

**RELATIONAL REWARDS AND EMPLOYEE
ENGAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC HEALTH SECTOR IN
KENYA**

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my husband, Advocate Joshua Olando Nyikuli, my children, Dennis Okisai, Trinity Amuhoyi, and Emmanuel Petero, as well as my daughter-in-law Jamilla Masitsa, for their unwavering support throughout my academic journey. To my beloved father Michael Muchibi, I salute you for understanding the transformative power that education holds and you made it your mission to facilitate learning for me. The fruits are evidence of this academic journey.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AICPA	American institute of certified public accountants
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BTE	Burnout Theory of Engagement
CD	Career Development
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel Development
COVID 19	Coronavirus Disease 2019
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
EE	Employee Engagement
FBOs	Faith-Based Organizations
HPWP	High Performance Work Practices
JD-RT	Job Demand-Resource Model
JD	Job Design
KCB	Kenya Commercial Bank
NCK	National Council of Kenya
NHSSP	National Health Sector Strategic Plan
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
OC	Organizational Culture
OCAQ	Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire

PPE	Personal Protective Equipment
PHS	Public Health Sector
QWL	Quality of Work Life
RR	Relational Rewards
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WE	Work Environment
WLB	Work-Life Balance
WLI	Work Life Integration
WHO	World Health Organization

DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Career Development	Career development (CD) entails a linear upward movement from relatively low status, responsibility, and remuneration to a higher position (Setyawati, Waelandari & Riandto, 2022).
Employee Engagement	Employee engagement (EE) is defined in terms of well-known facets like employee commitment or organizational citizenship behavior, total dedication, devotion levels, emotional bonding and employee's physical performance, and intellectually (Jones & Riedel, 2018).
Job Design	Job design (JD) is a process of bringing together different elements; task variety, autonomy, task identity, task significance, and feedback to shape a job, taking into account organizational and individual worker requirements and considerations. (Moeed, Syeda, Asad, & Saira, 2013).
Organizational Culture	Organizational culture (OC) refers to "the pattern of shared values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, assumptions and practices that may not have been expressed but influences the way people in organizations interact, behave, act and do things" and forms an organization's core identity (Schein & Schein, 2017).
Relational Rewards	Relational rewards (RR) refers to intangible (non-financial) rewards concerned with the work environment, work situation, work itself, and employees' physical, emotional, intellectual and psychological well-being (Joshi 2016).

Work Environment

Work environment (WE) refers to perceptions of the organization's policies, practices and procedures, reflected in the quality of the physical settings, workload complexity and management support that impacts on employee engagement (Schneider & Barbera, 2013).

Work Life Integration

Work life integration (WLI) initiatives are concerned with employees' interaction between personal, family, paid and unpaid work responsibilities (Cahill, McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, and Valcour, 2015).

ABSTRACT

This research aimed to study Relational Rewards (RR) and Employee Engagement (EE) in the Public Health Sector (PHS) in Kenya. In addition, the research concentrated on exploring the moderating function in the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement of organizational culture (OC). The study's theoretical framework drew from social exchange theory, Super's career development theory, burnout theory of engagement, Job demand-resource model, and Job characteristics model. The study was guided by pragmatism philosophy, descriptive research design and the deductive method and survey were used as research techniques. 3,092 respondents were the target population. Stratified and basic random sampling methods were used to choose the sample population. The sample size was 342 respondents, drawn from two different cohorts of 35 doctors and 307 nurses. A questionnaire was used as a method for data collection to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data types. The questionnaire was pilot tested on 30 respondents from Kakamega County national government public servants. Content validity was realized by adopting tested questionnaires and supervisors' views, whereas construct validity was ensured through confirmatory factor analysis. The reliability of the questionnaire was ensured using the Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency, which was 0.773. The response rate was 97.7% (334 respondents). A mixed method approach was used, and data analysis was realized using both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Demographic data were analyzed using frequency distributions and Percentages with the results presented in charts and tables. Thematic content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data. Using descriptive and inferential statistical methods, quantitative information was edited, coded, and analyzed. Frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were given by descriptive analysis. Correlation, basic and multiple linear, hierarchical and step-wise regression analyses were used to base inferential statistics. Pearson Correlation Coefficient and ANOVA were the inferential tools used to evaluate the power, direction, and relationship between the study variables with the help of IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM SPSS) version 24. The relationships among the variables were tested using a t-test at 5% significance and an F test. The study found out that career development ($r=0.670p<0.000$, $R^2=0.449$), job design ($r=0.721p<0.000$, $R^2=0.519$), work environment ($r=0.699p<0.000$, $R^2=0.488$) and work-life integration ($r=0.748$, $p<0.000$, $R^2=0.559$), each had a significant direct influence on employee engagement. Work life integration was ranked with the highest statistical power indicating the most significant factor predicting and influencing employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. Organizational culture was found to have a significant but moderate moderating relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement. From these findings, a conclusion was drawn that relational rewards are closely associated with employee engagement and that organizational culture weakly moderates the relationship between the two variables. The study recommends the Public Health Sector to adopt career management policies, management support strategies, provide job characteristics and health and safety standards, and promote flexible work timings and job sharing to enhance employee engagement. The recommendations made by this study offer insightful guidance for the policy makers to prioritize developing relational reward strategies in order to increased employee engagement which shall lead to improved service delivery.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Rewards and their impact on the behavioral outcomes of employees are increasingly becoming a source of concern. Setiawan and Mardiana (2022) argue that a standardized reward system increases employees' motivation and organizational loyalty. As a result, effective reward management is needed by initiating strategies, processes, and policies to guarantee that employees are recognized for their contributions, skills and abilities to the organization (Sidhu & Nizam, 2020). Reward management is concerned with financial/extrinsic/transactional such as pay rise, benefits, bonuses and incentives (Noko & Nwuzor, 2021; Owolabi, Ajidagba, Akinola, Falaye, & Irinyemi, 2019) and non-financial/intrinsic/relational like work environment, increased job responsibility, recognition, successfully attaining a goal, work life integration, job design, training and development (Zafar, Sarwar, Zafar, & Sheeraz, 2020).

Scholars debate on the best kind of reward to apply. Some argue that focusing on extrinsic rewards is the best strategy to increase employee engagement since it addresses employees' non-financial needs. Moreover, people with more wealth are more influential in society, as wealth is mostly seen as awarding personal triumphs and achievements. That transactional rewards can be embedded in organization procedures and routines, are measurable and justifiable (Bruni, Pelligra, Reggiani, & Rizzolli, 2020; Noko & Nwuzor, 2021). Other scholars, however, disagree with their studies that confirm marginal ties between extrinsic incentives and engagement and that they are counterproductive to creativity and have a demotivating impact among employees (Grolnick, 2023; Momanyi, Adoyo, Mwangi, & Moku, 2016; Venketsamy, & Lew, 2024)

These researchers opined that remuneration and an individual's pay cheque is the simplest and easiest reward element to replicate. For this reason, organizations are finding new

ways of differentiating themselves from their competitors to attract the best talents by focusing on offering a wider scope of relational rewards (Okanga & Kamara, 2017). Zeng, Takada, Hara, Sugiyama, Ito, Nihei, and Asakura (2022) support relational rewards as being more valued than transactional incentives in increasing employee engagement. Hence the significance of coming up with strategies to encourage employees intrinsic drive to improve work engagement (Hara, Asakura, Sugiyama, Takada, Ito, & Nihei, 2021).

Relational rewards are non-financial / non-monetary incentives which are intangible in nature and intrinsically driven. Joshi (2016) coined that relational rewards have an almost infinite number of components that contribute to the work environment, work situation and work itself, and employees' physical and psychological well-being. Similarly, they tend to tie workers more tightly to the company as they offer a supportive psychological contract that addresses unique individual needs, thereby playing a major role in an organizational engagement strategy (Joshi, 2016). These rewards have substantial effect on an employee's job satisfaction by meeting emotional and intellectual demands allowing workers to feel good about themselves, make better use of their skills, and support contact with others (Mosquera, Soares, & Oliveira, 2020). Kumar *et al.* (2015) suggest that relational rewards are internal, focusing on things that offer feelings of personal fulfillment, self-esteem, autonomy, self-actualization, and a sense of growth or development of special skills and talents. Ryan and Deci (2020) argues that relational rewards cause an enthusiastic response and work to inspire employees to keep on improving as well as make long-lasting changes in behavior when needed.

Several studies have varied relational rewards inducement, including training and development, pleasant working environment, workplace well-being, Teamwork and peer support, job design, career development, learning and development and flexible working hours (Habib, Manzoor, & Jamal, 2017; DP & Riana, 2020; Kiiru & Kiiru, 2022; Gaudie, 2020 ; Albrech, Green & Marty, 2021; Opadeyim & Akpa 2021). Kaaviyapriya and Xavier (2020) argue that intangible non-cash elements like job design, work-life balance, space for achievement and autonomy, career opportunities, learning and development, flexible

working hours, appreciation and praise, the organization's work-life quality are important elements of the organization's work. According to Pregolato (2010), these are called relational rewards, which connect employees to an organization more efficiently through fulfilling individual needs such as personal growth and fulfillment.

The above studies together with the Kenyan labour laws; The Employment Act (2007) and Occupational Safety and Health Act (2007) which provides for conditions of employment, employment relationships, rights and duties of employment, safety, health and welfare of workers and workplace informed the choice of the variables under the study. These include career development, job design, work environment and work life integration from which the specific objectives of the study were derived. Al-Smadi (2020) acknowledge that employers and employees have become more aware of relational rewards and associated benefits of long-lasting effects which foster a positive culture and encourage loyalty and engagement to the organization. According to Ryan and Deci (2020), intrinsic rewards elicit a positive emotional response and serve as a motivator for employees to keep improving and, when necessary, make long-lasting behavioral which have helped organizations control or reduce costs.

Stanfast and Stanfast (2023) approves that relational rewards have proved to be strategic elements that lead to continuous success by improving the employees' attitude and commitment and developing competencies to their respective input. The opportunity to acquire and apply new and precious skills keeps them updated and becomes increasingly more valuable. Employees want a positive workplace where they are esteemed and appreciated. Besides, employees hope to be led by leaders who train, develop, coach, and inform them through essential communication and listen to issues that concern them. As a result, many organizations have run away from the "trap" of one-dimensional pay solutions and progressed to relational rewards. There are no doubts relational rewards are an important driver of employee engagement contributing to business performance for organizations around the globe.

The pursuit of organizational success in today's business world lies not only in an organization's ability to promptly respond to the uncertain and rapidly changing environment or the aggregation of the multi-skilled workforce but also in having engaged employees who perceive and connect emotionally, physically, and cognitively to work tasks and the work environment (Harunavamwe, Nel, & Van, 2020; Madu, Asawo, & Gabriel, 2017). In the contemporary business environment, employee engagement has become increasingly indispensable to business enterprises that seek to retain valued and committed employees (Nyikuli 2020). Fully engaged employees go beyond the job requirements enabling the organization to triumph, have fewer health issues, are less stressed, and are more satisfied with their personal lives (Albrecht, 2021). Engaged employee imbue physical effort and show discretionary effort, and vigour, enthusiasm, care, commitment and is more likely to be cognitively and emotionally attached to work tasks, feel pleased to be part of the organization, perceive meaningfulness and contribute to the organization's goals (Monje Abea, & Faina, 2020). Cheche (2018) advocates that those employees are at their best when they have personal jurisdiction over their work roles and discern that the workplace is safe, pleasant, and suitable for their well-being.

Several scholars have different operationalization and definition of employee engagement. Marcey and Scheineider (2008) advocates employee engagement consisting of three engagement categories: trait, state and behavioural engagement; Huang, Huang, and Chang (2022) identified emotional, cognitive, and physical engagements; Castellano (2015) pinpointed psychological, state and behavioural engagement; Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) (2014) singled out intellectual, affective and social engagements and Joshi, Adhikari, Khanal, Khadka and Belbase (2022) recognized behavioral, cognitive, emotional and social as dimensions of engagement. All these studies have highlighted the importance and benefits of employee engagement to other organizational dimensions such as employee turnover, absenteeism, workers' productivity, customer satisfaction, profitability, business growth, and performance. Employee engagement is therefore, of great interest to many studies as it influences organizational outcomes (De Carlo, Dal Corso, Colledani and Falco, 2020).

Although there is an increase in business-oriented research that illustrates how engaged employees contribute to an organization's overall success, little academic and empirical research has been conducted on the subject, especially in Kenya specifically in the Western region. Accordingly, there is a lack of a concord meaning of employee engagement in the scholarly literature, which suggests a need better to understand the employee engagement phenomenon through more research. This study looked at relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

1.1.1 Global Review of Relational Rewards and Employee Engagement

Habib, Manzoor, Khalil, and Jamal (2017) researched the private health sector to evaluate the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement. Using doctors, paramedical staff, and nurses as respondents, the ANOVA results indicate that the study model was notable with a p-value of less than 0.05. The F-test value also backed the correlation, i.e., 11.036 showing a significant relationship between dependent and independent variables.

Kumar, Hossain, and Nasrin (2015) measured the effect of relational rewards on employee motivation in different organizations in Bangladesh. Eight independent variables were taken for the study, including recognition for performance, working environment, opportunities for career advancement, ability utilization, effective communication channels, and the security of service, show creativity, and independence in work to identify their effect on employee motivation. The outcome from the link indicates that a significant effect on relational rewards contributes to employee motivation. The study concluded that it was evident that relational rewards have a positive effect on employee motivation. Further, employees want autonomy, a good working environment, creativity, good relation with peers, recognition of their work, and job security to utilize their ability 100 percent.

Joshi (2016) looked at how Relational Rewards Creates a Fulfilling Workplace Environment in India. The study found that relational rewards can be a strapping and supple tool for motivating employees to achieve higher performance. Such a strategy can

assist the organization to have a competitive advantage as it establishes a peculiar set of rewards that serve as a differentiator for attracting and retaining talent. Further, Relational rewards bind employees more firmly to the organization as they convey a positive psychological contract that meets specific individual needs. Relational rewards being non-monetary, do not add to the compensation expenses and intensify the productivity and creativity of the employees. These rewards lead to increased motivation levels and instill a feeling of organizational citizenship.

Iqbal, Karim, and Haider (2015) looked at the effect of leadership and rewards on employee engagement in the formal banking sector in Pakistan. Results disclosed that leadership intensifies and encourages employee engagement and is a definite emotional connection to an employee's performance. A definite consequence of organizational leadership and reward is linked to a higher level of engagement. Furthermore, engaged workers are inspired to exceed their support to the organization to accomplish its tasks and meet its business goals.

In Malaysia, Haimi, Ahmad, Fatihah, Abdullah, Sumilan, and Sumilan (2016) determine the relationship between non-financial compensation factors and employee retention in the selected hotel industry. The results revealed a significant association between the factors; training opportunities, job challenges, promotion opportunities, recognition, and working environments on employee retention the working environment being the prime factor that contributes to employee retention. A study by Diankenda (2015) in Ireland on the relationship between reward management and recognition of employee's motivation in the Workplace reckoned that rewarding both formally and informally had the advantage of motivating staff and providing a means of acknowledging the employee's contribution. Managers should beget a desirable environment for employees to participate in the organization's decision-making process and with suitable rewards for their active participation.

1.1.2 Africa Continental Review of Relational Rewards and Employee Engagement

Orga, Mbah, and Chijioke (2018) studied the influence of relational rewards on staff productivity in Shoprite Company, Enugu State, Nigeria. The study revealed that the relationship between medical benefits and level of absenteeism and having relaxation areas and output volume was significantly high by $F(95, n = 275) = 1046.270$ and $F(95, n=275) = 1345.096$, respectively. It was concluded that non-financial rewards impacted staff commitment to the task, productivity, and industrial harmony. Further, they coined that recognition increased employees' aspiration to contribute, which stimulates the average and low performers to follow the high performers in rewards expectation.

In Ethiopia, Dagne (2018) researched how a supportive work environment, learning and development, employee recognition, and job autonomy have influenced the retention and reduction of employee turnover in Berhanena Selam Printing Enterprise. The model summary of regression results revealed that the adjusted R square was high, 59% of the variance in employee retention, which concurred with the ANOVA results. The regression coefficient outcome also further disclosed that non-financial rewards surveyed in the study were important components in employee retention at the Enterprise. Further, the β coefficient result also disclosed that job autonomy had the greatest effect on employee retention, learning and development, and a supportive work environment.

In Tanzania, William (2015), in the study on the use of non-financial incentives as a strategy to improve teacher's performances: A case of Ilala Municipality Community Secondary Schools, advocates that non-financial motivation is both essential as a means for compensating in case of the insufficiency of wage and monetary incentive, and also a vital means for fulfilling teachers' many other needs such as developing one's full potential, social interaction, a feeling of achievement, belongingness, attention, recognition, respect, a feeling of self-worth, autonomy, a meaningful job, feedback about performance among others. Further, community secondary schools need to employ non-financial motivation to fortify positive behaviours contributing to the achievement of school goals.

Msisiri and Juma (2017) researched the relationship between relational rewards and retention of banking employees in Arusha, Tanzania. The study contended that effective employee retention was attached to the appreciation of employees, employee work-life balance, continuous improvement of the working environment, and recognition. A study by Agbenyegah (2019) in a financial institution in Ghana looked at recognition, opportunities for career development, job promotion, and training, and their effect on motivating employee performance revealed that monetary and non-monetary rewards affect employee performance. Further, commitment and involvement came from other motivational factors such as job challenges, appreciation, personal growth, and, more recently, opportunities to join in the decision-making process.

Ahmed, Oyagi, and Tirimba (2015) determined whether recognition, training, and working conditions as non-financial motivation affected employee productivity at the Ministry of Finance Headquarters in Hargeisa Somaliland. The study findings indicated that working conditions correlated at $r=0.440$, training at $r=0.702$, and recognition at $r=0.706$, all influencing employee productivity at different levels. Rajendran, Mosisa, and Nedelea (2017) researched the effects of non-monetary benefits on employee performance in Ethiopia's Bako Agricultural research center. The study disclosed that the employee's job performance was positively and strongly associated with appreciation and recognition, training and development, promotion, good working environment, management style, thank you from Superior, and elements of relational reward, which are positively and highly associated with employee's job performance.

1.1.3 Kenyan Review of Relational Rewards and Employee Engagement

Moruri, Obwayo, Kimeto, Khandira, and Mbatha (2018) assessed the effects of non-financial motivators: the work environment, effective communication, and training on employee performance at Baringo County Referral Hospital. The findings reported a positive connection between non-financial motivators on employee performance. The study concluded that non-financial motivators are beneficial for effective service delivery, ensuing in improved performance.

Nyaga (2015) researched relational rewards and employee retention in Kiambu County on private primary schools. The study found that job flexibility was important since it allowed employees some authority in their working hours. That granted them room to serve for other occurrences that came in their life outside the office, making the job not to be a hindrance to their responsibilities, motivating them, and reducing turnover intentions. Therefore, non-financial rewards took supremacy as an element of employee retention. Koskey and Sakataka (2015) researched the effect of rewards on employee commitment and engagement at Rift Valley Bottlers Company. The results indicated that several components contribute to employees' commitment and engagement at the place of work. These elements included free interaction with fellow workers, promotion opportunities, health benefits, and job-relevant training.

Gitamo, Mageto, Koyier, and Wachira (2016) researched the effects of reward systems on employee satisfaction by taking a case study at Kenya Forestry Research Institute. The study revealed that the non-monetary rewards employed, such as recognition, appreciation, empowerment, and autonomy, are directly related to employee morale and performance in Research Institutions in Kenya, which increase productivity. Muchiri (2016) researched the effect of rewards on employee performance in the hospitality industry. The results exhibited a positive link between rewards and employee performance, with intrinsic rewards having the highest correlation, followed by extrinsic rewards and other factors exhibiting the least correlation. Multiple regression analysis divulged an R square of (0.683), meaning that (68%) of employee performance was ascribed to relational rewards, transactional rewards, and other factors.

The above studies coincide with the fact that there exists a positive link between relational rewards variables and employee behavioral outcome aspects in organizations. However, most of these studies have reviewed sectors such as banking, hospitality, education, private, and manufacturing. As observed, a few of them have illuminated the current state of the problem in the public health sector in Kenya. The findings of these studies could be said to be limited in application to the said sector. Hence, the existence of a research gap in the public health sector in western counties, which is a unique contextual environment.

This proposed study identifies the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement in the Public Health Sector in Kenya moderated by organizational culture.

1.1.4 Relational Rewards, Organizational Culture and Engagement

Schein and Schein (2017); describes organizational culture as "the pattern of shared values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, assumptions and practices that may not have been expressed but influences the way people in organizations interact, behave, act and do things". They form the core identity of an organization. It represents the social glue, generates 'we-feeling' in an organization, and offers a shared system of meanings, the basis for communications and mutual understanding. An organizational culture is a tool for effective management in enhancing an organization's effectiveness and adequate performance (Liu *et al.*, 2018). Sokro (2012) accounts that culture is a crucial part of the internal environment of an organization as it is a set of assumptions, norms, beliefs, values, and customs that direct employees understand what the organization stands for, what is important to it, and how it does things.

Sarala and Vaara (2020) advocates that a positive organizational culture can lead to increased employee satisfaction, employee engagement and productivity, leading in enhanced creativity, better financial performance and reduced turnover rates. In their study, Jones *et al.* (2018) disclosed the importance of incorporating culture in organization processes and practices as it gives a form to the organizational processes which aid in creating a modified culture in organizations. Robust organizational culture is critical in building a successful business as it helps employees in sense-making, recognizing the affair of the organization, and fixing objectives which stimulate the tolerance of the employees in the organization and boost their confidence level.

The results of empirical studies linked to the influence of organizational culture on employee behavioural outcomes are quite extensive (Alkhodary, 2023; Ghumiem, Alawi, Al-Refaei, & Masaud, 2023; McCune & Peterson, 2021; Nazneen, Miralam, & Qazi, 2018): Warrick and Gardner (2021) posit that these studies have been conducted with the

focus of identifying the nature and type of organization culture in organizations, the key values, beliefs, and norms in the organization that has caused the needed effort in attaining the success and quality performance of the organizations. This study investigated the moderation influence of OC on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement.

1.1.5 Public Health Sector in Kenya

The government of Kenya is resolute in ameliorating equity of and access to quality crucial health care services and guaranteeing that the health sector plays its role in the fulfillment of Vision 2030, improvement of public service, and the Sustainable Development Goals. The vision's social pillar is to be realized by the health sector, which has been given the role of maintaining a skilled and healthy workforce required to propel the economy. The public health sector in Kenya concedes that human resources for health limitations are a critical element impeding Kenya's health sector service delivery, planning, and, eventually, national health results.

