = .000$) is the primary factor that predicts cognitive dimension of

engagement. The predictive power is strong according to Cohen (1988). The combination of organisational listening ($\beta = .488, p = .000$) and supportive leader behavior ($\beta = .295, p = .000$) added (51.4 – 46.4) per cent or five per cent to the variance ($R^2 = .514$) in the criterion variable of cognitive dimension of engagement ($F(2, 202) = 106.962, p = .000$). However, the predictor variable of perceived organisational support least accounted for the cognitive dimension of engagement as the combination of perceived organisational support ($\beta = .151, p = .041$) with organisational listening ($\beta = .401, p = .000$) and supportive leader behavior ($\beta = .261, p = .000$) only added (52.4 – 51.4) per cent or one per cent to the variance ($R^2 = .524$) in the criterion variable of cognitive dimension of engagement ($F(3, 201) = 73.848, p = .000$). Sub-hypotheses 1.2, 2.2 and 3.2 were supported.

Sub-hypotheses 1.3, 2.3 and 3.3 stated if perceived organisational support, supportive leader behavior and organisational listening significantly predict emotional dimension of engagement. Result showed that all factors were statistically significant to predict emotional dimension of engagement. In detail, perceived organisational support ($F(1, 203) = 309.180, p = .000$) contributed 60% of variance ($R^2 = .604$) in emotional dimension of job engagement (Table 4). This indicated that perceived organisational support ($\beta = .777, t = 17.584, p = .000$) is the primary factor that predicts emotional dimension of engagement. The predictive power is strong according to Cohen (1988). The combination of perceived organisational support ($\beta = .593, p = .000$) and supportive leader behavior ($\beta = .304, p = .000$) added (66.2 – 60.4) per cent or six per cent to the variance ($R^2 = .662$) in the criterion variable of emotional dimension of engagement ($F(2, 202) = 197.697, p = .000$). However, the predictor variable of organisational listening least accounted for the emotional dimension of engagement as the combination of organisational listening ($\beta = .190, p = .003$) with perceived organisation support ($\beta = .493, p = .000$) and supportive leader behavior ($\beta = .240, p = .000$) only added (67.6 – 66.2) per cent or one per cent to the variance ($R^2 = .676$) in the criterion variable of emotional dimension of engagement ($F(3, 201) = 139.912, p = .000$). Sub-hypotheses 1.2, 2.2 and 3.2 were supported.

As a whole, H3 was supported while H1 and H2 were partially supported. The best predictor of job engagement is organisational listening. Similar to past researches (Jagannathan, 2014; Pasion-Caiani, 2014; Zhong et al., 2016), which perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour influenced job engagement. Additionally, organisational listening predicts job engagement positively and significantly. The result indicated organisational listening predicts job engagement above as compared with perceived organisational support ($\beta = .250, t = 4.301, p = .000$) and supportive leader behaviour ($\beta = .188, t = 3.576, p = .000$). The findings concur with past literature regarding the predictive power of job resources (perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour) and organisational listening in studying job engagement (Jagannathan, 2014; Pasion-Caiani, 2014; Zhong, Wayne, & Liden, 2016; Ruck et al., 2017; Kwon, Farndale, & Jong, 2016). Past studies found that good listening techniques are the cornerstone to the organisation success. As our nation has shifted from an industrial-based economy to an information-based economy, effective listening is an essential element in job resources, helping employees reach their personal goals and to feel empowered (Macnamara, 2018; Osborne & Hammoud, 2017). According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, by 2020, just under 80% of the workforce in the United States will be working in service-oriented industries such as education, healthcare, retail sales, and state and local government (Henderson, 2012). These industries all have one thing in common: they all demand

employee-customer interaction, which translates into profit (Titsworth et al., 2021). Based on the core tenet of the JD-R model, employees will feel able to devote more efforts to engaging in their work if they believe that the organisation and leader can provide them with valuable resources, such as opportunities to participate in the decision-making process that can provide benefits to them (Kwon et al., 2016). In fact, engagement emphasises listening, feedback, two-way and dialogic communication (Men et al., 2019). Performance feedback for most managers highlights listening as one of the most important areas for improvement (Titsworth et al., 2021). Hence, an organisation that listens accurately to its employees' voice foster job engagement among employees. When employees are engaged cognitively, emotionally and physically, they are more aware of the roles in the work environment and put heart into the work roles. They, in return, bring the full selves to the job duties they are fulfilling. Literature suggests that empathic listening and effectively using verbal and nonverbal feedback are among the most critical listening skills for the workplace (Titsworth et al., 2021).