While acknowledging the sector's continued human resource challenges, the ministry of health, in partnership with the 47 county health departments, is devoted to providing successful leadership to hasten the execution of this strategy. This commitment aims not only to realize Vision 2030 but also to expedite the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals and national health targets set by the Third National Health Sector Strategic Plan (HFF, 2012). Human Resource for health is one of the key components of a health system in any country. Worldwide testament points to a direct relationship between the size of a country's health employees and its health results. The report by WHO (2006) coined that Kenya is among the 57 countries in the world and 36 within sub-Saharan Africa that face a severe health workforce catastrophe. Kenya's health sector has insufficient crucial health employees like diagnostic scientists, doctors, and nurses.

Further, WHO estimates a ratio of 44.5: 10,000 doctors and nurses per population respectively required to achieve the SDGs by 2030, but Kenya's ratio is only 23.6: 10,000

indicating a significant gap (WHO, 2021). Over the last decennary, Kenya's progress in ameliorating the overall health position of its population has had varied results. While life anticipation has risen and measures to address specific diseases like Tuberculosis, HIV/AIDs, and Malaria have capitulated positive results, a lot remains to be done.

The country is facing a notable threat from major communicable diseases and swiftly growing non-communicable diseases. The Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic was a major threat, and Kenya, like other countries globally, continues to brawl with it since the first case was reported on March 13, 2020, and the outbreak spread to all of Kenya's 47 counties. By 5th July, 2023, Kenya had confirmed 343,786 positive cases of COVID19, with 5,689 deaths reported to the World Health Organization (MOH, 2023). This whoops for a vivacious health care system with adequate skills and well-distributed human resources to deal with diseases and other sicknesses (HISAR, 2012).

Doctors and nurses who are among the frontline health workers providing healthcare services and central to the COVID-19 pandemic response, taking care of patients and simultaneously fighting the spread of the virus are accompanied by a toll on their psychological, physical and mental health. They also face lofty risks of infection in their efforts to protect the greater community. The reality of working long and exhausting hours in layers of Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) with very few breaks, significant mental stress and anxiety, and little social contact for weeks results in an inevitable state of disengagement or burnout without adequate support from the employer (Khasne, Dhakulkar, Mahajan, & Kulkarni, 2020). Therefore, the public health sector needs to come up with relational reward strategies like flexible working, including work shifts, frequent rest breaks, good working conditions, avoiding excessive workloads, and training to encourage the engagement, motivation, stimulation, and satisfaction of doctors and nurses in this tough time (Chanana & Sangeeta, 2020; Vickers 2019).

There are a variety of health facilities in Kenya operated by the government, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), private sector, faith-based organizations (FBOs), and international organizations rolled out across the country, totaling to 7,795. The

government leading with 3,956 (42.9%), private sector 2,652 (37.8%), faith-based 881 (11.4%) and NGO's 306 (3.2%). Health functions have been devolved to counties as a result of the implementation of the constitution of Kenya 2010. County Health Services are arranged around three levels of care per the structure: Community, Primary care, and Referral Services (HIS, 2013).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Population densities of Doctors and Nurses together with availability of functional facilities, competent and engaged employees are primary factors of a country's capacity to deliver adequate primary health care coverage to 63% of Kenyans who have access to government health services (IRC 2015; MOH 2021). However, the population density of doctors in the 47 counties in Kenya ratio is at 23.6:10,000 people against the Okoroafor *et al* (2022); WHO (2021) index threshold of 44.5:10,000 people required to achieve the SDG 3 by 2030 indicating a significant gap of 53%.

Further, MOH (2021) report through the Kenya Health Labour Market Analysis (HLMA) indicates doctor's proportion in the 47 counties in Kenya; Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega and Vihiga inclusive ranges from 0-1 rates which are below the national benchmark of 3 doctors per 10,000 people. In addition, WHO (2006) revealed that Kenya is among the 57 countries in the world and 36 within sub-Saharan Africa that face a severe health workforce catastrophe with insufficient crucial health employees like doctors and nurses.

According to the Kenya Health Workforce Report (2015) the public health sector in Kenya seems to experience a very high proportion of employee engagement crisis. The report stipulates that the main elements propelling the disengagement among the workforce in the public health sector leading to turnover intentions include; dissatisfying working conditions and reward systems, inadequate Resources and disregarded health system, and poor human resources planning and management practices and structures. Okanga and Kamara (2017), in agreement with the scenario, contemplated that poor working conditions, limited opportunities for career development and training, poor leadership and

governance, lack of job security, and heavy workload are among the causes of low motivation and disengagement.

Kirui, Luciani, Ochieng, and Kamau (2013); Waithaka, Kangwanja, Nzinga and Tsofa (2020) posited that this has led to persistent crises in the Kenyan health sector occasioned by threats for and holding demonstrations and strike actions. Similarly, Magokha (2015) confirms that, arising out of disengaged workforce, there is a striking and noticeable depletion of frontline health workers leaving the public sector yearly after joining government employment to seek employment either in the private sector, Non-governmental organizations, Faith-based organizations, or travel abroad for white scholar jobs.

Thus, the need to study and understand the link between relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. Studies done on this relationship have focused on the Banking sector, Kenya's Hospitality Industry, Education sector, Private Enterprises, and Tea Factories. This study also focused on the moderating influence of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement which is scanty in the literature on Kenya, and fill this existing gap.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study's objectives included the general and specific objectives as indicated below.

1.3.1 General Objective

The study's general objective was to investigate the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study's specific objectives investigated included;

1. To examine the influence of career development on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
2. To assess the influence of job design on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
3. To determine the influence of the work environment on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
4. To analyze the influence of work-life integration on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
5. To assess the moderating influence of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in public health sectors in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses tested by the study included;

1. H₀1: Career development does not have any significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
2. H₀2: Job design has no significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
3. H₀3: The work environment does not have any significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
4. H₀4; Work-life integration has no significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.
5. H₀5: Organizational culture has no moderating influence on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

1.5 Justification of the Study

Highly engaged employees imbue more of themselves in their work and are willing to expend more of their discretionary effort to assist their employer to succeed. They go beyond their call of duty by satisfying customers, increasing productivity, and reducing turnover intention which may forecast organizational success. This study's recommendation will grant insight and information to administrators, policy makers, practitioners and researchers.

Administrators

Administrators from the health sector in Kenya will benefit from the survey feedback and could implement strategies for change that address participant responses. They will also benefit by understanding how critical engagement is and that, as a positive dimension, it can be assessed easily in various settings. After assessing employee engagement, administrators can develop and implement change strategies that would improve staff engagement in their organization, thereby potentially increasing the overall effectiveness and possibly decreasing levels of burnout.

Policy Makers

Policymakers in the public health sector will appreciate the information that underlies the significance of employee engagement in achieving organizational objectives when designing performance improvement strategies and policies.

Practitioners

Practitioners will benefit from the study results as data generated will support the significant role human resource management practices play in enhancing employee engagement and, by extension, that of the organizations. This information could push for greater participation of human resource experts in strategic decision-making in firms. Additionally, they will benefit by understanding engagement and realizing that they will

be more successful in serving clients and, at the same time, at less risk for occupational burnout if they are working at a job where they can fully engage. Further those in supervisory positions may benefit by understanding that staff usually adopt the characteristics and attitudes of their leaders, making it difficult for staff to be engaged unless the managers are. Supervisors should, therefore, work toward creating a work environment that lends itself to engagement from themselves and the staff.

Researchers

Finally, researchers will use the information to perform related studies that will add to the knowledge base on relational rewards and employee engagement. Researchers should determine further what other factors may predict engagement, and what the specific benefits of engagement are both for the employee and the organization.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This research focused on the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement, as shown in the conceptual framework in Figure 2.1. The study's targeted population included doctors and nurses including enrolled nurses and registered nurses from county referral hospitals (Provincial Secondary Hospitals) in Western Kenya as a unit of analysis. These were the respondents who had the information on employee engagement issues. The choice of Doctors and Nurses was informed by the fact that they are the front-line public health service providers. The choice of the Public Health Sector was ideal for the study because they are the major providers of health services and one of the major employers of health workers. The study's unit of observation was national government public servants in Kakamega County who helped in reducing the chances of instrumentation error and increased the data collection's reliability.

The study area included counties in Western Kenya that is Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega, and Vihiga, counties of the defunct Western Province. The Counties were selected because they are heavily populated with high literacy levels of well-trained and skilled health

workers who can influence health goals, including health-related SDGs. Besides, the counties are characterized by a heterogeneous population with virtually all tribes and cultures represented. This provides a healthy environment to give reliable information on the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement moderated by organizational culture and presents a good case study for Kenyan counties. The views were collected from respondents covering 6 months, from November, 2021 to April, 2022. The study was estimated to take two years from the time the proposal was accepted to the final submission of the study report. The study was estimated to cost a total of Kshs. 600 000.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The respondents' busy schedules prevented them from completing the questionnaire all at once, which posed a few challenges for the researcher during the study. The researcher identified the nursing officer's in-charge and the doctor's in-charge who assisted in administering the questionnaires and picking them for the researcher after they were completed. Furthermore, the NACOSTI license and the letter of introduction from the university made the respondents feel more at ease when giving feedback. Respondents were also encouraged to contact the researcher using the contact details listed on the questionnaire if they had any questions. As a result, the response rate increased.

Similarly, a number of participants sought out financial support to complete the questionnaire. In this instance, the research assistants explained to them that the study was purely academic in nature and that the recommendations would aid in the development of a relational reward system that would ultimately be advantageous to the administration of the health sector.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presented literature related to the study based on the following sub-topics: introduction, theoretical review, which comprised of theories and models, conceptual framework, empirical literature review, critique of existing literature, research summary, and research gap. Many researchers have explained how relational rewards influence the creation of effective employee engagement leading to employee performance (Karatepe 2013; Koc & Buluk, 2014; Scott, *et al.*, 2010).

2.2 Theoretical Review

Numerous theories and models link relational rewards to employee engagement. The relationship between the independent, moderating, and dependent variables was examined in this study using the Social Exchange Theory (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013), Super Career Development Theory (Super, 1994), Burnout Theory of Engagement, Job Demands-Resource Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014), and the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

2.2.1 Social Exchange Theory

Employee engagement refers to the degree to which workers pledge emotionally and mentally to accomplish their work according to the company's mission and vision (Jones & Riedel, 2018). It can be viewed as similar to ownership, whereby every employee aspires to do what they can to satisfy internal and external customers and to realize the organization's goals. The meaning behind employee engagement provides a positive connection that employee engagement can be accomplished, improved, or nurtured by the organization, as elucidated clearly by the social exchange theory (Basbous, 2011). SET

provides a theoretical systematization of why employees choose to become less engaged or more engaged in their work.

Blaus (1964), who distinguished between economic and social exchange, popularized the theory and is thus described as the founder of the theory of social exchange. He coined that because of the incentive for the expectation of positive correlative actions from others, people willingly exhibit certain behaviour or may do certain things. Initially, the Social Exchange theory was created to examine the social actions of people in terms of resource exchange. Other scholars, such as Das and Teng (2002), who implemented an alliance-building that is self-centered in theory, have strengthened the theory. Besides, Globerman and Nielsen (2007) introduced confidence as the cornerstone of theoretical interaction between parties.

SETs basic precept holds that relationships gradually develop into expectations, trustworthiness, loyal, and mutual commitment on the condition that the parties to the pledge follow the rules of the exchange, which entails that the movements of one party would lead to the reaction by the second party. Employees will engage in their jobs according to organization objectives, and in response to the benefits or resources they get from employers. Showing dedication to one's work in large amounts of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources is an insightful way for employees to show appreciation for their organization's services. Therefore, organizations should bring employees into their job characters or roles and allocate more physical, cognitive, and emotional resources. It is a philosophical method for employees to reply to employer actions (Alfes *et al.*, 2013).

Hence, it can be stated that the association between different predictors and engagement may be powerful for individuals possessing a brawny exchange ideology (Basbous, 2011). Employee engagement consists of an emotional and psychological connection between employees and their organization which could be turned into negative or positive behaviour at work. Social exchange theory is an effective way of examining social interaction in an organization. SET theory surmises that employees reciprocate by

developing positive attitudes toward the organization, such as higher levels of commitment and increased performance levels when they are happy with the rewards provided by their organizations (Newman & Sheikh, 2011).

Mishra and Dixit (2013) shared similar views with Newman and Sheikh. They added that employees feel obliged to respond with greater performance levels when they receive desired rewards and recognition from their employers. Alfes, *et al.* (2013) reckoned that based on standards of exchange, workers are presumed to react by presenting personal effort in their responsibilities in the form of engagement when they have positive perceptions of how their employer vista them. Social exchange theory (SET) explains that responsibilities are created through interactions and between parties in a state of collective interdependence.

Social exchange theory exhibits why employees become engaged or disengaged with their jobs and employers. When organization provides resources to their employees, they feel obliged to repay employers with an enormous level of engagement. According to Kahn's definition, the employee feels grateful and keeps themselves more ardently into job role performance as compensation from their employers (Saks & Ashforth, 2006). Such action from employers increases the trustworthiness of the relationship. As a result, employees with a higher level of engagement are expected to have good standard relations with their organizations and would likely report positive behaviour towards employers. Engaged employees invest time and energy in the belief that their investment will be rewarded in a meaningful way.

On the other hand, when employers cannot provide these benefits or resources to employees, disengagement from their job roles is likely. Therefore, the extent of emotional, cognitive, and physical resources an employee needs for performance is fortuitous on the economic and socio-emotional resources received from employers (Saks, 2006). Tims, Bakker, and Xanthopoulou (2011) expressed that organizational productivity depends upon employee wellbeing or happiness. When wellbeing is positive and functionalized, it will benefit employee engagement, enabling the employee to perform

according to organizational standards and objectives. Basbous (2011) concur with Tims *et al.* (2011) that humans in social situations choose behaviour that maximizes their likelihood of meeting self-interest in those situations.

This theory is linked to the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement, and it supports the study in the sense that if the Kenyan public health sector can create attractive relational reward management programs that motivate workers through career development activities, provide employee assistance programs, include different elements in a job and provide them with the good working environment, employees will reciprocate by developing engagement that will eventually lead to high levels of service delivery. One of the most dominant philosophical paradigms for interpreting workplace behaviour is the theory of social exchange (SET) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Critics of SET have argued that the theory assumes that people are rational and will always act in rational ways. The reality is that people sometimes act in irrational ways; as a result, one should be prudent when applying the theory to the workplace (Miller, 2005). The theory favours impartiality and assumes that the ultimate goal of a relationship is intimacy when this might not always be the case. The theory places relationships in a linear arrangement when, in terms of intimacy, certain relationships could skip steps or go backward (Miller, 2005). Also, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) argue that social exchange lacks knowledge about the different exchange rules in studies. It primarily explored the reciprocity rule, but the principle would be better understood if more research programs examined several exchange rules such as altruism, group benefit, continuity of status, and competitiveness.

However, social exchange theory is useful in advancing employee engagement studies due to its emphasis on mutual relationships between employer and employees. Employees work best in the employer's service in the expectation of joint action. Blaus (1964) postulated that the relationship is retained as long as both sides profit from treating each other well. SET is an important principle to anchor employee engagement.

2.2.2 Super's Career Development Theory

Career development theory shows the various paths towards improving professional growth and the career trajectory followed by individuals for overall job satisfaction and goal achievement (Jena & Nayak, 2020). Super's career development theory believes that self-concept changes over time and develops due to experience. Self-concept is a complex dealing among mental and physical growth, environmental features, and personal experience. Super (1994) argued that when planning your career, it's important to note that occupational preferences and competencies and an individual's life situations all change with time and experience.

Super (1994) established a framework for life stages consisting of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement. It contended that movement in the stages could be a flexible process where people recycle the career stages regardless of age. He argued that achievement of vocational developmental tasks during each state represents career maturity. In agreement with Super's theory, Jena *et al.* (2020) argue that the theory gives attention to attitudes related to the work, such as job involvement and satisfaction. Further, the theory helps to acquire knowledge about how an individual develops his career by remaining in an organization and the methods that an individual adopts to adjust and achieves knowledge and skills according to various circumstances, needs, and social situations.

Career development theory assists in explaining the reasons for flourishing and selecting specific chores, gender roles and social norms by understanding environmental and cultural factors; as a result, the theory can assist an individual to better advise others on their career and as well as guide their career (Duggan, 2018). Career development theory is important in describing how an organization can recognize workers with the required talents to grow the talents that are useful in an organization (Kibui, 2015).

This theory is linked to the career development variable, and its implication to this study is that it supports the concept that, as the self-concept becomes more realistic and stable,

so does vocational choice and behavior of an employee. As a result, the ministry should allow employees to express their self-concepts since work satisfaction is related to the degree to which they have implemented their self-concepts. Similarly, where the public health sector exposes employees to a wider range of career development programs and learning opportunities, considering that occupational options narrow over time, this acts as a stimulus for an employee through personal goals, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations (Lent, 2013). The ministry can also identify the career development stage and set goals for mastery of the tasks unique to each stage.

The Critique of Super's theory of career development is connected to its restricted range of use, especially when it comes to comparison when the career of nursing that is having an enormous amount of personal involvement for exercising the self-concept compared with that of a clerk working in a dry clean store. Similarly, the theory interprets interest as a part of self-concept, which can be assessed but is difficult to analyze. This is because an individual may be poor at judging his own talents and may opt for a career that may be challenging for him or too low in scope to practice his talents. (Jena *et al.*, 2020).

2.2.3 Burnout Theory of Engagement

This theory postulates that job characteristics (Job demands and Job resources) contribute to employee burnout in the sense that the presence of job demands impart to emotional exhaustion by draining employees' mental and physical energy. The absence of job resources hinders employees from achieving meaningful work goals and personal development, which affects employees' motivation and, as a result, contributes to disengagement, withdrawal, and detachment from the job through depersonalization and view their work negatively (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2008).

In connection with burnout, when job demands such as stressful events, role ambiguity, role conflict, work pressure, role stress, and workload exceed employees' capacities, they will perceive that their autonomy is vanquished and become more endangered to emotional exhaustion (Alarcon, Lyons, & Tartaglia, 2010). In other words, the feeling of

being trapped in a situation can drain employees' emotional resources (Ortqvist & Wincent, 2006). This means that if the work environment is substandard, or when employees have a personality that does not fit the work situation, chronic job burnout is likely to set in. Exhausted employees make more mistakes, need more time to finish their tasks, and are less able to mobilize their resources. This view is compatible with the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993), which posits that job strain and burnout result when significant resources are lost or threatened. As employees' psychological needs are hampered either by taxing conditions or the absence of resourceful conditions, they would become in jeopardy of burnout.

Studies have indicated that burnout is negatively related to employee behavioural outcomes. For instant, research done by Fernet, Austin, Tre'panier, and Marc (2013) on how job characteristics such as job demands and job resources subscribe to burnout in Canada on 356 employees of the school board revealed that burnout is one of the most familiar psychological noticeable of job-related health problems as coined by (Schaufeli, Leiter & Maslach, 2009). It is crucial to agitate for practitioners and managers, given the extent of the outcome costs to individuals on disengagement and low satisfaction and organizations on absenteeism and higher turnover (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). They further advocated that burnout emanates from a detrimental link between the job and the person who performs it. It is identified by three main elements: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is when one feels emotionally crunched and fatigued at work. Depersonalization is when negative, sarcastic, or excessively impartial responses to other employees at work, also referred to as disengagement. Reduced personal accomplishment is when there is a feeling of exhaustion of efficiency and productivity at work, also known as loss of professional efficacy. (Fernet *et al.*, 2013).

Maslach and Leiter (2008) revealed that reduced personal accomplishment or exhaustion is contemplated as the primary characteristic of burnout; the two other components seize critical facets of these symptoms. Thus, incorporating reduced emotional energy, burnout suggests interpersonal and personal dispersion from the job. Similarly, Martinussen *et al.*

(2007) revealed that certain job demands (work-family pressures) and resources (social support) were related to all three burnout components. In a large meta-analytic study including no less than 115 different studies, Swider and Zimmerman (2010) found the three dimensions of job burnout had multiple correlations .23 with absenteeism, .33 with turnover, and .36 with job performance. One possible clarification for the negative association between burnout and performance is that exhausted employees lack the attentiveness required to perform well and, as a result, make more mistakes. Further, the negative emotions characteristic of burnout limit the wideness of thought processing, diminish the focal point on new or global information and debilitate the quality of decision-making (Fredrickson, Mancuso, Branigan & Tugade, 2001).

Penney and Spector (2008) reported that individuals who experience negative emotional states and are psychologically disengaged from work also demonstrate fewer approach behaviours toward others and more counterproductive work behaviours such as taking longer breaks, withholding effort and information, and stealing. Besides, burned-out employees are rarer willing to help others (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010) and rarer likely to receive help from others, which may cause losses in productivity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). This is because burned-out employees cannot satisfy their daily basic needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence through work since their daily work engagement is low. Bakker *et al.* (2014) posit that chronic burnout incapacitates the gain cycle of daily work engagement, daily job resources, and daily job crafting and concluded that employees with high burnout levels need help structurally changing their health status and working conditions.

This theory is linked to the work-life integration variable, and the implication of the burnout theory to this study is that it supports the significance of interpersonal resources present in the workplace, such as the management support by coordinating a balance between obligations related to work and non-work (Zheng *et al.*, 2015). From the public health sector's standpoint, interventions that reduce job demands are recommended. These include coming up with policies to include flexible jobs such as shift work, part-time work, homework, annualized hours, job sharing, term-time work, compressed hours,

telecommuting / teleporting / e-work, career breaks (Ojo *et al.*, 2014). To alleviate job demands, the ministry can reinforce psychological resources through employee assistant programs like employer-supported child care and dependent care initiatives (Oludayo *et al.*, 2018).

2.2.4 Job Demands-Resource Model

The Job Demands-Resource Model (JD-RT) assists in explaining and understanding employee engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Based on JD-RT, employees' visage job demands and need to be supplied with the necessary resources to assist them in dealing with the demands and performing their work roles (Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest, & Vallerand, 2014). Dajani (2015) states that employee engagement will suffer without the necessary resources. In the workplace, every occupation may have related risk factors, and these risk factors fall into job demands or job resources (Orgambidez-Ramos, Borrego-Ales, & Mendoza-Sierra, 2014).

Yanchus, Fishman, Teclaw, and Osatuke (2013), in their study on the link between job demands and resources and organizational commitment, revealed that job resources forecast employee engagement. Further, that job resources like career development, autonomy and skill utilization were better means of the level of engagement. Albrecht (2012) investigated that Job demand-Resource explains the relationship between work-family conflict and engagement. Studies established that work-family conflict escalated with higher job demands and placed more stress on employees, influencing their engagement. In contrast, available job resources helped to lessen the conflict between work and family obligations leading to higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee engagement (Nart & Batur, 2014; & Yeh, 2015).

Schaufeli (2015) researched whether career competencies are like personal resources within the JD-RT model and advocated that personal resources increase career competencies. That career competencies such as knowledge, skills, abilities, and other

characteristics affect employees' need for job development and effective job performance. This implies that the JD-R model can be used as a tool for human resource management.

This model is linked to the work environment variable. The implication of the model to this study is that if the public health sector can provide employees with good physical settings, including equipment required to deliver their services, good office design, and layout which impels social interaction, teamwork, involvement, lessen health and safety risks, and raise productivity and organizational performance. Similarly, the ministry can provide job profiles such as role congruity to reduce workload and task complexity to augment engagement and avoid peril like breakdowns and burnout (Liu, *et al.*, 2018). In addition, the ministry can increase resources by instilling a culture of management support and psychosocial element comprising social support (Nanzushi, 2015). Further, the ministry can eliminate components affecting the work environment's situations, such as hygiene levels, as coined by (Siti-Nabiha, *et al.*, 2012).

2.2.5 Job Characteristics Model

The job characteristics framework specifies five motivational work measurements affecting different organizational outcomes. These include encouraging employees to use different skills in their work (work variety), offering employees an opportunity to complete the whole job (job identity), making employees recognize the important impact of their job on others (job significance), giving employees some flexibility, freedom, and choice to plan their job pace and method (autonomy), and reminding employees of their work success from work itself and other channels, such as their friends, managers or clients (feedback) (Saks, 2006).

The job characteristics model states that the five core job measurements are deemed to promote meaningfulness of the job, experienced control for the job results, and awareness of the actual consequences of the employees' work. These, in turn, are expected to generate positive employee attitudes and work results, e.g., lower employee turnover, productivity, internal work motivation, engagement, and job satisfaction (Campion, Mumford,

Morgeson & Nahrgang, 2005). It has served as a structure for management to identify how certain job characteristics influence the outcomes of the jobs.

Skills variety attributes address growth and the need for workers to perceive from their position a sense of personal and professional advancement, which can be partly addressed by career enrichment and rotation. The significance of the challenge highlights the need for substantive work and the importance of being clear about the connection between the role and the organization's performance (Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson 2007). In line with similar findings by Ryan and Deci (2000), the model further identified the value of employee autonomy. In an individual's way, the opportunity to approach a task goes a long way to minimizing repetition and the feelings of alienation that routine can bring. The model ensures that goal-setting and acknowledgment are met through feedback and identity and that its core has real two-way contact. When managers design jobs with these characteristics in mind in the health sector, workers in any position will be more inspired, active, and engaged.

The Job Characteristics principle includes the five basic work characteristics, a set of skills that relates to the degree to which different tasks are involved, requiring the employee to acquire various skills and talents. Salanova *et al.* (2005) shared this opinion, suggesting that occupations requiring many different skills and abilities make workers believe that what they are doing is more meaningful than those in simple and routine employment. On the other hand, people who feel involved in several activities assume that their job is fascinating and motivational (Morgeson & Humphrey 2006; Ryan & Deci 2000).

Task identity specifies the level to which the position requires the employee to identify and complete a piece of work from the beginning to the end so that the outcome is visible. Most employees find their jobs more meaningful if they are involved in the whole process rather than just being liable for part of it. Workers find more meaning in their jobs when they can identify an entire and visible verdict at the end of the day or a work cycle. Studies have also identified the connection between task identity and employee engagement, and

as a result, designing jobs with high task identity will improve employee engagement (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011).

Task significance indicates the level to which a job influences the lives of other people. The effect may be either within the organization or outside. When a job significantly improves physical or psychological well-being, the employee feels that their work is more meaningful than those whose activities have an insignificant effect on others. In a field experiment with lifeguards (experiment 2), the study supports the argument that there is an association between task significance and positive employee attitudes (Christian *et al.*, 2011 & Rich *et al.*, 2010).

Autonomy stipulates how much freedom, independence, and discretion to plan out the work and establish the procedures to be undertaken that a job provides the employee. For positions with high autonomy levels, the outcomes depend on the worker's attempts, initiatives, and decisions, not the manager's instructions or what is written in a manual. Autonomy makes employees experience greater personal accountability for their successes and failures in the workplace (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). This concurs with the study by Krishnan, Alias, Ismail, and Kanchymalay (2014) among 646 healthcare employees in Malaysia, which reckoned that work engagement was positively correlated with autonomy.

Feedback means how much knowledge the employee has of the results of their work-related performance, which should be specific, clear, detailed, and actionable data regarding the effectiveness. A study done by Maslach, Scaufelli, and Leiter (2001); Schaufeli and Bakker (2004); and Schaufeli, Salanova, and Gonzalez-Roma (2002) reported that feedback consistently correlated positively to work engagement. When employees receive actionable and clear information about how they are performing, they gain an overall knowledge of the influence of their work-related activities and what exactly they need to be done, which boosts their productivity.

This model is linked to the job design variable. The effect of this model on the link between relational rewards and engagement of employee is to understand how the work characteristic model influences employee engagement in the sense that the five job characteristics that could be used as a checklist for job development or job analysis can be extended to the workplace by public health sector management. Employers might, for example, inquire during the work design process if there were diversified main tasks to break the monotony of the position or if the work was explicitly put in a broad context to clarify its importance.

Similarly, from the job design model, they may come up with motivational strategies such as job rotation, which entails workers crossing over to tasks typically done by a colleague, which is intended to break up work (while creating a multi-skilled workforce), which enriches work. This increases the happiness of workers, teaches new talents, extends organizational awareness, and keeps things moving—employment enrichment, which adds engaging elements to the position, may be another motivating strategy. This can be achieved by asking an accomplished employee to take on some coaching, bringing interest, and showing recognition.

The significance of applying this model to the workplace is that it encourages internal work motivation, encourages employees to be contented with their job, adhere to standards of quality, and reduce absenteeism and labour turnover. The most common actions revived from applying the theory include enforcing job rotation, varying assigned work and combining tasks, delegating tasks to the lowest possible level, assigning work to groups or teams and encouraging sharing of ideas.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a fundamental structure consisting of some abstract blocks reflecting the observational, experiential, and analytical or synthetic aspects of a method or system (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). For some planned effects, the interconnection of these blocks completes the structure. An observable attribute that assumes different values

between subjects is a variable. The link between independent variables and dependent variables is examined using a conceptual framework which is employed to classify concepts and arrange ideas. This study's independent variable is relational rewards comprising career development, work environment, and work-life integration, which were picked from Nienaber's (2010) total reward preference model, and Job Design which was picked from the Job Characteristics model.

The dependent variable is employee engagement, picked from the Job Demand-Resource Model whereas the moderating variable of the study is organizational culture. Career development was measured by career plans, career progression and learning opportunities. Job design was measured by task variety, autonomy and task identity. Work environment was measured by the physical settings, workload complexity and management support. Work life integration was measured by telecommuting, flextime arrangements and employee assistant programs. Social Exchange Theory, Super's Career Development Theory, Burnout Theory of Engagement, Job Demand-Resource Model and Job Characteristic Model explained the relationship between these constructs.

The knowledge gap informed the rationale for using Organizational Culture as a moderating variable for conducting comparative analysis to discern differences between groups regarding employee engagement, and other demographics. Moderation analysis enabled the researcher to test whether an intervention has similar effects across groups. The significance of moderation lies in identifying whether or not the relationship between two variables differs for a particular group. Vij and Farooq (2017) argue that Organizational Culture is one of the most widely used moderating variables in business research. The association between the study variables is shown in figure 2.1.

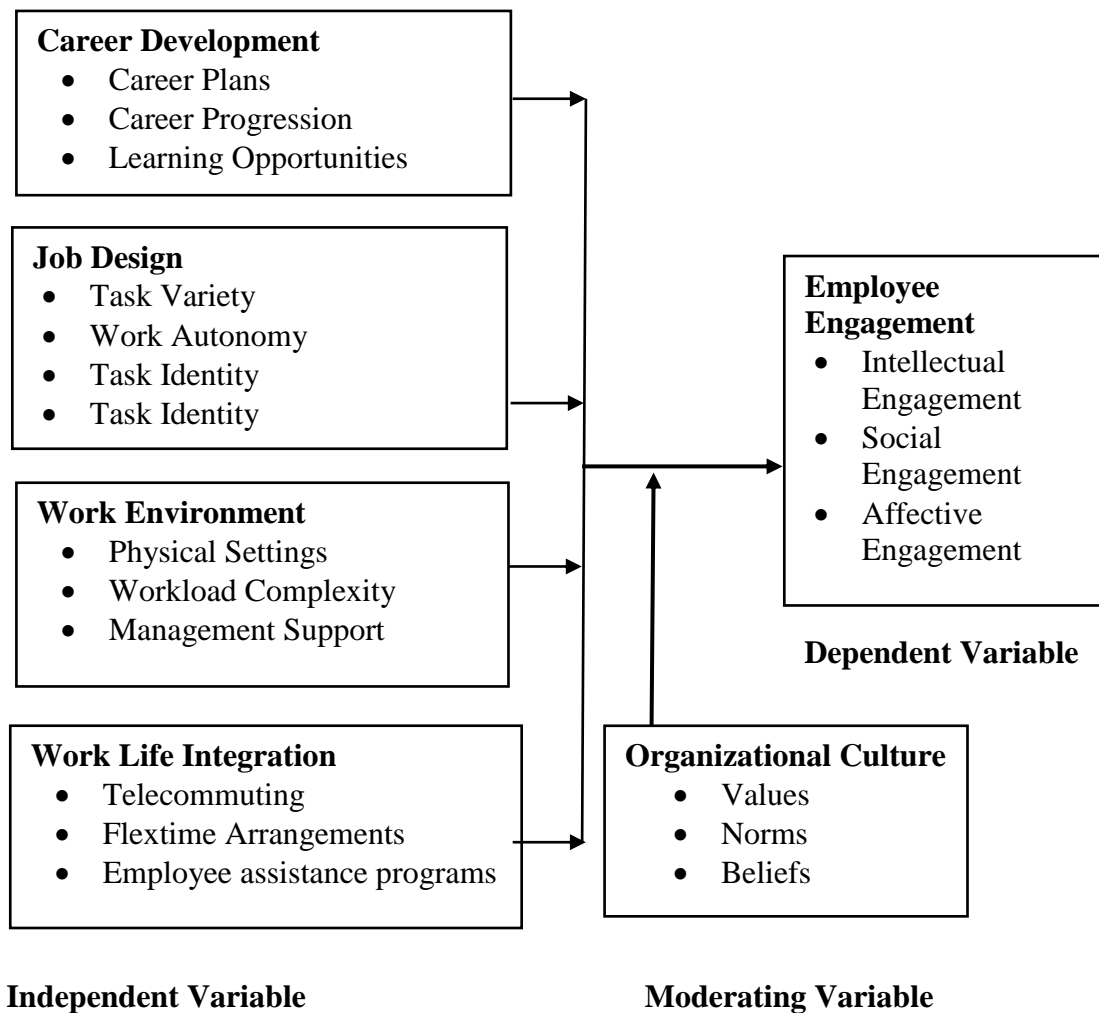


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

2.3.1 Career Development

Career development is an organized and planned effort of structured activities or processes that result in a concerted career effort between an organization and its employees. It entails a linear upward movement from relatively low status, responsibility, and remuneration to a higher position (Setyawati, Waelandari & Rianto, 2022). Employee development and career progression structure in the organization are a source of employee engagement, motivation, retention, and job security in life (Jia-Jun & Hua-ming, 2022). Nguyen

and Pham (2020); argue that one of the most crucial elements in ensuring employees stick with the organization and demonstrate their talents in real-world situations of political, economic, globalization and technological changes with intensified competition is having an opportunity for career development.

Today, employers understand that the absence of personal career and organizational career management practices including organizational support may cause them not to obtain good performance from their employees (Jia-Jun & Hua-ming, 2022). Ree and Wiig (2019) advocate that by giving workers the chance to advance in their career, they will learn new things and, most importantly, have the chance to put their talents into practice, which will improve their loyalty to the organization. Wau and Purwanto (2021) postulate that career development ameliorate job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The opportunities furnished by the organization for employee development will cause greater job satisfaction, which is a stronger commitment to the organization's service.

2.3.2 Job Design

Obianuju and Onyekachukwu (2015) advocate that job design constitute the delineation of tasks and responsibility as commanded by organizational structure, strategy, and technology is the division of an organization's work among its employees, and consists of specifying individual work tasks, method of performing the work tasks and combining work tasks into jobs for assignment to individuals. Job design has three goals: to fulfil the individual's needs for interest, challenge, and achievement, to meet the organization's criteria for operation and performance, and product or service quality and productivity. Torrington, Hall, Taylor, and Atkinson (2011) described job design as the process of putting together a variety of duties, responsibilities, and tasks to create a mix for individuals to undertake their work and to regard as their own. They further contend that this is pivotal in getting the job done reliably, economically, efficiently, and safely. It also acts as a basis for individual satisfaction and achievement at work (Albrecht, Green & Marty, 2021).

Hackman and Oldham (1975) recognized skill variety, autonomy, job identity, task significance, and feedback as the five job attributes that direct employees' performance and motivate them to perform those roles. These job attributes affect employee's behaviour and attitude stemming from reduced burn-out and work-associated stress, high employee performance, high job involvement, organizational commitment, employee satisfaction, absenteeism, low turnover rates and employee engagement (Anpar & Bagul, 2018) ; (Dissanayake & Jayatilake, 2019) ; (Han, Sung, & Suh, 2021) ; (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006) ; (Rai & Maheshwari , 2020). Well-designed jobs can be diverse, interesting, and challenging and give room for stress to job resources and support, hence cushioning the employee from the job's demands. Challenging tasks yet interesting make employees experience motivation and inspiration to invest their vigor in their work, a great engagement source (Crawford, Rich, & Bergeron, 2013).

2.3.3 Work Environment

The work environment plays a pivotal role in the workforce as the workplace environment's quality may denote the level of employee motivation, resulting in performance and productivity (Massoudi & Ham, 2017). The quality of the physical workplace environment has a strong impact on an organization's ability to recruit and retain talented people. In the same seam, Sitopu, Sitinjak, and Marpaung (2021) coined that a positive work environment attract and retain talented workers, which increases employee engagement and productivity. According to Agusra, Febrina, Lussianda and Susanti (2021), a positive work environment can increase employees' zeal, passion, and motivation.

Nanzushi (2015) delineate the work environment as a physical situation like heat and equipment, job profile like workload and task complexity, organizational features like culture and history in addition to aspects of the external organizational setting like work-life balance, industry sector, and local labour market conditions. Farh, Seo and Tesluk, (2012) describe the workplace environment as physical elements that comprise the office

design and layout, the psychosocial elements which comprise social support, role congruity, working conditions, and policies like employment conditions.

Naharuddin and Sadegi (2013) reckoned that a good office design impels social interaction, teamwork, and involvement, attracts customers and employees, lessens health and safety risks, and raise productivity and organizational performance. Connecting this view, Gaudie (2020) opined that a favourable workplace environment assures employee comfort and expedites the effort of energy towards job tasks, which may convert to higher performance and employee engagement. Pallawagau (2021) expressed that the absence of a favourable workplace environment makes employees lose focus and concentration and take longer to achieve simple assignments they would have done faster in better conditions. Whereas a favorable work environment boosts efficiency and competitiveness while being good for one's health (Kiiru & Kiiru, 2022). Pallawagau (2021) posit that an appealing work environment that meets employees' demands increases motivation, but a bad workplace would have a negative impact on employee morale and satisfaction.

2.3.4 Work Life Integration

Cahill, McNamara, Pitt-Catsoupes, and Valcour (2015) described work-life integration as the capacity of an individual to effectively manage personal, family, paid, and unpaid duties. Work-life integration is used by managers to sustain employee engagement by coordinating a balance between obligations related to work and non-work (Zheng, Kashi, Fan, Molineux, & Ee, 2015). Similarly, the approach guarantees employee and organizational efficiency changes (Shockley & Allen, 2015). Work-life plans need to integrate the workforce's individual needs and diversity.

Studies reveal that flexible working schedule arrangements have substantial association with employee satisfaction, productivity and commitment (Badia, Gichinga & Kising'u, 2023); (Gichana & Ombui, 2022); (Nasimiyyu & Egessa, 2021). A lack of the right work-life solutions can create discord amongst workers and exacerbate work-life inadequacy. Increasing demand in the workplace, incorporated with numerous devotions beyond the

work environment, has put a crucial duty on organizational managers to find ways to equalize their employees' priorities (Oludayo, Falola, Ahaka & Fatogun, 2018).

2.3.5 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture reflects the social glue and creates 'we-feeling' and thereby counteracts differentiation mechanisms that are an inevitable component of organizational life. Organizational culture creates a shared collection of definitions that is the cornerstone for communication and mutual understanding. Elsbach and Stigliani (2018) argue that culture has evolved in the company to promote organizational standards, principles, and values and better manage its workers. Bakker and Albrecht (2018) define organizational culture as the value and ideology that drives employee behaviour, communicates the employee's self-image, engagement with others about the future, and what workers expect from the organization. In contrast, Petra-Mensah and Kyeremeh (2018) define organizational culture as principles and assumptions about the organization among employees that can inspire employees to perform well in their employment.

Jablonowski (2017) claimed that organizational culture could provide a context for employee actions in their workstations and its negative or positive effect on employee engagement. Besides, organizational culture also positively correlates with the organization's employee engagement, as a healthy organizational culture can contribute to a high degree of dedication and their role in their work (Pepra-mensah & Kyeremeh, 2018). Basically, organizational culture has received a substantial boost to predict and describe any structure in the organizational environments. Barrett (2017); Bush (2018) advocates that strong organizational culture is crucial to the triumph of organizations, and it affects many important factors such as quality of work life, performance, a high rate of revenue growth, employee retention, innovation, resilience, agility, customer service, and employee engagement.

Jones *et al.* (2015), in their study, revealed the importance of incorporating culture in an organization's processes and practices which gives them a shape and, in turn, assists in

creating a modified culture in the organization. Further, they argue that OC contributes to employee performance, which works as some form of cohesion that binds the employees together and makes them believe in themselves and as part and parcel of the organization. Edmondson (2019); Quinn and Thakor (2020); Warrick (2016) opined that excellent cultures are characterized by; engaging and involving employees; providing opportunities for the continued growth and development of employees; seeking ways to motivate employees to perform at their best; valuing all people at all levels; making it safe for people to be open and candid without fear of retribution; team-oriented work environment; creating a culture that is quick to adapt to changing situations and turning mistakes and failures into opportunities for learning.

2.3.6 Employee Engagement

Employee engagement can be defined as how employees show complete dedication to their jobs, emotional bonding, and long-term goals (Ganesan, Ali, & Fageeh, 2017) and how they perform physically, emotionally, and cognitively (Sanneh & Taj, 2015). The dedicated employee is the employee who is content, passionate, enthusiastic, and goes the extra mile for the company's growth (Joo & Lee, 2017; Sarangi & Nayak, 2016). Employee engagement is also a way workers think, feel, and behave in ways that reflect high loyalty levels to their employer and a sense of emotional attachment to one's work (Adrianto & Riyanto, 2020).

Motyka (2018) posits a global corporate sector workforce challenge of disengagement of 85%, evidenced by statistics from Gallup research. Abdulrahman, Qader, Jamil, Sabah, Gardi, and Anwer (2022); Gupta and Sharma (2016) reckoned that employee engagement can be a strategic tool and vital counteractive to disengagement for attraction, motivation and retaining employees for higher productivity. Further, Rekha and Sasmita (2019) argue that engaged employees' results surpass that of their disengaged peer due to their exhibit of organizational citizenship behavior. Engaged employees are preferred by effective leaders as it indicates business success. Also, Ullah, Khattak, and Rahman (2018)

reckoned that engaged employees contribute to social progress in organizations by showing high morale, stress on teamwork, and keeping a positive work attitude.

Van Wingerden and Van der Stoep (2018) posit that engaging employees through effective engagement strategies make work meaningful and improve organizational climate. Dewing and McCormack (2015) advocate that managers who prioritize employee engagement will likely witness notable transformations in employees' dedication, vigor, and absorption. On the other hand, employee engagement enables retention of the best employees in the organization, enhances client trust, and becomes more creative and innovative in their jobs, enhancing the organization (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Bhavani, 2015). Employee engagement is very important for the effective utilization of human resources and the organization's smooth running as they strengthen the organization's competitive advantage and generate a favorable business environment (Kang 2014).

Bulkapuram, Wundavalli, Avula, and Reddy (2015) posit that engaged employees are diligent, motivated, and blossoming, who devote themselves to superior performance standards. Work becomes more meaningful to engaged employees in the work environment where their undertakings are conceded (Asiwe, Rothmann, Jorgensen, & Hill, 2017). Engaged employees are inclined, fervent, and intensely involved (Sun & Bunchapattanasakda, 2019). Research by the Institute of Employment described the characteristics of those involved as having faith in the organization, desire to work better, being aware of the business environment, practicing a supporting culture, willingness to exceed expectations and keeping abreast of current trends and emerging issues in the sector.

2.4 Empirical Review

This section empirically reviewed the relevant literature to determine the link between employee engagement and the predictor variables of career development, job design, work environment and work life integration.

2.4.1 Career Development and Employee Engagement

Career development has been a subject of many studies over the years. Semwal and Dhyani (2017) investigated the impact of career development and employee training on employee engagement using the OCM and OWES measuring scales. The study found that providing opportunities for career development within the organization has a more positive effect on all aspects of employee engagement than does providing training. Similarly, Jia-Jun and Hua-ming's (2022) conveyed in their study on the role of affective commitment and organizational support in the relationship between career development and knowledge workers' engagement that Career development has a positive impact on knowledge workers' organizational engagement. Further, the study found out that career goals progress and professional ability development promote job engagement.