Table 3: Multiple regression analysis for factors influencing job engagement and its dimensions

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficient		
	B	SE	β	t	p
Overall Job Engagement					
Constant	1.274	.218		5.83	.000
Organisational Listening	.454	.056	.494	8.083	.000
Perceived Organisational Support	.225	.052	.250	4.301	.000
Supportive Leader Behaviour	.169	.047	.188	3.576	.000
F=157.44, df=3, 201, p=.000; R=.838, R ² =.701, R ² =Adj. = .697					
Job Engagement Physical					
Constant	2.301	.252		9.137	.000
Organisational Listening	.669	.044	.728	15.128	.000
F=228.871, df=1, 203, p=.000; R=.728, R ² =.530, R ² =Adj. = .528					
Job Engagement Emotional					
Constant	.442	.277		1.597	.112
Perceived Organisational Support	.540	.066	.493	8.124	.000
Supportive Leader Behaviour	.263	.060	.240	4.384	.000
Organisational Listening	.212	.071	.190	2.982	.003
F=139.912, df=3, 201, p=.000; R=.822, R ² =.676, R ² =Adj. = .671					
Job Engagement Cognitive					
Constant	.994	.328		3.027	.003
Organisational Listening	.438	.084	.401	5.193	.000
Supportive Leader Behaviour	.279	.071	.261	3.929	.000
Perceived Organisational Support	.162	.079	.151	2.053	.041
F=73.848, df=3, 201, p=.000; R=.724, R ² =.524, R ² =Adj. = .517					

CONCLUSION

This study attempted to predict the roles of organisational listening and job resources in job engagement among workers in an IT company. We redirected scholarly attention to organisational listening as a predictor of job engagement, emphasising the important role of two-way communication and dialogue communication in enhancing job engagement. It addressed a gap in the literature relating to the communication-engagement connection, specifically the role of organisational listening. It is noteworthy that the study found organisational listening accounts for more variance when compared with perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour in overall job engagement.

The findings highlight organisational listening, perceived organisational support and supportive leader behaviour as valuable areas for job engagement and internal communication scholarship. This clearly suggests that leaders or internal communication managers should seek ways to institutionalise openness, willingness to listen and engaging with the employees as the core organisational value. In the long run, employees are the important assets for organisational success. Hence, it is overarching for leaders and internal communication managers to find ways to forge and sustain favourable relationships with employees in such a way as to reduce disengagement among employees (Saks, 2006). When employees are engaged, as a result, productivity will be improved, and employees infuse everything they do with purpose, energy and enthusiasm.

Stephens and his colleagues (2011) have suggested five strategies that provide a substantial starting point for leaders to create a dialogical milieu in organisations. Intrinsically, all these strategies are significant to contribute to cognitive, emotional and physical dimensions of job engagement. These strategies focus on conveying presence, being genuine, communicating affirmation, effective listening and supportive communication. Hence, organising training sessions and workshops around these strategies could profoundly help leaders and employees in cultivating a positive communication climate in organisations.

Findings from this study suggest that future research should consider the possible effects of organisational listening or employee voice on job engagement. Further research could be conducted to explore organisational listening as a mediator of job engagement to enhance research on corporate communication. Another interesting avenue would be to explore if job resources and organisational listening could potentially affect job satisfaction or job performance in organisations (e.g., Kwon et al., 2016). Different aspects of organisational listening such as roles of upward communication, downward communication, vertical and horizontal communication patterns practised in organisations may also influence employees' performance and engagement in various aspects, such as cognitive, affective and physical (e.g., Ruck et al., 2017).

This study contains limitations. First, limited by a single organisation, this study restricts the result generalisability to other identical organisations and industries. Future studies can extend this work to diverse samples to overcome this limitation. Second, although the study model was found empirical support, limited by the one-time survey design cannot confirm causation with certainty. Hence, longitudinal or experimental designs are recommended. Third, this study applied stepwise multiple regression analysis to examine the causal relationships of the examined variables. Future research may consider applying hierarchical analysis by controlling certain variables to find out the contributing factors to the outcome conclusively. Last but not least, our conceptualisation of job engagement was lack of comprehensiveness. It could contain other subdimensions that are beyond physical,

emotional and cognitive. Such as spiritual intelligence and other psychological elements. Future research should refine this concept and form a more holistic concept for the field of study.

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