Opadeyim and Akpa (2021) in Nigeria examined the correlation between employee engagement and career development in certain deposit money institutions in Ogun State. The results showed that career development has a positive and significant impact on employee engagement. The study also suggested that career growth should be founded on accepted standards, adhere to moral principles, and follow institutional benchmarks, indices, and procedures. Sangaran and Jeetesh (2015) researched the components of job satisfaction that affected the employees' decision to quit the hotel industry. The results established wage/salary and career progression as job satisfaction factors that affected turnover. Nguyen and Pham (2020) in a survey on 200 employees in Vietnam's non-profit sector shared these views, advocating that investing in employee career progress is imperative for retaining employees and enabling them to display their skills in real-world settings increasing employee engagement.

Wau and Purwanto (2021) examined the impact of job satisfaction, work motivation, and career development on Indonesian employees' performance. The findings indicated that work motivation positively impacted both job satisfaction and employee performance, career development positively impacted both job satisfaction and employee performance, and job satisfaction positively impacted employee performance. Firman (2021) sought to

ascertain how career development affected employee performance at Indonesia's Aswin Hotels and Spa Makassar. The study's findings showed that career development significantly and positively affected employee performance at the Aswin Hotel and Spa Makassar. Nasidi, Waziri and Halim (2020) conducted a survey on 150 respondents on the influence of training and career development on employee engagement among non-academic staff of the University in Nigeria. The results indicated that training and career development has significant influence on employee engagement.

Career growth involves a workforce beginning with employee orientation, job training, experience, short courses, professional courses, postgraduate, and an employee improving their career through an ongoing acquisition of managerial or professional skills and experience that can bring rewards and promotion. Therefore, organizations must provide training for new employees and help develop the present employees through an efficient career system (Mwangi & Gachunga, 2016). Kakui and Gachunga (2016) consider a career to revolve around three basic subject matters: advancement in a career position, source of stability within a single occupational field, and development of a person's work experience. They posit that a career is a pattern of work-related experience that spans the course of a person's life, and it should be dedicated to the method of career management and clear policies that guarantee fairness with the individual employee having the freedom of choice in promotions and job movement and to the resources on the market.

Jia-Jun & Hua-ming's (2022) coined that career growth, also known as career development, which means achieving a top position in a company or acquiring experience in several fields to establish a specific and multi-faceted function for oneself, is a phenomenon that is formalized, coordinated, and designed to aim to achieve the balance between organizational workforce requirements and individual career needs. Similarly, when an employee's expectations for career growth in their career are met, they develop a strong sense of reciprocity and attachment to the organization. Additionally, that the process of interorganizational mobility, particularly the rate of individual growth within the enterprise, accompanies the achievement of these individual needs. Further, that

employee engagement is positively impacted by affective commitment, which is positively impacted by career advancement.

Research by Thwin, Janarthanan and Bhaumik (2023) on the impact of career advancement on employee retention and the study found that career ladders, training and development, and organizational goals have an impact on employee engagement and subsequently support the development of organizational effectiveness which are connected to employee retention in organizational career development planning. Further, the study recommended that opportunity for individual career planning enables employees to devote their entire skill set to the organization in order to advance their careers and in return employers benefit from their efforts through improved performance and reduce turnover. A study by Hassan *et al.* (2016) advocated that companies should induce reward giving culture and provide workers with an atmosphere where they can accept career growth and professional skills to improve employee encouragement and loyalty.

Through career plans like mentoring and coaching, career development will take place. Coaching is a developmental activity in which an employee works with their line manager one-on-one to enhance current job performance and increase their potential for future positions and challenges ensuring organizational sustainability and expansion (Stapley *et al.*, 2022). Because the workplace is dynamic, complex, and demanding, mentoring is widely acknowledged as an agile workplace learning mechanism (Davey, Jackson & Henshall, 2020). Research on coaching and career mentoring programs has shown that the coaches/mentees will show positive career attitudes, greater job satisfaction, and greater commitment and raising the sense of purpose in one's work to the organization if implemented effectively (Lin & Cai, 2021).

Research by Rubbi, Ebrahim and Stander (2023) has reckoned that coaching and mentoring are the bedrock of developing the positive relationship, growth and enablement, psychological safety and purposeful. Mentors normally exhibit a great deal of training, expertise, and life experience whereas on the other hand, at the beginning of their careers, mentees are more concerned with acquiring particular skills and see mentors as reliable

role models who have already attained the developmental objective (Eby & Robertson, 2020). Mentors provide mentees with resources, help them get acquainted with workplace expectations, and continuously assist them in developing their confidence and sense of self expansion (Stapley *et al.*, 2022).

Opportunities for learning can also lead to career advancement. By bracing, structuring, and tracking their learning while working, learning can be intentional, organized, and targeted at training employees. Business learning has been changed because, along with the number of companies building formal training courses, the avenues and styles of formal training have expanded. Training is described as a structured operation to convey information or instructions to improve employees' performance or achieve the necessary skills, knowledge, and abilities which can adjust to shifting market conditions, thrive, compete, innovate, enhance services, and accomplish objectives (Klepić, 2021).

Kegan and Lahey (2016) strongly believe that since this is consistent with people's greatest motive to succeed, organizations that actively cultivate every individual will prosper. This is in corroboration with the human capital theory which states that increasing training appears to have a positive impact on employee performance, which is of particular interest to the theory, which measures the return on investment in training (Chen, 2020). This implies that companies should cuddle with a community in which learning assistance is connected to the working life system, the organization's everyday activities, daily routines, and conversations. Learning and development will lead to an increase in people's effort, motivation, and job satisfaction. It is also becoming widely accepted that providing them with opportunities to learn and build new competencies is the most effective way to involve employees.

Research has shown that highly engaged, and motivated employees are indispensable in increasing new technologies and innovative practices. Besides, Kegan *et al.* (2016) advocate that committed workers will likely remain with the Company where they are challenged and given the abilities to improve and develop in their chosen career direction. Eldor and Vigoda-gadot (2016) found that organizations with growing degrees of

employee involvement provide workers with career development opportunities to learn new skills and protect their potential. Therefore, training and career development are salient predecessors, which is to be regarded in engaging employees since it helps them focus on the assigned work measurement.

Karanja, Nzulwa, Kamaara, and Karanja (2017) researched the effect of training and development practices on employee performance in the public service of Kenya. The adoption of a cross-sectional descriptive survey model showed a coefficient of association of 0.486 and 0.553, respectively, indicating a positive relationship. Similarly, Mwangi, Ngui, and Kirori (2017) investigated the effect of training on employees' performance in Kenya's education sector: the case of the Teachers' Service Commission using a descriptive study design. The results showed that there was a clear positive correlation between the abilities of employees (0.7), expertise (0.6), competence (0.7), and the output of employees.

Muchibi, Mutua, Musiega, and Mumassabba (2015) researched the effect of training and development practices on organizational commitment; in the case of Mumias Sugar Company Limited and the study found that there was a strong positive association between the training and development practices on employee's affective commitment in the Company ($r=0.25$; $df=1$; $p=0.009$). Osiobe (2019) advocate that when employees' skills, knowledge, and abilities can be improved and made up to date through training and development could influence employee productivity. Providing systematic development exercises and planned learning promotion instruction would enable workers to continuously update their skills and improve their careers. Many individuals now regard access to training as a key component in the overall incentive package. The availability of learning opportunities, the selection of individuals for high-level training courses and programs, and the Company's emphasis on acquiring new skills and improving existing ones can all serve as powerful motivators. Sung and Choi (2018) argue that a highly motivated employees is essential for organizational development, which increased an organization's competitive edge in terms of employable skills.

According to Hewett *et al.* (2018) training and development are the most customary human resource practice that have influenced employee behavioral outcomes, such as engagement, productivity, commitment, satisfaction, as well as organizational citizenship. Additionally, training influences employee attributes like positive attitude, loyalty and dedication. Therefore, employers must provide an opportunity for their employees to learn. Proactive development schemes will motivate an employee, ensure a more loyal and committed employee, and improve the employee's capabilities. In general, appropriate training positively endows reduced employee turnover intentions as it makes employees feel appreciated for their skills and creates opportunities for developing their qualities. Employee training and growth have been a perfect response to business challenges and the leadership of human resources in modern management, according to (Kamau & Muathe, 2016).

2.4.2 Job Design and Employee Engagement

Research has established links between the elements of job design (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) and employee engagement (Albrecht, Green, & Marty, 2021; Dissanayake & Jayatilake, 2019; Han, Sung, and Suh, 2021; Rai and Maheshwari, 2020). Chiekezie and Nseodo (2015) observed the link between job design and employee engagement in Nigeria's selected Manufacturing companies. Using self-administered questionnaires to collect data from a sample size of 368 respondents established that task significance and skill variety had a firmly positive link with employee engagement. In contrast, task identity had a smaller positive link with employee engagement. Feedback and work autonomy similarly revealed a significant association with employee engagement.

Dissanayake and Jayatilake (2019) investigated the impact of behavioral work design elements on employee engagement of public sector administrative service officers in Sri Lanka. The results demonstrated a positive correlation between the degree of employee engagement and work design elements such as autonomy, task significance, and task variety ($R^2 0.657, p < 0.005$). The highest beta value, autonomy, contributed 60.5% of the

variance in employee engagement. Kariuki and Makori (2015) probed the role of job design on employee engagement at the Presbyterian University of East Africa in Kenya. Using a sample size of 84 employees at the three levels of management established that task identity, feedback, skill variety, and task significance notably and firmly affected employee engagement.

In a recent study, Rai and Maheshwari (2020) found a strong correlation ($r = .57$, $p.001$) between work engagement and job features among 622 employees in India's public banking sector. The study came to the conclusion that a well-designed job could identify an employee's positive behavior and attitude while they were working, which could result in a positive psychological state like a strong sense of employee loyalty to the organization. Ngari, Kilika, and Muathe (2018) researched the effect of job attributes on employee performance among private equity firms in Nairobi City County in Kenya. The results established the strength in the link of the independent and dependent variables using the regression model. Further, the study concluded a statistically strong link of Adjusted R^2 of 0.641 between feedback, task identity, skill variety, autonomy, and employee performance.

Han, Sung, and Suh (2021) conducted a study in which they examined the relationships between job attributes and employee performance among 309 people who are currently employed in South Korean IT companies. The findings imply that when employees report low levels of job characteristics as a broadening concept, the construct of engagement in the relationship between meaningfulness and performance can be strengthened. Mackenzie (2018) assessed the job design and its influence on employee engagement in a private outpatient healthcare provider in Kenya using a sample size of 302 participants. The study revealed that job design contributed 67% of the variability in employee engagement autonomy and correlated with employee engagement compared to the other task traits. The study concluded that job design attributes such as autonomy, task variety, and task significance should be considered when crafting job descriptions.

Albrecht, Green, and Marty (2021) in their study on meaningful work, job resources, and employee engagement, found that job resources such as job variety, autonomy, and development opportunities have an effect on employee engagement. Therefore, if they experience greater job variety, development opportunities, and autonomy in their work responsibilities, employees are more likely to view their work in a broader context and feel that their work has greater meaning. Thus, job resources have an impact on employees' levels of engagement. Renard and Snelgar (2016) revealed that work identity, flexible work, autonomy, independence at work, challenging work, and work variety are the five intrinsic attributes of work that positively and psychologically reward employees. Anpar and Bagul (2018) reviewed the literature and conducted a theoretical analysis of the impact of job design on employee engagement. The research indicates that a well-designed job can enhance employee wellness and engagement. Employees' personal resources and needs must be developed in tandem with those of their jobs in order for them to be engaged.

2.4.3 Work Environment and Employee Engagement

Various scholars have researched the workplace environment as a factor that predicts employee engagement. As expressed by Asawo, and Gabriel (2017), there is verification that a conducive physical workplace environment augments employees' engagement. Similarly, Pallawagau (2021) advocates that a pleasant workplace that satisfies workers' needs will increase engagement, but a poor workplace will lower morale and decrease employee engagement. Sitopu, Sitinjak, and Marpaung (2021), in corroboration with the view, reckoned that organizations that provide a pleasant work environment are more likely to attract and keep skilled employees, which boosts engagement and output. In the same stratum, Kong, Sial, Ahmad, Sehleanu, Hi, Zia-Ud-Din, and Badulescu (2021), posit that workers are more engaged when they can focus on their objectives in a neat, clutter-free environment. According to DP and Riana (2020), motivated workers put in more effort to obtain the rewards associated with their success in a healthy work environment.

Gaudie (2020) carried out research at a number of Universities, including the Debre Tabor University, the University of Gondar, and the University of Bahir Dar, on the effect of the work environment on employees' engagement. The study's conclusions show a strong and positive correlation between employee engagement and autonomy, supervisor support, and cohesion among employees. However, scholars have different debates on open-plan office designs. Others claim that it provides room for easy communication flow and collaboration, alleviates accessibility, social integration, removing physical barriers to team working. Further, that open-plan office layouts included increased cleanliness, opportunities to meet others, informal conversations, and flexibility in time and location of work (Ford, Griffith, Hughes, & Bellis, 2022).

In contrast, others hold it erodes privacy, causes interruptions and distractions due to noise, stimulates health challenges, and as a result, negatively impacts employees' health and abilities (Lai, Chau, Davies & Kwan, 2021). A survey by James, Delfabbro and King (2021) revealed that open-plan office environments were linked with low employee job satisfaction, motivation and productivity. In corroboration with these views, Colenberg, Jylhä, and Arkesteijn (2021) advocates that open plan office layouts impacts negatively on the general health and a range of specific physical health outcomes including: fatigue, stress; headaches, ear, nose and throat respiratory, musculoskeletal, central nervous system. Similarly, open-plan layouts were also consistently correlated with negative mental wellbeing effects, including on psychological mental health, sleep, tiredness, mental exhaustion and higher rates of sickness and absenteeism. Furthermore, open plan offices presented increased noise levels related with distraction, lowed concentration and decreased privacy and confidentiality. Nevertheless, with individuals spending so much time at their place of work, it is critical to maximize the use of good office design that is comfortable and ergonomic in order to ameliorate employee engagement and significantly improves their efficiency (Ford, Griffith, Hughes, & Bellis, 2022).

The workload is described as the amount of work assigned to a worker in a specified period of time, which is the severity of job assignments whereas, complexity refers to the acclivity of difficulty and challenge of the required skills and knowledge of the individual

to the job assignments (Nwinyokpugi, 2018). DiDomenico and Nassbaum (2008) argue that the association between the task demands determines workload, circumstances the task takes place, and the actions, skills, knowledge, and perceptions of the person performing the task. The task demands include, among other cognitive tasks and physical actions. These definitions insinuate that workload is concerned with the association between the task demand and the employee's resources, which include task perception, behavior, skills, and knowledge (DiDominico *et al.*, 2008; Young *et al.*, 2008)

Empirical studies indicate that employee workload impact emotional commitment, employee performance, and engagement; it leads to organizational and individual stress, exhaustion, job dissatisfaction, and turnover intentions (Erat, Kitapci and Comez, 2017; Herminingsih and Kurniasih, 2018; Liu and Lo, 2018) Corroborating with this view Rajan (2018) coined that employees will be overwhelmed if the workload is above the standard workload. This will result in peril like breakdowns and burnout and ill feelings and dissatisfaction and later make them quit the job for less arduous jobs where available. Shabbir and Raza (2017) studied travel agencies' case study on the moderating function of social support and mediating role of job stress on the effect of workload and job complexity on employee job performance. The study results showed that workload and job difficulty positively and significantly impact work stress, which harms job performance.

Similarly, in motivating individuals and obtaining committed workers, organizational leaders are critical. Kiema-Junes *et al.* (2020) recognized that leaders are important to the success of performance management systems and are the source of many relational rewards, such as acknowledgment through feedback, the opportunity to develop through learning and training in the workplace, and the scope to do productive work and practice accountability. Good leadership means that leaders are capable of modelling employee success expectations, vision, and organizational mission.

Various scholars argue that when a supervisor as a leader foster a supportive and inspiring work environment, has higher emotional intelligence, practicing a transformational

leadership style, provides feedback, empower employees, offers individualized consideration and listens to their employees then provides feedback as well as offering emotional and work support, employees will reciprocate with engagement by being highly restorative into action, work comfortably in teams, possess inspired confidence in their own work and also perform appropriately at work. (Abdulrahman & Taqi Addin, 2020; Akparep, Jengre, & Mogre, 2019; Gouda & Tiwari, 2022). In support of this view, Knotts and Houghton (2021) posit that leaders should ensure that their employees get the support and attention they need to give their best at work by proactively showing their dedication to the well-being of their employees, transparent communication, recognizing their accomplishments and leading by example.

The impact of a toxic work environment on employee engagement was examined by Rasool, Wang, Tang, Saeed, and Iqbal (2023), with organizational support and employee wellbeing playing a mediating role. The results of the study indicate that employees may endure unneeded stress, burnout, hopelessness, and anxiety as a result of a toxic work environment. Additionally, it might negatively impact workers' engagement. Furthermore, the findings of this study lend credence to the idea that organizational support and employee well-being play a significant mediating role between toxic workplace environments and employee engagement. Thus, it has also been demonstrated that when employees feel that they are supported by the organization, their sense of belonging to the organization is increased. Therefore, it is imperative to suggest that leadership and organizational support are the key interacting and differentiating variable required for sustaining work engagement in any work culture (Deepa & Dharshini, 2023).

Leaders can also support employees by recognizing them through immediate feedback from their contribution, promotion, allocation to a high-profile project, enlargement of the job to provide scope for more interesting and rewarding, acknowledging the employee performance publicly, providing employees with a day off, and providing them with good office working space (Judeh, 2021). Recognition is the ability to identify and acknowledge an employee, usually by a senior manager or supervisor, for a positive thing done in the course of their work. Kurtessis *et al.* (2017) reported the results of a thorough

examination of data showing the relationship between perceived organizational support and work dedication, employee engagement, inclusion, organizational citizenship behavior, retention, lower levels of stress and conflict, job satisfaction, and well-being.

Several studies have shown that a number of employees feel the need for recognition, irrespective of rank or occupation which has increased employee efficiency and engagement (Yang, Jiang, & Cheng, 2022). Muchibi (2018) looked at employee reward management strategies based on appreciation and merit pay in Kenya's sugar sector. The results demonstrated a strong positive correlation between employee normative engagement and appreciation, meaning that when management takes into account workers' efforts at work, it motivates them to put in more effort and meets quality standards. Employee recognition is a key aspect of preserving and promoting individuals' identity, giving their work meaning, building their development, and contributing to their health and well-being (Van Woerkom & Kroon, 2020)

2.4.4 Work Life Integration and Employee Engagement

Nasimiyu and Egessa (2021) posit that paid work and non-work responsibilities are two important realms in an employee's work-life in that staying long hours at the workplace reduce the presence of employees at home, and they frequently miss family and social activities. Darko-Asumadu, Sika-Bright, and Osei-Tutu (2018) agree that more participation in the job leads to less time for social activities reducing commitment to work, whereas spending more time with family than work can lead to absenteeism and labor turnover among employees. Hence the need to balance work responsibilities and non-work activities to ameliorate commitment and engagement to work as advocated by (Pirzadeh & Lingard (2021).

Ojo, Falola, and Mordi (2014) claim that a variety of scholars have distinct brackets under which the Work Life Integration policies are classified to include flexible jobs such as shift work, part-time work, homework, annualized hours, job sharing, term-time work, compressed hours, teleporting / e-work, career breaks, research leave, contracts for zero

hours and V-Time. Shockley and Allen (2015) estimated that workplace versatility decreases turnover intentions, inspires loyalty, and serves as a motivator. Managers who apply flexibility strategies allow workers to handle personal and job requirements, resulting in more workplace vigor (Bal & De Lange, 2015).

Oludayo *et al.* (2018) identify three aspects of the WLB policies as employer-supported child care, parental leave, and alternative work arrangements. Oludayo, Gberevbie, Popoola & Omonijo (2015) have largely raised the initiatives as time-use policies such as flexitime, telecommuting, job sharing, and part-time work, leave policies like pay and unpaid for childbirth, dependent care policies. The definition was listed under four brackets by Mesimo-Ogunsanya (2017), based on time-based, information-based, money-based and direct services.

Work-life support has clearly shifted from work-life balance to work-life integration and can be recognized under two major brackets: formal and informal work-life balance. Dolcos, Miller, Jha and McCarthy, (2007) advocates that formal work-life balance support policies include work-leave programs, dependent care initiatives, and flexible work arrangements. The informal work-life balance support policies include managerial, supervisor, and co-worker support (Kroll & Nuesch, 2019). The informal work-family support is a declaration of management commitment to the employees' well-being in line with the social exchange theory, which apparently affects the employees' behavioural outcomes such as an increase in employees' job satisfaction and minimal turnover intention (Falola *et al.*, 2016; Kumar, 2017).

Work-life balance programs and initiatives also help employees achieve their job and non-work goals without taking the requisite focus they deserve from each sphere (Oludayo, *et al.*, 2018). WLB benefits employees and organizations altogether (Mesimo-Ogunsanya, 2017). Employees benefit by maintaining a healthy and beneficial lifestyle that influences their performance, job predictability, and career sustainability. (Grimm & Saliba, 2017; Oludayo, *et al.*, 2018). Organizations benefit in the form of increasing job satisfaction, loyalty, and productivity, promoting job performance, reducing costs due to turnover and

absenteeism, productive innovation, talented employee retention, and customer retention (Benito-Osario, Muñoz-Aguado & Villar, 2015).

Badia, Gichinga, and Kising'u (2023) conducted research in Kenya Ports Authority on flexible work schedules and employee satisfaction. The results demonstrated a positive and significant correlation between employee satisfaction and flexible work schedules, flexible job-sharing arrangements, flexible time work schedules, and flexible workplace arrangements. In corroboration with these findings, Ombui and Gichana (2022) in their analysis on work-life balance's effect on employee productivity in Kenya, Nairobi Courts case revealed that flexible work arrangements had the greatest positive (0.893) impact on worker productivity.

Further, the dynamics of work-life balance in the service industry were examined by Andeyo and Egessa (2021). The findings showed that while work-life imbalance results in the loss of competent workers, particularly women, higher levels of work-life balance among employees in organizations help to retain bright workforces. The recommended that management of the organization needs to understand that enhancing work-life balance increases job performance by enhancing employees' psychological wellbeing over time. Oludayo *et al.* (2015) argue that without successful WLB management to balance workers' jobs and non-work roles, negative employee behavioural outcomes correlated with conflict, tension, and job dissatisfaction in multiple roles can arise.

2.4.5 Organizational Culture and Employee Engagement

Gardner, Wickramasinghe, and Pierce (2018) reckon that Organizational Culture is propelled by values which are abstract beliefs about what is good or bad. When people share these beliefs, they concur regarding what is acceptable in terms of their organizational behavior, attitudes, and decisions. People are inspired to behave in ways consistent with their values and norms because it engenders their social acceptance and it fortifies their self-esteem. Schneider *et al.* (2013) point out that strong culture is one that has widely-shared beliefs and values that have a significant effect on the behaviours of

members. Gehman, Trevino, and Garud (2013) postulate that a unique culture is created by the values and beliefs leaders embrace, how they involve and engage people, act, get things done, interact, and treat, how transparent they are, the emphasis they place on teamwork.

Warrick and Gardner (2021) argue that one of the most effective ways to build culture is to have a compelling vision, purposeful mission, memorable core values that are known, valued, and practiced, and goals that are clearly communicated and understood throughout the organization. Further that where core values have not been established or are not memorable or utilized, it is difficult, if not impossible, to build strong cultures. Similarly, leaders can say all that they want about the desired culture, but ultimately employees will respond to what they see as valued, measured, recognized, rewarded, and discouraged (Kerr & Slocum, 2005). Therefore, organizations should make clear what the cultural values are and what is expected of employees in terms of performance, behaviours, and attitudes while training and hiring for culture (Warrick, Milliman, & Ferguson, 2016). Sarala and Vaara (2020) posit that a positive organizational culture can lead to increased employee engagement, productivity, and satisfaction, resulting in reduced turnover rates, increased innovation, and better financial performance.

Sokro (2012) notes that culture is an essential component of an organization's internal atmosphere because it establishes principles, beliefs, habits, customs, and attitudes that help the organization's members understand what it stands for, how it does things, and what it considers important. The organization's values and beliefs are basically centred on some level of important factors that can largely influence the decision and behaviour of employees. It is also important for leaders to clearly communicate and to make practicing the cultural ideals and considering the cultural implications of decisions a norm throughout the organization.

The results of empirical studies related to organizational culture's link to employee outcome behaviours are quite extensive (Alkhodary, 2023; Ghumiem, Alawi, Al-Refaei, & Masaud, 2023; McCune & Peterson, 2021; Nazneen, Miralam, & Qazi, 2018). Some

studies have been conducted to identify the nature and type of OC in organizations, to identify the key values, beliefs, and norms in the organization that has generated the needed effort in achieving the success and quality performance of the organizations in questions. Kalia and Verma (2017) conducted a study on organizational culture and employee engagement among hospitality sector employees and found that Organizational culture is an important factor that promotes employee engagement. Among the different organizational culture elements, autonomy and experimentation were ascertained to be notably related to all the constructs of employee engagement. Different organizational culture dimensions were deemed to be related more to vigor and dedication compared to an absorption parameter of employee engagement. Trust predicted dedication and absorption, whereas corroboration influenced only the absorption dimension of employee engagement among hospitality employees.

Shehri *et al.* (2017) conducted a study on 39 bankers using structured interview techniques to investigate the organizational culture enablers and halters of Saudi banks' employee engagement. The study reckoned that the enabler factors contributing most to employee engagement enablers were training and development, organizational communication, reward, and recognition. Results also revealed that Islamic culture influences employee engagement in Saudi banks. Brenyah and Darko (2017) examined the correlation between corporate culture and engagement of employees using 267 employees in Ghana's public sector. The study revealed that encouragement and achievement cultures remarkably cause employees to be engaged, whereas role culture and power culture had essential but negative association with employee engagement.

In Jordan, Alkhodary (2023), examined the association between organizational culture and well-being of educational institutions. The correlation analysis indicated a statistically positive association between organizational culture and employee wellbeing including job satisfaction, loyalty, creativity and productivity. This demonstrates how crucial it is to make investments in creating a positive workplace culture in order to enhance employee wellbeing and improve business results. Organizations can concentrate on creating a supportive and inclusive work environment, giving opportunities for employee

development and growth, and fostering a sense of community and shared values in order to accomplish this. These results are consistent with Harvard Business Review research where a strong link between OC and employee engagement, greater productivity, and improved financial performance has been verified (McCune and Peterson 2021).

In Saudi Arabia, Nazneen, Miralam, and Qazi (2018) examined the effect of employee engagement on organizational culture in the high-performing accredited University of Saudi Arabia. The elements of employee engagement used were intellectual, social, and affective. The study disclosed that employee culture and organizational culture are powerful components for making an organization effective and performance-oriented. In Libya, Ghumiem, Alawi, Al-Refaei and Masaud (2023) determined the influence of organizational culture and performance whose results indicated a direct and strong relationship between corporate culture and organizational effectiveness and performance.

In Kenya, Njuguna (2016) examined the influence of organizational culture on engagement of employee at Kenya Commercial Bank's head office. The study disclosed a strong positive correlation ($R= 0.644$) between the variables. Further, the study revealed that 64% of employee engagement at KBC head office could be explained by organizational culture. The study similarly established that market culture is the most dominant at KCB's head office. The above-reviewed studies on the influence of organizational culture on engagement of employee in NGO's, public and private sectors did not centralize on the public health sector in Kenya, restricting their employment to the study sector. The study sought to handle this created research gap by investigating the moderating influence of organizational culture on the connection between relational rewards on employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector.

2.4.6 Moderating influence of Organizational Culture

The interaction between various theoretical principles has been shown to moderate and mediate the organizational culture (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006). For example, Wowor and Psi (2014) investigated the moderating influence of Organizational Culture

on the impact of servant leadership and confidence in Indonesian community police officers' job performance. In the Islamic banking context, Rasid, Manaf, and Quoquab (2013) studied leadership and organizational commitment: the role of organizational culture in Malaysia as a mediator. The study showed that a good leader influences employees' morale, which in turn contributes to the efficiency of organizational development. Therefore, workers are more likely to perform better and grow more loyalty to their organizations in the long run, with a healthy, relaxed culture in an organization. Strong management and healthy organization work in tandem to build a full bar of engagement in an organization.

Hamzah, Othman, Hashim, Muhammad, and Besir (2013) researched moderating effects of organizational culture on the link between leadership competencies and job role performance in Malaysia. The study postulates that the interaction between organizational cultural dimensions on the association between leadership competencies and employees' job roles is significant in influencing employees' job roles. Daryoush, Silong, Omar, and Othman (2013) researched successful workplace learning: the moderating effect of Malaysia's organizational culture. Using multilevel theory, the researchers hypothesized that workplace learning and contextual performance, when accompanied by a result-oriented culture, result in a positive association. In contrast, workplace learning and task performance would be strongly related when accompanied by a result-oriented organizational culture. The results of their study showed that the two-way interactions were significant. The results further suggested that emphasizing one only (result-oriented culture) for employee learning is not good enough for positive organizational results such as higher contextual or task performance. Rather, organizations need to focus on three types of workplace learning, such as formal, informal, and incidental.

Danish, Munir, and Butt (2012) researched knowledge management and organizational effectiveness moderating organizational culture in the service sector in Pakistan. The results show a strong positive moderating role of culture in the relationship between organizational knowledge management practices and organizational effectiveness. It is evident from the interactional plot that when the value of organizational culture is low,

i.e., 2.83, the value of organizational effectiveness as well as knowledge management is low, whereas the value of organizational culture is increased to 4.83, then it results in increased values of organizational effectiveness and knowledge management. Hence organizational culture has a strong moderating influence on the connection between knowledge management practices and effectiveness of the organization.

Irfan and Marzuki (2018) examined the moderating influence of organizational culture on the link between work motivation and work commitment of university academic staff in Pakistan. The findings support the significance of organizational culture as an indispensable aspect of augmenting work motivation and boosting academics' work commitment. The study's findings suggested that a focus on adhocracy (innovation) culture can change the direction of the relationship between non-self-determined work motivation and work commitment from negative to positive. Academics who are not working for idealism and altruistic reasons can be committed to their work if universities provide an innovative and autonomous culture and personal development opportunities. Lee and Kim (2017) researched exploring the organizational culture's moderating role in the effects of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on firm performance in Korea. The study revealed that CSR's effects on firm performance could differ depending on the organizational culture, whether it is clan culture, adhocracy culture, market culture, or hierarchy culture.

The studies on mediating and moderating organizational culture's role reviewed above did not focus on relational rewards on employee engagement. Therefore, the reviewed studies have not exhaustively utilized organizational culture indicators in assessing the moderating effects of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards on employee engagement. In general conclusion, the reviewed findings were limited in application to the public health sector in Kenya's unique contextual environment. Therefore, this study set out to assess the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement moderated by organizational culture in Kenya's public health sector.

2.4.7 Employee Engagement

In the United Kingdom, the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) (2014) notes that employee engagement involves three dimensions: intellectual engagement, which they described as hard thinking about the job and how to do it better, and affective engagement, which feels optimistic about doing a good job, and social engagement that refers to actively taking possibilities. Chandani, Mehta, Mall, and Khokhar (2016) proffered the theory of engagement and described that the intellectual facet of engagement is equivalent to job dedication, while affective engagement is tantamount to self-fulfillment. Social engagement is the relational facet that improves performance.

Anthony-McMann, Ellinger, Astakhova, and Halbesleben (2016) found a strong association between workplace stress and intellectual and social engagement. Soane, Truss, Alfes, Shantz, Rees, and Gatenby (2012) describe intellectual engagement as an absorbing, creatively energized focus resulting in a deep personal commitment to exploration, investigation, problem-solving, and inquiry over a sustained period. The degree to which one is intellectually engrossed in work and thinks about ways to improve work has been referred to as the cognitive dimension of engagement, which has been an essential component of engagement in prior studies (Macey & Schneider, 2008; May *et al.*, 2004; Rich *et al.*, 2010). The link between the engaged state and high levels of cognitive activity geared toward carrying out the job role is discussed (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). There are two terms used: cognitive dedication (Kahn, 1990) and devotion (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002).

As opposed to that, affective engagement refers to the degree to which one experiences a state of positive affect relating to one's work role (Soane *et al.*, 2012). During this stage, Kavya and Padmavathy (2017) advocate that extremely engaged employees become powerful leaders who positively model organizational culture and the employees. The theoretical and empirical position of impact in interaction is evident, and this facet is included in many conceptualizations (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Kahn, 1990; May *et al.*, 2004; Rich *et al.*, 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002; Truss *et al.*,

2006). The underlying theory explains this association in terms of affect rather than emotion.

Social engagement is the degree to which one is socially connected with the working environment and shares common values with colleagues. Soane *et al.* (2012) argued that social engagement is the experience of connectedness with others and is an integral feature of self-in-role expression. Other scholars in the field have acknowledged the relevance of the social context to engagement, which can also be linked to systems perspectives on Human Resource Development (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Salanova *et al.*, 2005; Rich *et al.*, 2010).

King-Hill (2015) posits that Maslow's hierarchy of needs stages, that similar to belonging, love is important for staff engagement. This aspect of love and belonging contrasts with the social belonging that underpins organizational identity and emphasizes how employees' sense of belonging at work is similar to their increased commitment and job engagement outside of work (Dai & Qin, 2016). Loyal employees with a feeling of belonging are engaged employees (Bhavani, 2015).

2.4.8 Relational Reward and Employee Engagement

The body of research surveying the association between relational rewards and employee engagement has grown rampantly over the past few years. Research done by Habib, Khalil, Manzoor, and Jamal (2017) on non-monetary rewards of training and development, pleasant working environment, preferred lunch hours, business cards, and own secretary on employee engagement in a private health sector revealed that Medical staff was highly motivated through non-monetary rewards with an R-squared value of 0.753.

In Malaysia, Haider, Aamir, Hamid, and Hashim (2015) did a literature study on the significance of non-financial rewards on employees' job satisfaction. The study revealed that employees expect different non-financial rewards in addition to the significance of

financial rewards, such as job recognition, decision-making, and appreciation from the organization that enhances employees' satisfaction. Schlecter *et al.* (2015) discovered that non-financial rewards such as work-life balance, learning, and career advancement were significantly associated with employees' perceived attractiveness to a job offer. Gender was found to have a significant influence in that the presence of non-financial rewards was more attractive in job offerings for women than men.

Obicci's (2015) work on how intrinsic and extrinsic incentives impact employee involvement in Uganda's public sector showed a positive link between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and employee engagement. In addition to descriptive statistics, correlation, and regression findings, the study found that extrinsic and intrinsic incentives played a powerful predictive role in determining employee involvement in the field. Chijioke and Chinedu (2015); Danish, Khan, Shahid, Raza, and Humayon (2015) investigated how incentives influence employees' performance in commercial banks in Nigeria and Pakistan. The results showed that relational rewards correlated with the mission's performance and that respondents agreed that they appreciate their job when it offers an opportunity for development and feels inspired when their contribution is made.

Victor and Hoole (2017), in their research on how organizational rewards influence work engagement and workplace trust, the results conveyed a moderate-to-strong positive correlation between the three components and that intrinsic rewards can envisage engagement and trust. Furthermore, the results furnished insight for behavioral practitioners to potentially rely on when improving talent management strategies. Both transactional and relational rewards were key strategies in keeping employees engaged and eventually retaining them. Riasat, Aslam, and Nisar (2016) in Malaysia determined the relationship between non-monetary and monetary motivation by concentrating on the mediating influence of reward systems. The results revealed that non-monetary rewards have a significant and positive association to employee satisfaction and performance, supporting the first hypothesis. The results supported the third and fourth hypotheses by showing that the reward system mediates the link between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and employee performance and satisfaction. As supported by hypothesis two, results also

summed up that extrinsic rewards have a significant relationship with employee performance and job satisfaction.

Marin (2021) researched on reward management in organizations in order to choose the best course of action for the future. The study's objective was to advance the notion that corporations should try to create an effective overall compensation system to recruit, retain, and inspire workers and boost productivity. The results showed that total rewards management, which provides the full package of benefits while taking into account the cultural, gender, and age preferences of employees, plays a crucial impact in boosting performance.

Research on the effect of diversity rewards on employee commitment in Kenya's banking sector was conducted by (Nyikuli, Mukanzi, & Senaji, 2017). The analysis showed that intrinsic rewards had a definite and important impact on employee engagement. Besides, extrinsic incentives were strongly and substantially correlated with employee commitments. However, it was found that the intrinsic incentive had a greater effect on the expected variable than the extrinsic one. The findings further advocated that these rewards helped specific commercial banks enhance their diverse workforce's commitment. Similarly, Korir and Kipkebut (2016) found that a diversity of reward management practices contributes significantly to employees' desire to remain or quit their jobs.

Tuvei, Wanjere, and Mauyo (2016) examined how intrinsic rewards influence organizational performance in sugar companies in western Kenya in the Sugar industry. Results conveyed some positive correlation between intrinsic reward and organizational performance, where intrinsic reward accounted for 73.6% of organizational performance. As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected, concluding that intrinsic rewards had a statistically significant positive correlation with organizational performance. Also, they suggested that sugar industries should take deliberate action to develop strong organizational cultures geared towards organizational performance.

Muchiri (2016) conducted a study on Nairobi Serena Hotel in the hospitality industry on how incentives influence employee performance, and the results argued that the correlation between non-monetary rewards and employee performance had the strongest contribution followed by the relationship between monetary rewards and employee performance. Similarly, Francis, Oaya and Mambula (2020) conducted research on reward systems as a method to improve employee performance. The study specifically focused on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The study's conclusions were that rewards have a positive effect on employee performance, and organizations should customize their reward systems to meet the needs of their employees and to be consistent with their organizational cultures.

A study in Technical Training Institutions in Kenya on the relationship between the reward management system and employee performance revealed that the reward system positively influences employee performance (Matolo, Iravo, & Waititu, 2019). Further, a Tea factory company study on determinants of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on employee performance found that various motivational factors like promotion, job security, job growth, training and development influenced employees' performance (Kilimo, Namusonge, Makokha & Nyagechi, 2016).

Research by Anitha (2014) on the elements influencing employee engagement and their link to performance identified several components other than extrinsic motivators, which can be considered part of the relational rewards bundle. These components included work-life balance, team and co-worker relationships, working environment, career development, and leadership. Team and co-worker relationships and working environment had the strongest influence, and co-worker relationships were a key to fair employment discernment. Relational rewards were critical in building an enriching culture where staff felt valued and rewarded for delivering high customer service levels.

Nyaga (2015) studied relational rewards on employee retention in Kenya's education sector. The study revealed that flexible working hours were an important element. The majority rated it as extremely important (24), which made up 48 out of 95 respondents;

the rest spread among the other elements, learning and development, job security, and paternity leave. The above studies have dealt with rewards in organizations and their relationship with employee engagement, employee commitment, employee motivation, employee performance, employee satisfaction, and employee retention. Overall the studies show rewards have a positive effect on employee outcome behaviours.

2.5 Critique of the Existing Literature Reviewed

The research evidence indicates no overall 'silver bullet' reward that workers will be instantly engaged, extrinsically, and intrinsically motivated if shot and performance advantages flow in organizations (Brown & Reilly, 2013). In each organizational environment, relational rewards and their correlations with employee engagement need to be described and understood, rather than believing that simplistic universal models can be adopted. No 'best practice' approach can always lead to good results-it is misconceived as a one-size-fits-all-total reward approach. However, the reward-engagement relationship is not risk-free; it is difficult, situation-specific and usually requires several monetary and non-monetary variables and drivers (Brown & Reilly, 2013). This complexity illustrates the value of a relational reward approach in engaging the workforce's diversity and meeting the broad spectrum of employee needs. It explains why the researcher carried out work on this topic.

A study by Salah (2016) on the effect of rewards on employee performance of people working for Unified Mining Companies situated in the southern part of Jordan established that the measurement of study variables all built on respondent's attitudes and perceptions while filling the questionnaires which might end in errors and required replication to explain the results. The study replicated the measurement to determine if the measures still gave similar results. The study also realized the limitation of studying the variables in the private sector and recommended additional studies in divergent sectors like manufacturing, finance, and public sector firms to get more improved and valuable contributions and augment the findings' applicability in general. The public sphere was chosen for this study's research. Besides, the researchers agreed that their study was on

smaller to medium-sized organizations, so their findings could not be generalized to bigger organizations. In Kenya, the public health sector is a very big organization that enhances understanding of the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement.

Schlechter, Thompson, and Bussin (2015) concurred that using the non-probability convenience sampling method made the sample group not to be satisfactory representative of the entire population and observed that replicating the findings of their research across different job levels, departments, or organizations from the target population could be studied in the future using random samples to allow for more compelling generalization of the results. This study elected to study two job levels in the public health sector composed of doctors and nurses. It used probability sampling through stratified and simple random sampling to select participants.

Chiang and Thomas (2011) realized that employees working for smaller organizations might not find promotion, flexible work practices, and access to extensive training and development programs as motivating, which are often available in larger organizations, after their study addressed several contextual factors reported that other probable variables such as organizational size and social situations should be explored. This study intended to address this situation by assessing the moderating effect of organizational culture on how relational rewards and staff engagement are related.

2.6 Research Gap

A summary of the research gaps as obtained from the previous research are shown in table 2.1

Table 2. 1 : Research Gaps

Author(s) & Year	Objective	Methodology	Findings	Research gap
Mugizi, Katuramu, Dafiewhare & Kanyesigye (2020)	To analyse the relationship between employee rewards on work engagement of non-academic staff in a public University in Uganda.	-The study adopted the correlational research design -It adopted quantitative approach -Questionnaire was data collection tool	Results revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards had a positive and significant relationship with work engagement.	-The study adopted the quantitative approach only while the current study adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches. -Study recommended future studies to consider the qualitative approach to provide detailed explanations about the relationship between rewards and work engagement. -Measures of engagement included vigour, dedication and absorption while the current study used intellectual, affective and social engagements - The study did not have a moderation variable -The study was carried out in a university while the current study was carried out in the public health sector
Zeng, Takada, Hara, Sugiyama, Ito, Nihei, Asakura (2022)	To determine the Impact of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation on Work Engagement: A Cross-Sectional Study of Nurses Working in Long-Term Care Facilities	-Cross-sectional research design -Questionnaire was data collection tool	Findings indicate the importance of measures to foster nurses' intrinsic motivation to improve work engagement	-Study population were nurses while the current study were doctors and nurses -Cross-sectional research design was used while the current study used descriptive research design -Study recommended further study on how to improve the intrinsic motivation of nurses hence the inclusion of the current intrinsic variables
Manzoor, Wei & Asif (2021)	To assess the impact of intrinsic rewards on the performance	-Target population was 300 - Hypotheses were tested	Results of the study revealed positive and significant impact of intrinsic rewards on	-The study focused on performance rather than engagement -The study had a mediating variable

Author(s) & Year	Objective	Methodology	Findings	Research gap
	with the Mediating Mechanism of Employee's Motivation	using CFA and structural equation modeling	the performance of the employee Motivation mediated the association between variables	while the current study has a moderating variable -Hypothesis testing for the current study used simple and multiple linear regression analysis unlike the study's CFA and structural modelling
Alotaibi, (2024)	To investigated the relationship between intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction among university employees at Taif University in Saudi Arabia.	-Data were collected from 170 employees using a survey questionnaire -The study utilized both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses	The study found a significant positive correlation between task autonomy and job satisfaction with no significant correlation found between task significance and involvement with job satisfaction.	-The study focused on dimensions of intrinsic rewards as task autonomy, task significance and task involvement rather than career development, job design, work environment and work life balance which could be more encompassing. -The study focused on job satisfaction rather than employee engagement -The study was carried out in Saudi Arabia, and in University while the current study was done in Kenya and in PHS - The study also assumed a linear relationship without either a moderating or mediating variable to the relationship, hence the inclusion of the moderator in this study
Moruri, Obwavo, Kimeto, Khandira & Mbatha (2018)	To establish the effects of non-financial motivators on employee performance at Baringo County Referral Hospital	Descriptive research design was used with a sample of 50 employees -Sampling technique used was Central Limit Theorem -Questionnaire was data collection tool	-Findings revealed that there were non-financial motivators (communication, training and work environment) which were inadequately used	-Although the study was done in PHS, it was carried out in one county while the current study researched in four counties Baringo excluded. -The sample size was small compared to the current study - Sampling technique used was central limit theorem while the current study used

Author(s) & Year	Objective	Methodology	Findings	Research gap
Orga, Mbah, & Chijioke, (2018)	To examine the effect of non-financial rewards on staff productivity in Shoprite Company Enugu.	- Primary and secondary data were used. -Questionnaire was administered to 275 staff - Hypotheses were tested using F-statistic.	The study revealed that that non-financial reward impacted on staff productivity, and commitment to the task.	simple and stratified sampling techniques. -The study used medical benefits, relaxation area and volume of output as the constructs with productivity as the outcome. The current study used career development, job design, work environment and WLI as the predictors and employee engagement as the outcome -The study was done in Nigeria whereas the current study was carried out in Kenya
Msisiri & Juma (2017)	To analyze the relationship Between Non-Financial Rewards and Retention of Employees In Banking Industry: Case Of Commercial Rural Development Bank-Arusha Tanzania	- Descriptive research design was adopted -Both qualitative and quantitative research methodology was utilized - Census sampling technique was used. -Questionnaires was used to collect data	-Findings revealed the strong relationship between the non-financial rewards and employee retention in CRDB bank.	- The study variables included Continues improvement, work environments, work life balance and recognition. -The study recommended other research to be carried out on the same variables in more than one bank as well as in other business organizations for stipulating the reliability of the research finding. -The current study variables included career development, work environment and work life integration in the Public Health Sector -Sampling technique for the study was census and not simple and stratified as for the current study -The study's outcome variable was retention while the current study's outcome

Author(s) & Year	Objective	Methodology	Findings	Research gap
Stanfast & Stanfast (2023)	To examine the relationship between intrinsic reward systems and employees' commitment of deposit money banks in Port Harcourt	Cross-sectional survey design was used for the study with systematic sampling technique and a sample of 176	The result of the study showed a positive and significant relationship between intrinsic rewards and the measures of employees' commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment). The findings indicate that organizational culture can explain job satisfaction, organizational leadership commitment, and employee performance.	variable was employee engagement -Study focused on commitment rather than engagement -It did not have a moderation variable -Research design used was not descriptive -Sampling technique was not simple and stratified -The study sector was banking and not public health sector
Sopiah, Kamaludin, Sangadji & Narmaditya (2021)	To examine the impact of organizational culture and employee performance on Islamic banks in Indonesia, as well as understanding the mediating role of organizational leadership commitment on job satisfaction.	-The study applied a quantitative method using path analysis - Used survey method on 600 respondents - Data were analysed with Structural Equation Modelling PLS	The findings indicate that organizational culture can explain job satisfaction, organizational leadership commitment, and employee performance.	-The study had a linear relation between OC the employee performance hence the inclusion of OC as a moderator in the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in the current study
Alkhodary (2023)	To examine the relationship between organizational culture and well-being of educational institutions in Jordan	Questionnaire was used to collect data from 352 respondents	The study findings suggest that a positive organizational culture is significantly associated with increased employee job satisfaction, loyalty, creativity, and productivity.	-OC dimensions included Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy while in the current study they included values, beliefs and norms -OC had a direct relationship with the predicted variable while in the current study it was used as a moderator

The Knowledge gap that this study intended to fill was to conduct a comparative analysis to discern differences between groups (doctors and nurses) in terms of employee engagement and other demographics. From the knowledge gap, moderation analysis

enabled the researcher to test predictors and criteria and whether an intervention has similar effects across the groups. (Namazi & Namazi, 2016; Vij & Farooq, 2017).

2.7 Summary of Literature Reviewed

As the economy improves and the battle for talent accelerates, companies need to build a winning plan for people that involve relational rewards. Organizations that broadly identify relational rewards to include career advancement, work climate, work-life integration, and job design and match these incentives with their business strategy would be ideal for winning in the marketplace. In light of shifting demographics, intense cut-throat competition, and competitive climate, the challenge of recruiting and maintaining talent has finally led employers to understand what workers have said for a while. It's not just about paying. Today's overall compensation attracts, keeps, and motivates employees.

In this competitive climate, companies' capacity to succeed is more tied to the quality of their human capital, and their survival is thus dependent on a loyal and dedicated workforce. These endorse the Hay Community that considers interaction as a relationship of exchange. Employees deserve to be respected and supported in exchange for the extra effort and hard work, working longer hours. They want to see a clear connection, in other words, between what they bring into the company and what they get from it. When people no longer want to be compensated for their work alone but for the value they bring to the company, it has become apparent that conventional incentive schemes are no longer adequate.

Work environment, leadership, career growth, organizational culture, job design, and work-life integration have a greater effect on work dedication than financial incentives, contributing to employee success. Job participation often motivates prospects such as recognition, growth, development, and opportunities to perform. Such incentives are recognized above monetary rewards. Therefore, the central role relational incentives play is important in developing and sustaining employee engagement.

The reviewed literature notes that most of the previous empirical research on organizational culture concentrated primarily on its direct association with organizational efficiency, organizational engagement, and employee engagement, but little attention was paid to the effects of moderation. Furthermore, previous longitudinal studies have been performed in private or developed countries on the effect of relational incentives on employee engagement. However, in the public sector, little has been done in developing countries such as Kenya. This apparent gap in empirical literature was therefore resolved in the current study by connecting relational rewards with employee engagement while at the same time establishing the moderating influence of organizational culture.

Finally, the literature review found the methodology used not to be adequate in some of the studies. For instance, some of the samples selected were too small, involving only one organization, while some of the studies used non-probability sampling, thus limiting the generalizability of their findings. Therefore, the identified gaps in empirical research formed the basis for the current study, aiming to address the identified gaps and contradictions.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter examined the procedures and methods used to obtain, analyze, and present data. Specifically, it included the research design, target population, sample frame, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, pilot test, and data processing analysis.

3.2 Research Design

A research design constitutes the blueprint for collecting, measuring, and analyzing data and an overall plan or structure of investigation concerned with obtaining answers to research questions (Cooper & Schindler, 2015). It indicates how a researcher analyses a research question, turns it into a project, and plans to study the problem (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2014). It contains clear objectives derived from research questions, a specific type of data to be collected, and the methods of collecting and analyzing the data (Blaikeie, 2010). Singh (2006) postulates that research design includes research methods, sampling design, research tools, and statistical techniques.

The study adopted a descriptive research design by following an elaborate research method beginning with formulating a research issue, creating working hypotheses, and testing, generalization, and interpreting the hypotheses (Kothari, 2014). Descriptive studies aim to gain an accurate profile of events, persons, or situations and quantitatively describe trends, attitudes, opinions, and associations (Creswell, 2014). Besides, they aim to generate detailed information about phenomena in natural settings without manipulation (Mutua, 2020). Further, it enables the researcher to describe the study findings using statistical methods such as mean, frequencies, and regression, justifying the researcher's decision to adopt the study design. Correlation research design was also employed which looked at the relationship between the study variables.

This was possible by adopting a survey research strategy as the methodology used that collected numerical data that was analyzed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics and enabled the generalization of findings to a population from a sample representative of the whole population at a lower cost. Most surveys use questionnaires that are easy for people to understand and explain (Saunders, 2016).

3.2.1 Research Philosophy

This study was based on a pragmatism philosophy and abductive approach; hence it adopted mixed methods research. Pragmatists recognize that no single point of view can ever give the entire picture and interpretation of the world. Rather, appropriate research method or methods that enable reliable, well-founded, credible and relevant data to be collected can be applied in undertaking research (Feilzer, 2010). Pragmatism entails integrating both quantitative and qualitative research in the same study. According to Bryman (2016), integration can transpire at different stages of the research process including, data analysis, data collection, sampling or formulation of research questions. Accordingly, the pragmatism philosophy provided for the adoption of mixed methods during data collection and data analysis for the study.

Pragmatics identifies research question as the most important determinant of the research philosophy and can combine both, positivist and interpretivism positions within the scope of a single research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). According to Saunder, Lewis and Thornhill (2014) pragmatic paradigm is a better process in answering “what”, “why”, and “how” research questions. With abduction, a phenomenon is explored using sufficiently detailed data, themes and patterns identified and explained through a conceptual framework, existing theory modified and tested. Abductive inference is done when known premises are used to generate testable conclusions (Saunders *et al.*, 2014)

Mutua (2020) postulates that pragmatism philosophy uses objectivist or subjective ontology and realistic epistemology, has features of both quantitative and qualitative and is largely associated with mixed methods research. This view is in support of Creswell

and Plano Clark (2018) who proposed that pragmatism philosophy is the most prominent paradigm with a strong association for a mixed methods research design. Further, pragmatism's perspective on the nature of knowledge is objective, and that there are no many perspectives on knowledge. Quantitative research generates and uses numerical data (Gill & Johnson, 2010). The technique helps examine relationships between variables measured numerically and analyzed using various statistical techniques (Kothari, 2014). Qualitative research generates themes and analyzed using thematic analysis. Mixed methods research enabled triangulation, complimentary, aiding in interpretation and generality (Saunders *et al.*, 2014). In their study on pragmatism as a research paradigm and its implications for social work research, Kaushik and Walsh (2019) argue that pragmatism offers concrete evidence for discourse at all levels, from micro to macro level and has the capacity to actively engage and empower marginalized and oppressed communities.

3.3 Study Population

A population is a large collection of objects or individuals that is the main focus of a scientific inquiry. The target population includes the entire aggregation of elements that meet the criteria information (Sarantakos, 2005). Sekaran and Bougie (2013) reckoned that the target population includes the total collection of the elements about which inference is made to all cases which are of interest in the study. This study's target population was all doctors and registered and enrolled nurses working in Kenya's public health sector. They included 325 doctors and 2767 registered and enrolled nurses working in the four counties of the formally large western region in Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega and Vihiga, who total to 3092 (MOH, HSS 2019). Table 3.1 shows the distribution of the target population.

Table 3.1: Distribution of Target Population

Strata	Kakamega County	Bungoma County	Busia County	Vihiga County	Total
Doctors	150	122	38	15	325
Nurses	1084	824	538	321	2767
Total	1234	946	576	336	3092

Source: County Health Sector Statistics (2019)

The selection of Doctors and Nurses for the study was informed by the fact that they are the front-line public health service providers. The Counties were selected because they are heavily populated with high literacy levels of well-trained and skilled health workers who can influence health goals, including health-related SDGs. Besides, the counties are characterized by a heterogeneous population with virtually all tribes and cultures represented. This provides a healthy environment to give reliable information on the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement moderated by organizational culture and presents a good case study for Kenyan counties. The choice of the Public Health Sector was ideal for the study because they are the major providers of health services and one of the major employers of health workers. The study's unit of analysis were Doctors and Nurses, both enrolled nurses and registered nurses from County Referral Services (Provincial Secondary Hospitals) whereas the unit of observation was national government public servants in Kakamega County who helped in reducing the chances of instrumentation error and increased the data collection's reliability.

The inclusion for the research respondents were nurses and doctors above the age of 20 years from County referral hospitals. Similarly, both registered and enrolled nurses were included and questionnaires were issued to medical doctors but not doctors on intern or clinical medicine doctors. Education level included was certificates, diploma, degree and masters for nurses and Doctors level included degree and masters. Patino and Ferreira (2018) argue that it is a standard required practice when designing a high quality research protocols to establishing inclusion and exclusion criteria for study participants.

3.4 Sampling Frame

A sample frame is an index of cases, a list, or a directory from which a sample can be picked (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). The sample frame for the study was compiled from the list of all doctors and registered and enrolled nurses in the four selected counties and obtained from the director of human resource management in each county. After obtaining the lists from individual county governments, the research developed a comprehensive and accurate list from which a sample to participate in the study was generated.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Determining the sample size strived to provide a sample that was both large enough to yield statistically significant results and accurate population parameter estimates, while remaining manageable and cost-effective. To obtain a representative sample from a much larger population, sampling was used. This allowed the researcher to examine the smaller group and drew valid conclusions about the larger group.

3.5.1 Sample Size

A sample is part of the target population that has been procedurally selected to represent the population in a study (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Nalzar (2020) consider a sample size an important feature of any empirical study whose goal is to make inferences about a population. The sample size may be calculated based on the data collection method's expense and the need to provide adequate statistical capacity (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). Gujarati and Porter (2010) note that a researcher should be able to consider, among other things, the degree of confidence required for a researcher, the margin of error, the type of research to be conducted, and the size of the total population before deciding on the sample size to have adequate statistical power.

The data collected for this study were analyzed at a 0.95 confidence level, which constitutes a 0.05 significance level, a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$, and 0.5 as the standard deviation, which shows how much variance the research expects in responses. Using a

formula determined the study's sample size; according to Kothari (2014), it's used when the study population is finite.

$$n = \frac{z^2 p \cdot q \cdot N}{\sigma^2 (N-1) + z^2 p \cdot q}$$

Where

n - Desired sample size

Z – Standard variate value at a given confidence level, usually 1.96 for 95% confidence level

P – Sample proportion (0.5)

q – 1- p

N – Size of the population

$\sigma = 0.05$

$$\begin{aligned} n &= (1.96)^2 * 0.5 * 0.5 * 3092 \\ &= (0.05)^2 * (3092-1) + (1.96)^2 * 0.5 * (0.5) \\ &= 3.8416 * 0.5 * 0.5 * 3092 \\ &= 0.0025 * 3091 + 3.8416 * 0.5 * 0.5 \\ &= 2969.5568 \\ &= 7.7275 + 0.9604 \\ &= 2969.5568 \\ &= 8.6879 \\ &= 341.80 \\ &= 342 \end{aligned}$$

The sample size for the study was **342** participants to whom questionnaires were administered. The sample size was distributed, as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Sample Size

Sampling for Doctors			
County	Target Population	Proportion %	Sample size
Kakamega	150	46	16
Busia	38	12	4
Bungoma	122	37	13
Vihiga	15	5	2
Total	325	100	35
Sampling for Nurses			
County	Target Population	Proportion %	Sample Size
Kakamega	1084	39	120
Busia	538	19	60
Bungoma	824	30	91
Vihiga	321	12	36
Total	2767	100	307

From table 3.2, a sample of 35 doctors, who are proportional to the total number of doctors, was chosen from the 325 doctors who practiced in all four counties. The overall count of nurses was 2767, where a total of 307, which is proportional to the number of nurses, were selected. This constituted a sample size of 342 participants who were included in the study and responded to the questionnaire.

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

Kothari (2014) argues that an appropriate sample size should be collected using a sampling procedure or technique to ensure a smaller sampling error and reduce systematic bias. The participants in this study were selected using a stratified random sampling procedure. This procedure was appropriate because the population of interest was not homogeneous and was subdivided into mutually exclusive and heterogeneous subpopulations and strata (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). From the target population, two categories of participants were used, including doctors and registered and enrolled nurses in the said counties. Kothari (2014) states that stratification helps group participants in their various categories to pick participants from those groups using simple random sampling techniques. After stratification, the participants were selected using purposive and simple random sampling.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

3.6.1 Instruments

The study used a questionnaire to collect primary data from respondents. Both structured (closed-ended) and unstructured (open-ended) statements were used to get uniform responses from respondents. The structured questionnaires were accompanied by a list of all possible alternatives from which respondents selected a suitable answer that described their situation by simply ticking (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). The kind of questionnaire that was used was Self-completed questionnaires. The choice of the instrument was the ease it accords the researcher during the analysis. Moreover, questionnaires are convenient to administer when handling a large group of respondents and economical to use in time and money.

The questionnaire was divided into parts. Part (A) of the questionnaire captured demographic information that sought respondents' details on gender, age, experience, level of education, and the area of their work in the public health sector. Part (B) of the questionnaire had sections covering relational rewards under the study: Career Development, Job Design, Work Environment, and Work-Life Integration, which were identified to have the greatest influence on Employee Engagement. The questions from the Nienaber (2010) questionnaire on the total reward preference model was adopted based on its multidimensionality and detailed view of total rewards.

Part (C) of the questionnaire covered the moderating variable adopted from the Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) by Sashkin and Rosenbach (2013). Parts (D) of the questionnaire evaluated employee engagement in the public health sector. The questions were adopted from The ISA Engagement scale by Soane *et al.* (2012). The benefit of the ISA scale is that employers can assess engagement as a separate component: 'intellectual,' 'social,' and 'affective.' In contrast, the other commonly available engagement measures like The May *et al.* Engagement Measure (2004) and The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Schaufeli, Salanova, *et al.* (2002) tend to dumbfound all these varied dimensions jointly in one scale, which makes it arduous to know what issues are

influencing engagement levels. The questionnaire statements were measured on a Likert scale ranging from "1-Strongly Disagree" to "5-Strongly Agree."

3.6.2 Measurement of Variables

The study variables were measured as indicated in table 3.3 below. The predictor variables, career development, work environment, and work-life integration, were measured by questionnaire items that were adapted from Nienaber's (2010) total reward preference model. In addition, Job Design, the second predictor variable, was picked from the Job Characteristics model developed by Hackman and Oldham's (1974). The moderating variable of organizational culture was measured by five questionnaire items adapted from Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) by Sashkin and Rosenbach (2013). The composite variable used six questionnaire items adapted from the ISA Engagement scale by Soane *et al.* (2012).

Table 3.3: Operationalization and Measurement of Variables

Type of indicator	Variable Name	Operationalization	Measurement Scale Likert (1-5)	Adopted from
Independent variable	Career Development	-Career Plans -Career Progression -Learning Opportunities	Ordinal	Nienaber's (2010)
Independent Variable	Job Design	-Task variety -Autonomy -Task identity	Ordinal	Hackman <i>et al.</i> (1974)
Independent Variable	Work Environment	-Physical settings -Workload complexity -Management support	Ordinal	Nienaber's (2010)
Independent Variable	Work Life Integration	-Telecommuting -Flexitime -Employee assistance programs	Ordinal	Nienaber's (2010)
Dependent Variable	Employee Engagement	-Intellectual Engagement -Social Engagement -Affective Engagement	Ordinal	Soan <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Moderating Variable	Organizational Culture	-Values -Norms -Believes	Ordinal	Sashkin <i>et al.</i> (2013)

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is how information is gathered from the chosen subject of an inquiry, according to Creswell (2014). A letter of introduction was obtained from the Director of Postgraduate Studies at JKUAT prior to the distribution of questionnaires to the participants. In addition, the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) granted permission to conduct the study in the four counties of the Western Region: Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega, and Vihiga. A questionnaire covering all the associated variables in the sample was used to collect primary data. This study's questionnaire was designed so that each question or comment was sent to each respondent in the same format and sequence (Kothari, 2014). Similarly, all respondents replied to the

same set of questions. The structured questionnaire helped the study to limit the respondents to given aspects of the variables in which the study is interested.

The questionnaire had both open and closed questions and statements. The open-ended part gave the respondents room to express their views more pragmatically to collect their free opinion on the variables. In contrast, the closed part restricted the respondents to give specific responses, measured using the five-point Likert-type measurement scale developed for the questionnaire (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). The rationale for using qualitative and quantitative strands of data is that a mixed approach provides more comprehensive evidence for studying and a complete understanding of a research problem than adopting a single approach alone (Mutua, 2020). Further, it helps to build better measuring methods to ensure that complementary outcomes are obtained by using the strengths of one approach to improve the other's weaknesses (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2018). Similarly, Saunders *et al.* (2009) opine that it enables triangulation to take place and enhances the significance of the interpretation of results and corroboration of findings.

3.8 Pilot Test

A pilot test reduces the chances of instrumentation error and increases the data collection's reliability. A pre-test is usually done in a pilot test to check the internal consistency of the data collection instrument (Kothari, 2014). The Pilot study helped detect the weakness in design and instrumentation and provided accurate data for sample selection (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). This piloting was needed to help identify the short comings that could be experienced during the actual study and hence, put in place corrective measures before actual administration of the questionnaires (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014).

A pre-test sample of 34 respondents (10% of the total sample size) was selected from employees in the national government public servants in Kakamega County. The questionnaires were self-administered to the randomly selected sample from the target population that participated. The random sample ensured that the targeted pilot sample

had an equal chance of participating in the pilot study and removed bias. They were then coded and entered into the SPSS program for analysis by use of the descriptive and inferential statistics. Respondents in the pilot study did not participate in the final study sample to reduce the risk of learned response (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014).

3.8.1 Reliability Test

Reliability analysis was done to determine if the questionnaire was suitable for data collection and if it measured what it was intended to measure (Mkansi *et al.*, 2012). A measuring instrument is reliable if it provides consistent results (Kothari, 2014). The reliability test provided information about the relationships between individual items on the scale. The Cronbach alpha, an internal consistency coefficient indicator, is widely used to estimate psychometric test reliability for a sample of examinees (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015).

In general, Cronbach's alpha of over 0.7 is the minimum acceptable standard, while social sciences are acceptable between 0.5 and 0.6 (Noorlaila *et al.*, 2016). Reliability statistics were calculated to determine internal consistency of responses for the key variables; career development, job design, work environment and work life balance whose Cronbach's alpha value after factor analysis was within the range of 0.646 – 0.876, which is adequate reliability (Taber, 2018).

3.8.2 Validity Test

Content validity was achieved by adopting tested questionnaires. The questionnaire for this study was formulated based on the theoretical basis of research and modified and revised after the pilot study (Noorlaila *et al.*, 2016). Apart from adopting tested questionnaires, experts' views were also sought on the questionnaire to guarantee content validity. Further, the study ensured that all variables were adequately covered by using items for each variable dimension.

To achieve construct validity, including criterion and factor analysis, a thorough amount of components was reduced using principal component analysis and remained with questionnaire statements, capturing the construct they were measuring. Through principal component analysis, the questionnaire statement's commonalities and the total variance explained were determined and used to retain only those items with a recommended total variance explained above 0.50. Similarly, each statement's factor loading was determined to eliminate complex factor loading to determine which factors loaded on which component before and after extraction (Kothari, 2014). Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to ascertain sampling adequacy and validity of items in the questionnaire.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

3.9.1 Diagnostic Tests

Before the regression analysis, the study tested for five assumptions: Normality, Linearity, Multicollinearity, Heteroscedasticity, and Independence of error term/Autocorrelation. Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, (2015) advocate that these tests indicate whether the hypotheses tests regarding the coefficient estimates can be valid and whether estimation techniques have desirable properties.

Test for Normality

The normality test of data is an important prerequisite in the assumption of parametric testing and ascertaining whether the data obtained followed a normal distribution (Musselwhite & Wesolowski, 2018). Normal data distribution is achieved by constructing P-P Plots or histogram graphs. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is the commonly numerical test used for normality. The data set is normal if the obtained Asymptotic Significance value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test is (>0.05) greater than 0.05. On the contrary, if the obtained Asymptotic significant value is (<0.05) less than 0.05, then the data set is said to be in a significant deviation from a normal distribution (Razali & Wah, 2011). In

the study, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used to test for the normality of the data obtained.

Test for Linearity

Test for Linearity was important for the study, which enabled us to determine whether the relationship between each of the independent variables and the dependent variable was linear or not (Zientek, Kim & Bryn, 2016). The linearity test is a requirement in linear regression and correlation analysis. Value Significant Deviation from Linearity and P-P Plot graph was used in this study to test and ascertain whether the relationship between the predictor variables and the predicted variable was linear. The rule of thumb is that this relationship is linear if the value significant deviation from the Linearity obtained is greater than 0.05 and the values shown are represented on a straight line.

Test for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong relationship among the independent variables, making it difficult to determine the significance of each predictor variable in the model, and can result in increases in standard errors associated with *b* coefficients (Field, 2013; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013). The substantiating tests for multicollinearity were done by the tolerance value and the variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics which is the inverse of the tolerance value.

Test for Heteroscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity is the variance of error across the regression line in the sense that the variances of explained variables are not equal across all levels of the explanatory variables or when the errors of the mode are not distributed alike (Field, 2013). As a result, heteroscedasticity can be an origin of menace to the error term, which is supposed to be constant, as several regression analysis methods are built on the assumption of equal variance (Park, 2008). The study used the Glejser test for heteroscedasticity to confirm

the existence of homoscedasticity. A p-value less than 0.05 indicate that there is heteroscedasticity and vice versa.

Test of Independence Error Terms/Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation is defined as the correlation between members of observations ordered in time for time series data or space for cross-sectional data, where it is referred to as spatial correlation (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The independence of error terms was tested in this study by calculating the Durbin Watson statistics *d* test. Field (2013) issued conventional lower and upper limit value statistics for interpreting the *d* value as <1 or 4> indicative of auto correlated error terms. A rule of thumb is that test statistics values in the range of 1.5 to 2.5 are relatively normal.

3.9.2 Qualitative Analysis

Thematic content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data collected by use of open ended questions. The collected data was coded and the key themes of the study objectives transcribed. The texts were drawn from the coded data and similar ideas put together. Their generalized meanings were extracted and stated in narratives using well described verbatim of the study participants. The qualitative results were reported in factual form by triangulating with the quantitative results. The key themes that came out of the analysis are indicated in table 3.4 below;

Table 3.4: Themes from Analysis

Career Development	Job Design	Work Environment	Work Life Balance	Organizational Culture	Employee Engagement
Training opportunities	Work Schedules	Team building activities	Flexible work plans	Management support	Rewards
Scholarships	Employee Empowerment	Ergonomic	Shift working	Motivational culture	Sufficient work tools and equipment
Management support	Division of Labour	Enabling environment	Reduced burnout	Feedback culture	Training and development
Creating awareness on career development	Reduced work load	Good work design	Job sharing	Dialogue culture	Good working environment
Equal opportunity	Delegation	Recreation facilities	Provision of breaks	Recognition culture	Job security
Study leave	Job specification	Medical equipment	Enough rest time	Reward better performance	Come together meetings

3.9.3 Quantitative Analysis

The collected quantitative data was checked for completeness, then coded and entered into the cleaning analysis program. Using descriptive statistics and inferential analysis through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24, quantitative data were analyzed. The descriptive analysis provided frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations, providing simple summaries of the sample data and presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014).

Inferential statistics were based on correlation, simple and multiple linear, hierarchical moderation and step-wise regression analyses. Correlation analysis provided Pearson's correlation coefficient, which showed the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables under study. The simple and joint coefficient of determinant, which was produced by simple and multiple linear regression analyses, revealed whether the independent variables were significantly correlated with the dependent variable, whether they had a significant impact on the dependent variable, and how strongly the independent and dependent variables were correlated (Gujarati *et al.*, 2010).

The study obtained ANOVA results through regression analysis, which provided the *F*-statistic at the given degrees of freedom and the *t*-statistics for the coefficients of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The *F*-statistic and the *t*-statistic were used in the test for the set hypotheses. If the *F*-statistic and the *t*-statistics were significant and different from zero, the statistic observed was greater than the critical statistics. The null hypotheses for the respective independent variables were rejected; otherwise, the null hypotheses were accepted for the independent variables. In the test for hypotheses, the following simple regression equations were used:

$$Y = \beta_0 + B_1X_1 + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model for hypothesis 1}$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + B_2X_2 + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model for hypothesis 2}$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + B_3X_3 + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model for hypothesis 3}$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + B_4X_4 + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model for hypothesis 4}$$

In addition to these simple regression equations, the following multivariate regression equations was used to test the joint influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable:

$$= \beta_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4 + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 5}$$

This study also analyzed the moderating influence of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards on employee engagement. A multiple hierarchical regression analysis was conducted in two steps. In the first step, engagement was regressed against relational reward and organizational culture to determine whether relational reward accounted for a significant amount of variance in employee engagement in the presence of organizational culture. In the second step, an interactional term between relational reward and organizational culture was created and added to the regression analysis to determine the change in the value of R^2 to help determine whether organizational culture moderates the relationship between relational reward and employee engagement.

In the second multiple regression model, step-wise regression was performed to determine the gradual contribution of organizational culture as a moderator and to determine which of the predictor variables may have had the weakest contribution to variance in employee engagement. The following regression equation was set to test the moderating effect of organization culture on the relationship between relational reward and employee engagement:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta x + \beta m + \beta x \cdot m + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 6}$$

Where;

Y = Dependent Variable

α = Constant

β = regression coefficient to be estimated

x = Independent Variables

m= Moderator (Organizational Culture)

ε = Error Term

3.10 Ethical Considerations

According to Bos (2020) ethics implies an inquiry into what is right and wrong, and what the researchers ought to do. In this study, the researcher obtained approval letter from the University for Data Collection and the research permit from NACOSTI. Official written consent was obtained from County Directors of Health and Ethics and Research approval was sought from Ethics Review Committee.

Confidentiality was of importance and in this regard, the names of the respondents were not disclosed to protect the identity and privacy. Similarly, the information collected was kept confidential and used for academic purposes only. In addition, informed consent was observed where the respondents were told the truth and given facts about the research in order to make an informed decision about participating in the study or not and the right to

refuse to answer any question. The dignity, privacy and interest of the participants was respected and protected and research plagiarism avoided.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study findings and their discussion based on the data collected and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings are based on the responses from the questionnaires filled and information gathered on the research questions. The findings are explained and the implications of the same given and they are presented in graphs, charts and tabulation form. A statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 24 tool was used in the analysis. The purpose and the scope of this analysis were meant to determine the influence of relational rewards specifically career development, job design, work environment and work life balance on employee engagement moderated by organizational culture.

4.2 Response Rate

The study targeted 342 respondents, but only 334 questionnaires were filled and returned; hence the response rate stood at 97.66%, which was considered high enough to judge the study as successful. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a response rate of 30% or higher is considered adequate, a response rate of 50% or higher is considered acceptable, and a response rate of 70% or higher is excellent for purposes of representation of findings from the sample to the entire population from which the sample was drawn. The drop and pick method used in distribution of questionnaires contributed to the higher response rate giving the actual view of the respondents for the study.

$$\text{Survey response rate} = \frac{\text{No. of responses}}{\text{No. of people interviewed}} = \frac{334}{342} \times 100 = 97.66\%$$

4.3 Demographic Information

The study sought information on the respondent concerning their characteristics related to the collected and analyzed data regarding the gender, age, years worked, education level, and work area. Mukanzi *et al.* (2014) posited that every target population has its characteristics. The purpose of demographic data was to show cross section of individual's observed, acted as control variable in testing for hierarchical analysis and helped in filling the research gap. Demographic data were analyzed in frequencies, percentages, and using Chi-Square tests to establish the relationships between respondents' characteristics and the study. The findings are presented in the sub-sections as follows.

4.3.1 Gender of the Respondents

The results of the study's attempt to ascertain the respondent's gender distribution are depicted in Figure 4.1.

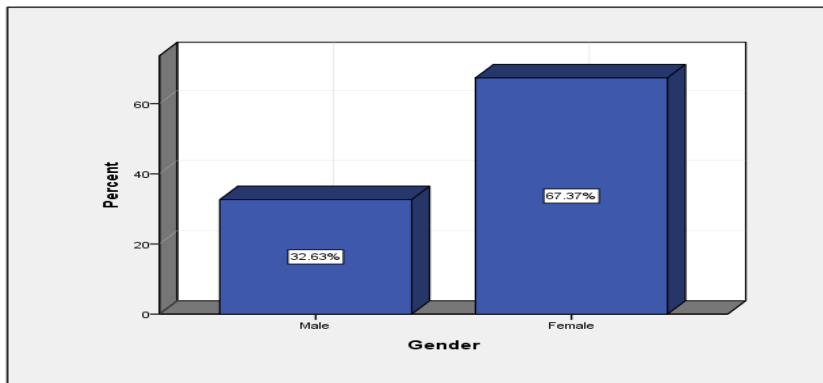


Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

The results indicate that out of 334 participants, 109 (32.6%) were male, while 225 (67.4%) were female. A Chi-Square test of independence conducted on the gender distribution of respondents showed a highly significant difference in variation of gender distribution among the respondents ($\chi^2_{20.05, 1} = 40.287; p=0.000$). These results implies that female respondents were more available than males, indicating that equity and parity in gender representation have not been attained in the public health sector. Similarly, nursing as a career has been dominated by females more than males. The findings were

supported by Wakaba, Mbindyo, Ochieng, Kiriinya, Todd, Waudo, Noor, Rakuom, Rogers, and English (2014) in their study on the public sector nursing workforce in Kenya: A county-level analysis which found that the gender distribution in 13 of the 47 counties over 80% of public sector nursing staff are women. Further, a higher county remoteness index is linked with describing a lower female to male ratio of public sector nurses across counties (P value <0.0001). Cross tabulation was carried out between gender and education, and the results are as shown in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1: Gender * Education Cross Tabulation

		Count					Total
		Education Level					
		PhD	Masters	Bachelor's	Diploma	Certificate	
Gender	Male	0	3	50	52	4	109
	Female	1	3	54	148	19	225
Total		1	6	104	200	23	334

From the findings in Table 4.1, the number of educated female respondents was double that of the male. For females, one was with a Ph.D., 3 with a master’s degree, 54 with a bachelor’s degree, 148 with a diploma, and 19 with certificates making a total of 225. On the other hand, none of the males had a Ph.D., 3 had a master’s degree, 50 with bachelor’s degree, 52 with a diploma, and 4 with a certificate making it a total of 109. Traditionally in Kenya, most males were better exposed to advance their education and achieve further training than females. However, the results indicate that the trend has changed, and education has equal opportunity.

4.3.2 Age of Respondents

The study sought to determine the respondents' age brackets by asking them to indicate their age ranges. Their responses are shown in Figure 4.2.

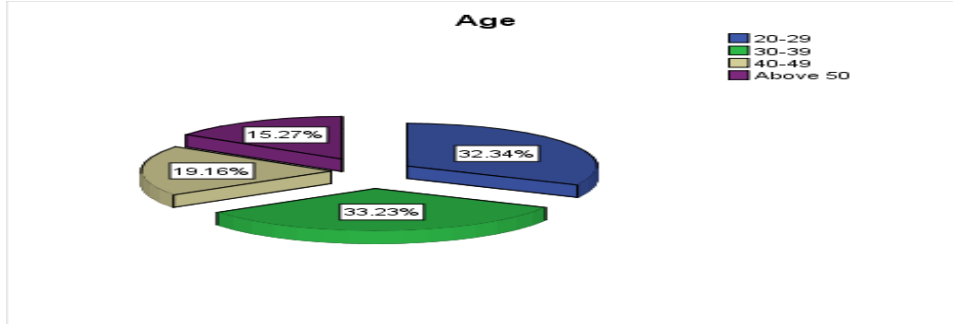


Figure 4.2: Distributions of Respondents by Age

From the above findings, it was established that most respondents were aged between 30-39 years, represented by 111(33.2%). Those aged between 20-29 years were 108(32.3%). 40-49 years were represented by 64(19.2%). Whereas those respondents aged above 50 years were represented by 51(15.3%). These results show that most of the respondents were between 30-39 years old, implying that most of the public health sector employees are energetic and experienced. Also, the great diversity shown in age structure contributes to varied views from the respondents and sufficient knowledge to understand the influence of relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector. This finding is supported by Wakaba *et al.* (2014), whose study revealed that forty-six counties have over 50% of their public sector nursing workforce aged below 50 years. Another potential payoff for the public health sector is to develop young workers between 20-29 years to take over for the older (above 50 years) when the latter retire.

4.3.3 Years worked by the Respondents

The study also sought to establish the years worked by the respondents in the public health sector. The results are as shown in Figure 4.3.

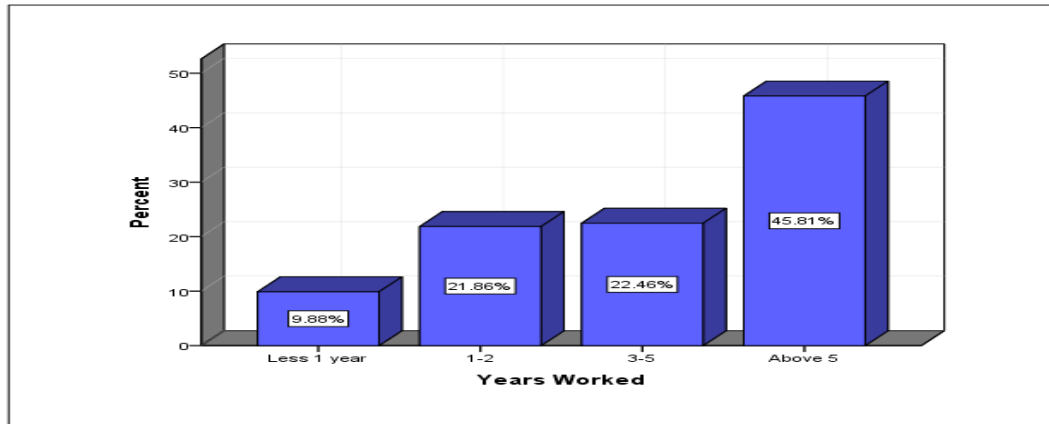


Figure 4.3: Distributions of Respondents According to Years Worked

The results presented in Figure 4.3 shows that 153(45.8%) of the study respondents had over five years of experience in the public health sector, 75(22.5%) for a period of 3-5 years, 73(21.9%) for 1-2 years and 33(9.9%) for a period less than I year. These results imply that most respondents were experienced and equipped with knowledge and skills concerning their roles. This indicates that the public health sector values employee's experience and competence. In addition, varied experience means different views are expected on the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement in the public health sector.

4.3.4 Highest Level of Education of Respondents

The level of formal education of the respondents was another goal of the research and the outcomes are displayed in Figure 4.4.

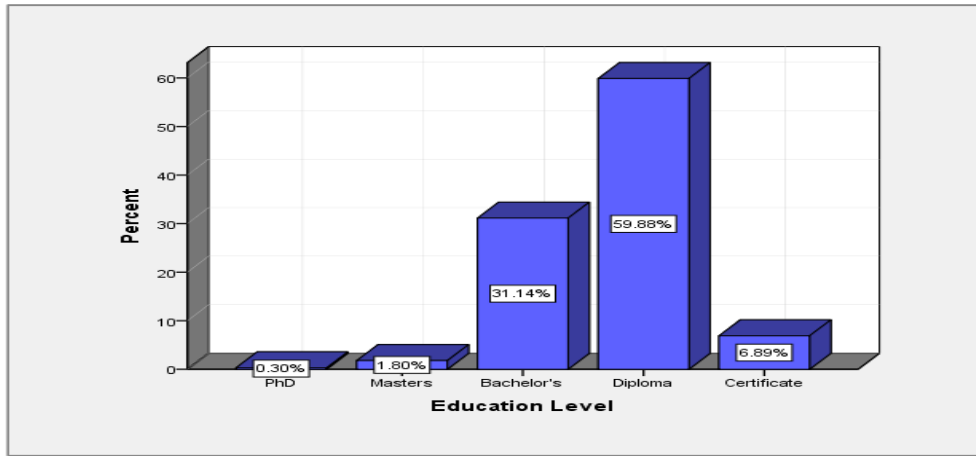


Figure 4.4: Distributions of Respondents According to Educational Level

The findings presented in Figure 4.4 indicates that 200(59.9%) of the respondents had Diploma, 104(31.1%) had bachelor's degree, 23(13.6.9%) had certificates, 6(1.8%) had masters, and 1(0.3 %) had Ph.D. A Chi-Square test of independence performed on the respondents' educational attainment level revealed a highly significant difference in the variance of respondents' educational attainment levels ($\chi^2_{20.05, 4} = 435.192$; $p=0.000$). This workforce distribution in terms of the education level indicates that the majority had a diploma of 200(59.9%). This implies that majority was not seriously impressing career progression. The skewed curve evidenced this with a few representations of masters 6(1.8%) and 1(0.3%) Ph.D. holders. However, we also see that 104(31.1%) had bachelor's degrees. This concur with Jackson and Joshi (2011), who noted that people with a degree could use the knowledge gained for problem-solving and group coordination.

4.3.5 Work area of the Respondents

The work area of the respondents in the public health sector was also sought, as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Distributions of Respondents According to Work Area in PHS

Work area	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Doctors	60	18
Nurses	274	82
Total	334	100.0

Findings show that 60 (18%) respondents were doctors, while 274 (82%) were nurses. A Chi-Square test of independence conducted on the respondents' work area showed a significant difference in variation of work area among the respondents in the company ($\chi^2_{0.05, 1} = 137.114; p=0.000$). This indicates that the public health sector doctors are lean, thus reducing remuneration costs.

Similarly, cross-tabulation was carried out between gender and work area of the respondents in the public health sector, and the results are as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Gender * Work Area Cross Tabulation

		Count		
		Work Area		Total
Gender		Doctor	Nurse	
	Male	37	72	109
	Female	23	202	225
Total		60	274	334

The findings in Table 4.3 indicate that in the public health sector, there is equality in responsibilities and opportunities where all gender is equally represented, which is essential for the sector's prosperity. For instance, the table shows 37 male doctors and 23 female doctors. Similarly, the table shows 72 male nurses and 202 female nurses.

4.4 Diagnostic Tests Analyses

4.4.1 Pilot Testing Results

A pilot test was used to reduce the chances of instrumentation errors like weakness in design, increase the data collection's reliability, and check the internal consistency of the

data collection instrument (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). A sample of 10% of the total sample of 342 was selected from employees in Kakamega County National Government, Public Servants who did not participate in the actual study. The instruments were pre-tested using identical procedures to those used during data collection. The reliability of the questionnaire was confirmed using the Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient of internal consistency, which was ($\alpha = 0.773$), suggesting that the instruments had relatively adequate reliability (Taber, 2018). Predictor variable relational rewards dimensions (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration), the moderator (organizational culture), and predicted variable employees engagement were all tested for reliability using the Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient test and a summary of the measurements with their Cronbach statistics are conferred in table 4.4:

Table 4.4: Cronbach Alpha Coefficients of Variables

Composite variable	Cronbach Alpha	No of items	N	Comment
Career Development	.709	6	334	Accepted
Job Design	.737	5	334	Accepted
Work Environment	.687	6	334	Accepted
Work Life Integration	.704	5	334	Accepted
Organizational Culture	.682	6	334	Accepted
Employee Engagement	.773	9	334	Accepted

The Cronbach alpha (α) coefficients for all the composite variables shown in table 4.4 established that the research instrument used and data collected were reliable. As indicated, all the variable items; career development, job design, work environment, work-life integration, organizational culture, and employee engagement gave composite Cronbach alpha (α) coefficients of 0.709, 0.737, 0.687, 0.704, 0.682, and 0.773 respectively, all of which were at the acceptable 0.7 alpha coefficient value.

A validity test sought to determine whether the scale truly measured the same thing. Content validity was realized by adopting tested questionnaires and supervisors' views, whereas construct validity was ensured through confirmatory factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) method was used together with Bartlett Test of Sphericity to

examine sample adequacy and significance of the inter-correlation among the items (Shrestha, 2021). KMO value ranges from 0 to 1 with 0.6 recommended as minimum value and Bartlett's Test of sphericity (< 0.05) significance based on the Chi-Square Statistics.

Table 4.5: Validity Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.844
	Approx. Chi-Square	775.095
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Results revealed that the variables had a higher KMO value of 0.844 which is greater than 0.6 and Bartlett's test with a significant chi-square value of (775.095, $P=.000$) at 6 degrees of freedom. The implication being that the sample was adequate as measure of validity of the responses and the data was therefore, sufficient for further analysis of both descriptive and inferential. The questionnaire items were adapted from Nienaber's (2010) total reward preference model questionnaire items for career development, work environment, and work-life integration, job characteristics model questionnaire developed by Hackman and Oldham's (1974) for job design, Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) by Sashkin and Rosenbach (2013) for organizational culture and ISA Engagement scale by Soane *et al.* (2012) for employee engagement.

4.4.2 Tests of Assumptions

The study done by Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, (2015) advocate that the classical linear regression model and analysis is braced by five assumptions that are essential to indicate that the estimation techniques have various desirable properties and that the hypotheses tests concerning the coefficient estimates can validly be conducted. Consequently, this study tested for five assumptions of normality, linearity, Collinearity, homogeneity and independence of variables before the regression analysis was run.

Test for Normality

The normality assumption is very paramount and familiar in classical statistical tests. This assumption presumes that the residuals are normally distributed and, therefore, aims to ascertain the data distribution in the research variables. Rozali and Wah (2011) advocated that good data used in research is that which can be said to be normally distributed. This study employed the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality developed by Andrey Kolmogorov and Nikolai Smirnov in 1933 (Arnold & Emerson, 2011). The normality test can identify the departure of data from the normality because of either kurtosis or skewness, or both, and it is best suited for a sample greater than 50 (Sabana, 2014). As the rule of the thumb, a variable is reasonably near to normal if its skewness and kurtosis have values between -1.0 and $+1.0$ or comparatively, the sum of all the negative and positive deviations from the mean, median, and mode is equal to zero (Saleemi, 2011).

Nonetheless, the decision-making process presumes that if the obtained Asymptotic Significance is more than 0.05, then the data is distributed normally. Contradictory, if the Asymptotic Significance is less than 0.05, then the data would not be suitable for research, and the assumption of normality shall have been violated (Rozali & Wah, 2011). The One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were presented for each variable in table 4.6:

Table 4.6: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		CD	WE	WLB	JD
Normal Parameters	Mean	3.3862	3.4815	3.2444	3.8074
	Std. Deviation	.69288	.90739	.85275	.50071
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.087	.128	.135	.168
	Positive	.074	.120	.135	.162
	Negative	-.087	-.128	-.113	-.168
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.451	.667	.703	.874
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.987	.765	.706	.592

The Independent Variable Asymptotic Significance values of career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration were 0.987, 0.592, 0.765, and 0.706, respectively, as shown in Table 4.6. Conforming to the decision-making process of the normality test, the values of Asymptotic Significance for all the independent variables in the study were greater than 0.05, and it can therefore be concluded that the data for the relational rewards; career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration was normally distributed (Rozali & Wah, 2011).

Test for Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity indicates that all the error terms of a regression function have the same variance; otherwise, if the variance is unequal over a range of measured values, there is heteroscedasticity (Zientek *et al.*, 2016). Slight heteroscedasticity could lead to grave misreporting of findings which may seriously weaken the examination of the study. This study used the Glejser test for heteroscedasticity to confirm the existence of homoscedasticity, which shows a significant value for the independent variables (Glejser, 2012). A p-value less than 0.05 indicates heteroscedasticity, while a p-value greater than 0.05 indicates heteroscedasticity does not exist.

The test was conducted by regressing the entire residual value of employee engagement variable with the regression equation;

$$Y = \alpha + X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + X_3\beta_3 + X_4\beta_4 + \mu$$

Where Y is employee engagement;

X₁ is career development

X₂ is job design

X₃ is work environment

X₄ is work life integration

β₁ – β₄ are the coefficients of predictor variables

μ is the error term

α is a constant

The following null hypothesis was formulated to test for heteroscedasticity;

H₀: the residuals are heteroscedastic,

This hypothesis was then tested and the results obtained presented in table 4.7:

Table 4.7: Glejser Test for Heteroscedasticity

Model	Coefficients ^a			t	Sig.
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.667	.068		9.822	.000
1 CD	-.063	.025	-.196	-2.546	.211
JD	-.038	.028	-.116	-1.369	.172
WE	.006	.026	.019	.237	.813
WLI	-.029	.025	-.094	-1.165	.245

a. Dependent Variable: Ubsut

The coefficients obtained from table 4.7 results revealed the value of Significance (0.211) career development, (0.172) job design, (0.813) work environment, and (0.245) work-life integration, respectively, as being greater than 0.05. The results inferred that the test does not indicate a violation of the homoscedasticity assumption since all the P-values are greater than 0.05 and that the model is free from the heteroscedasticity problem. Hence, the study rejected the null hypothesis, which postulated that the variance of residuals was heteroscedastic.

Test for Linearity

The study by Zientek, Kim and Bryn (2016) posited that sound research in a regression model should stipulate a linear relationship between the dependent and predictor variables. As a result, the test for linearity is paramount in correlation and regression analysis. To ascertain whether the relationship between employee engagement and relational rewards was linear or not, the study used the Significance Deviation from the linearity test. If the

attained value Significance Deviation from linearity is greater than 0.05, then the relationship between each predictor variable and employee engagement would be linearly dependent on the decision-making process and vice versa. The output for each relational rewards variable for the linearity test is shown in table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Test for Linearity

	Career Development vs Employee Engagement	Job Design vs Employee Engagement	Work Environment vs Employee Engagement	Work-Life Integration vs Employee Engagement
Sig. Deviation from linearity value	0.033	0.014	0.323	0.642

The results of the linearity test shown in Table 4.8 specified that the value significance of Career development, job design, work environment, and work-life balance all had deviations from linearity that were larger than 0.05 and were 0.033, 0.014, 0.323, and 0.642, respectively. It ultimately resulted in the predicted variables of career development, job design, work environment, and work-life balance being linearly dependent on one another. Therefore, the regression analysis was valid to run since the assumption was confirmed to be in existence.

Similarly, linearity examines if the relationship between independent and dependent variables can be represented on a straight line (Mutua, 2020). Residual plots were used for multiple linear regressions to check the relationship between the predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, work-life integration) and predicted variable (employee engagement) shown in figure 4.5:

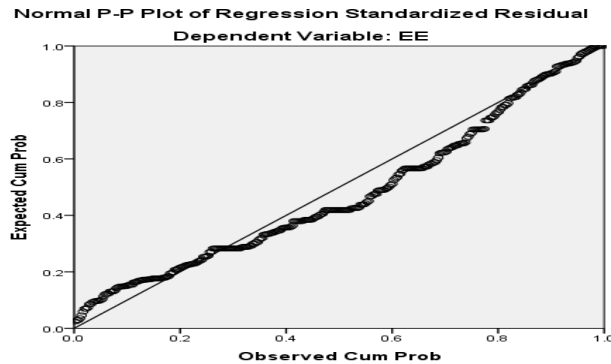


Figure 4.5: P-P Plot for Relational Rewards and Employee Engagement

According to the results in figure 4.5 it can be observed that the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable is linear as the values shown are represented on a straight line.

Test for Collinearity

Collinearity is an undesirable situation where the degrees of correlations among the independent variables are strong (Kothari, 2014). Multi-collinearity arises when independent variables in multiple regression analysis are highly correlated with one another, making it strenuous to interpret their coefficients. It also reduces the power of the model to identify predictor variables that are statistically significant, increasing the probability that a good predictor may be found to be insignificant in a model and, therefore, rejected (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013). The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and its corresponding tolerance values method were used to test for the multi-collinearity. Tolerance designates the percentage of variation in the predictor variable, which cannot be accounted for by other predictors. As a rule of thumb, tolerance values would indicate multi-collinearity if such values were greater than one or less than 0.1 (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). A variable whose VIF value is either greater than 5 or less than 1 would indicate the presence of multi-collinearity (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). The multi-collinearity test result acquired was presented in the table 4.9:

Table 4.9: Test for Multi-Collinearity

Model	Coefficients ^a						Collinearity Statistics	
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF	
	B	Std. Error	Beta					
(Constant)	1.041	.111		9.338	.000			
1 Career Development	.130	.041	.152	3.217	.001	.449	2.228	
Job Design	.207	.045	.237	4.564	.000	.373	2.684	
Work Environment	.160	.043	.189	3.749	.000	.396	2.524	
Work Life Integration	.286	.040	.351	7.066	.000	.408	2.454	

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

The tolerance values acquired from the statistic comprise 0.449, 0.373, 0.396, and 0.408 for career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration, respectively. The output coefficients for the Multi-collinearity statistic indicate the variance inflation factor (VIF) values of 2.228 for career development, 2.684 for job design, 2.524 for the work environment, and 2.454 for work-life integration. As a result, both the tolerance and the VIF values indicated a lack of multi-collinearity in the variables since the tolerance values were more significant than 0.1 and less than 1.0, while the VIF values were all less than 5 and greater than 1.

Test for Independence of error term/Auto correlation

Independence of error term/Autocorrelation, the correlation between members of observations, was detected using the Durbin-Watson *d* test to examine the correlation among residuals of the linear regression (Kothari & Garg, 2014). This test was simply the ratio of the sum of squared differences in successive residuals to the residual sum of squares (RSS). Durbin Watson provided the lower and upper limit critical values of 0-4, which can be used to determine positive or negative autocorrelation. A rule of thumb is that test statistics values in the range of 1.5 to 2.5 are relatively average (field, 2013). Table 4.10 shows the Durbin-Watson test for this study.

Table 4.10: Durbin-Watson Test for Autocorrelation

Model	Durbin-Watson Test	Sig.
Career Development	1.598	.000
Job Design	1.597	.000
Work Environment	1.515	.000
Work-Life Integration	1.547	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

b. Predictors (Constant), Career Development, Job Design, Work Environment, Work Life Integration

The results in table 4.10 show that Durbin-Watson d was 1.598 for career development, 1.597 for job design, 1.515 for the work environment, and 1.547 for work-life integration. Since all values fall within the normal range, it can be concluded that there was no autocorrelation in the predictor variables applied for the study. The data was, therefore, fit for regression analysis.

4.5 Descriptive Analysis of variables

The study sought to investigate whether relational rewards influence employees' engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. This part provides a descriptive analysis of the predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration), moderating variable (organizational culture) as well as employee engagement (the predicted variable). The use of tables presented the findings.

4.5.1 Career Development

This study's first objective was to ascertain how career development influenced employee engagement in the Kenya's public health sector. The study looked at this relational reward from the perspectives of career plans, career progression, and learning opportunities performed by the public health sector in Kenya. Career development was operationalized by six (6) questionnaire items adapted from Nienaber's (2010) Total Reward Preference Model. With a five-point Likert scale measurement ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=strongly Agree, participants were probed to indicate their level of agreement or

disagreement about career development as a form of relational reward on given declarative statements.

The findings in table 4.11 stipulated that a majority 211(66.2%) of respondents believe that the sector's management support for learning programs motivates them to perform better. This was against 73(21.9%) who cumulatively disagreed with the statement, with 40(12.0%) being neutral. Similarly, the study sought to determine whether all employees are given growth opportunities in training and development. 92(28.0%) of those surveyed did not respond in favours of the statement, while 214(64.1%) responded in acceptance of the information. However, 8.4 percent were neutral on the account. In addition, the study did seek to find out whether the sector has a policy on employee career development. The findings indicated that 68(18.9%) of respondents were unaware of whether the industry has a policy on employee career development, while 230(68.9%) of respondents answered in affirmative to the statement. This was against 41(12.3%) respondents who strongly agreed or disagreed with the information.

Equally, the majority of respondents, 238(71.3%), cumulatively agreed that there are coaching and mentorship programs for management development (see table 4.6). This was against 51(26.1%) who cumulatively disagreed with the statement. However, 45(13.5%) of respondents were neutral on the idea. Table 4.11 also divulged that most participants, 271(81.2%), cumulatively agreed that there is control over their work methods at their place of work. This was against 47(14.1%) participants who were neutral on the statement. Nonetheless, 16(4.8%) disagreed with the information. The study also sought to determine if all employees are given equal opportunities for promotion. A good percentage of the study participants, 115(34.4%), cumulatively disagreed with the statement, with only 54(16.2%) agreeing. However, most of the respondents, 165(49.4%), were neutral on the same. The statement on 'equal opportunities for promotion' had the lowest mean and the highest being 'control over work methods' with a standard deviation of .972 and .827 respectively. This imply that majority of the respondents had similar views and the composite mean of 3.5 indicated that most respondents agreed on the variable. These results are summarized as shown in table 4.11:

Table 4.11: Career Development

Career Development	SD f (%)	D f (%)	N f (%)	A f (%)	SA f (%)	Mean	S.D
Management Support	58(17.4)	15(4.5)	40(12.0)	32(9.6)	189(56.6)	3.84	1.552
Growth Opportunities	18(5.8)	74(22.2)	28(8.4)	166(49.7)	48(14.4)	3.46	1.143
Policy on Care development	6(1.8)	35(10.5)	63(18.9)	198(59.3)	32(9.6)	3.64	.861
Coaching and Mentorship programs	9(2.7)	42(12.4)	45(13.5)	222(66.5)	16(4.8)	3.58	.869
Control over work methods	7(2.1)	9(2.7)	47(14.1)	189(56.6)	82(24.6)	3.99	.827
Equal opportunity for promotion	20(6.0)	95(28.4)	165(49.4)	23(6.9)	31(9.3)	2.85	.972
Composite Mean						3.52	

N=334; Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), Strongly Agreed (SA=5)

From the findings (in Table 4.11), the study concludes that where a majority of the public health sector has diverse supported learning programs and provides equal learning and career progression opportunities through progressive policies that act as a genesis of employee engagement. Wetland (2012) has shared these findings, advocating that investing in employee training and career growth is essential for employee engagement and minimizes the turnover rate. These responses are also in corroboration with those of Semwal and Dhyan (2017), who posited that the organization's career development prospects notably pungle up to all the components of employee engagement more than the support provided by training initiatives alone.

These findings were triangulated with data collected from open-ended questions from respondents. The respondents were asked to suggest what needs to be done by the sector to improve employee engagement through training and development. Thematic content indicated management support through the provision of career training, sponsorship, and awareness creation on career development. One respondent noted:

"All employees should be given equal opportunities for learning and upgrading to enhance service delivery as a health worker" – RESP 280

Another respondent stated:

"Creating targeted competency development modules that nurture, foster and grow core values" – RESP 201

Yet other 2 respondents observed:

"Scholarships should be availed for everyone" – RESP 227

"Creating awareness for the employees on career development" – RESP305

These comments show where the public health sector embraced career development by creating awareness of the same and providing training opportunities through targeted programs to improve health workers' engagement. Similarly, management support through scholarships and government sponsorship increased the engagement level of health workers. This finding is reflected by Kim and Park, (2020), who indicated a link between top management support for talent and job satisfaction and the organizational commitment of career changers. Moreover, top management support is one of the channels through which an organization can achieve the desired goal and objectives (Kemei, Oboko & Kidombo, 2018).

4.5.2 Job Design

The second objective of the study was to ascertain how job design influenced employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector. Five (5) questionnaire items that were adapted from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Characteristics Model were used to examine the construct's task variety, autonomy, and task identity aspects. A five-point Likert scale measuring 1 for Strongly Disagree and 5 for Strongly Agree is used. Participants were probed to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement about job design as a form of relational reward on given elucidative statements.

The results for the descriptive measure of job design are indicated in Table 4.12. The table results revealed that the job of doctors and nurses requires performing a wide range of tasks. In this view, most of the research participants, 281(94.1%), cumulatively agreed with the statement. This response was against an insignificant figure of 14(4.2%) participants in the research who disagreed with a further 39(11.7%) who were neutral with the same statement. Similarly, 80(24.0%) of the same research respondents were neutral on whether their job allows them to make their own decisions about scheduling their work, with 68(20.4%) cumulatively disagreeing with the statement. However, 186(55.7%) answered in the affirmative on the same information.

In addition, the majority of respondents, 219(65.5%), cumulatively indicated that their job allows them to make decisions about what methods they use to complete their work (Strongly agreed = 89(26.6), 130(38.9) =Agreed). On the contrary, a minimal figure of 45(13.5%) disagreed with this statement, with 70(21.0%) being neutral. Equally, 149(44.6%) (Majority) of the research participants agreed that their job provides them the chance to finish the pieces of work they begin. Another 54(16.2%) strongly agreed with the statement, which implies that cumulatively, 203(60.8%) of the research respondents agreed with the elucidative information. In disagreement with the statement were 39(11.7%) of the participants, with 92(27.5%) who were neutral. The table results also indicated that the majority of respondents, 147(44.0%), cumulatively disagreed that the job provides them with information about their performance, with 81(24.3%) cumulatively agreeing with the statement. However, 106(33.5% 1.7) were neutral on the statement. Job design had a composite mean of 3.6 with the items on 'job variety' having the highest mean of 4.34 against 'feedback on performance' having the lowest mean of 2.77 with a standard deviation of 1.013. The low standard deviation imply that there was minimum chance of outliers and the high composite score of 3.6 indicated that majority of respondents agreed on the variable. A summary of the findings was presented in table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Job Design

Job Design	SD f (%)	D f (%)	N f (%)	A f (%)	SA f (%)	Mean	S.D
Job Variety	5(1.5)	9(2.7)	39(11.7)	96(28.7)	185(55.4)	4.34	.895
Job	24(7.2)	44(13.2)	80(24.0)	115(34.4)	71(21.3)	3.49	1.172
Autonomy							
Decisions making on methods	7(2.1)	38(11.4)	70(21.0)	130(38.9)	89(26.6)	3.77	1.034
Job identity	8(2.4)	31(9.3)	92(27.5)	149(44.6)	54(16.2)	3.63	.934
Information about Performance	28(8.4)	119(35.6)	106(31.7)	65(19.5)	16(4.8)	2.77	1.013
Composite mean						3.6	

N=334; Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), Strongly Agreed (SA=5)

In the responses, there was consistency in how respondents replied to the Likert statements about job design. They indicated a general agreement to all the elucidative statements on job design except the last statement on the job providing information about performance. This proves that the public health sector does not furnish the required details to the employee. However, they specify how to perform the tasks by establishing employees' responsibilities and roles, procedures, and the systems they should use, espoused by the job characteristic model. Campion, Mumford, Morgeson, and Nahrgang, (2005) supported that these job measurements promote meaningfulness of the job, experienced control for the job results, and awareness of the actual consequences of the employees' work. These, in turn, are expected to generate positive employee attitudes and work results, e.g., lower employee turnover, productivity, internal work motivation, work engagement, and job satisfaction.

As part of the survey, the respondents were asked to describe what should be done in the sector to improve Job design through the open-ended question. In the findings, thematic content revealed that working schedules should be provided with a clear division of labour and employee empowerment. Three respondents commented:

"There should be division and integration of same line of skills" – RESP 222

"Synchronization of staff with the same skills to perform the same line of duty that is creating the same body of teamwork" – RESP 218

Another respondent advocated:

"Through making a job larger in scope by combining additional tasks activities into each job through expansion" – RESP 185

Yet another respondent posited:

"Timetabled work scheduled to 8 working hours in a day. This allows the healthcare provider time to rejuvenate and thus increase in productivity."
– RESP263

These comments indicate that division of labour is paramount in enabling one to engage in various activities that enhance the use of multiple skills. Further, they imply that coming up with working schedules and empowering employees improves employee engagement. These findings concur with research by Salanova *et al.* (2005), who found out those occupations that require many different skills and abilities make workers believe that what they are doing is more meaningful relative to those in simple and routine employment. Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) shared this opinion suggesting that people who feel involved in several activities assume that their job is engaging and motivational.

4.5.3 Work Environment

Finding out how the work environment influences employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector was the study's third objective. Six (6) questionnaire items that were adapted from Nienaber's (2010) Total Reward Preference Model were used to measure the construct in terms of physical settings, task complexity, and management support. A five-point Likert scale measuring 1 for "Strongly Disagree" and 5 for "Strongly Agree" was used. Participants were probed to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement about the work environment as a form of relational reward on given elucidative statements.

The results in Table 4.13 revealed that the majority of respondents (249(74.5%) cumulatively were satisfied with the quality of co-workers in the team, with an insignificant number of 16(10.2%) who strongly disagreed with the statement. Further, 69(20.7%) were neutral with the statement. Similarly, Table 4.13 shows that the public health sector allows for good work design. 240(71.9%) were in favour of this statement against 28(8.4%) who cumulatively disagreed with it. In addition, 66(19.8%) were neutral with the same statement. Results of Table 4.13 indicate that public health sector employees were satisfied with the current safety and security standards in the public health sector. This was corroborated by 191(57.2%) respondents who cumulatively agreed with the statement. On the other hand, 69(20.7%) disagreed that this does not happen. Nonetheless, 74(22.2%) respondents were neutral to the statement.

Another statement sought to establish if the public health sector provides a comfortable working environment, i.e., workspace, tools, and physical environment, to their employees. 54(26.2%) did not respond in the affirmative with the statement on the same against 159(47.6%) who cumulatively responded in the affirmative. Nonetheless, 121(36.2%) were neutral with the declared statement. Equally, 212(63.5%) of the respondents (majority) cumulatively agreed that the management supports and encourages team performance which increases employee engagement. However, 14(4.2%) % opined that such a phenomenon does not happen, with 108(32.3%) participants who were neutral with the statement. Further, the majority of respondents, 129(38.7%), cumulatively disagreed that they are satisfied with the workload provided in their job, with 70(21.0%) and 6(1.8%) agreeing and strongly agreeing, respectively. However, 129(38.6%) were neutral on the statement. Co-workers quality satisfaction statement bore the highest mean of 4.07 indicating satisfaction with colleagues and satisfaction with the workload having the lowest mean and a standard deviation of 1.014. This imply to the study that most respondents had similar views on the work environment variable. A summary of the findings was presented in Table 4.13:

Table 4.13: Work Environment

Work Environment	SD f (%)	D f (%)	N f (%)	A f (%)	SA f (%)	Mean	S.D
Co-workers quality satisfaction	2(6.0)	14(4.2)	69(20.7)	121(36.2)	128(38.3)	4.07	.899
Good work design	6(1.8)	22(6.6)	66(19.8)	201(60.2)	39(11.7)	3.73	.819
Safety and security standards	10(3.0)	59(17.7)	74(22.2)	140(41.9)	51(15.3)	3.49	1.045
Good working environment	19(5.7)	35(10.5)	121(36.2)	122(36.5)	37(11.1)	3.37	1.004
Team performance supported	3(3.3)	11(9.0)	108(32.3)	133(39.8)	79(23.7)	3.82	.862
Satisfied with provided workload	49(14.7)	80(24.0)	129(38.6)	70(21.0)	6(1.8)	2.71	1.014
Composite Mean						3.53	

N=334; Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), Strongly Agreed (SA=5)

From table 4.13, it was deduced that the public health sector encourages and supports team performance and has put in place good work design and health and security standards that stimulate employee engagement. These findings have been endorsed by Deepa, and Dharshini (2023) who posited that employees give their best at work when they get the support and attention they need from their leaders. Similarly, (Ford, Griffith, Hughes and Bellis (2022) revealed that good office design is comfortable and ergonomic, motivates workers, and significantly improves their efficiency. The findings have been further supported by Madu, Asawo, and Gabriel (2017), who opined that a conducive physical workplace environment augments employees' engagement.

These findings were triangulated with data collected from an open-ended question with respondents. The respondents were asked to suggest their opinion on whether the physical and social environment can improve employee engagement. Thematic content showed an

enabling environment with team-building activities and observing ergonomic. One respondent observed:

"Enough workspace enhances privacy when dealing with clients and that tools/equipment enhances work performance" – RESP 227

Another respondent stated:

"Lighting and good ventilation within the work environment improves engagement" – RESP 163

These comments show that the provision of enabling environment, including physical and social environment and observing ergonomic stimulate employee engagement. These findings coincide with research by Sitopu, Sitinjak, and Marpaung (2021) who advocates that a conducive physical workplace environment impacts employee engagement and affects their alliance with colleagues, absenteeism, well-being, error rate level, innovativeness, and turnover rate.

4.5.4 Work Life Integration

Finding out how work-life integration affects employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector was the study's fourth objective. Five (5) questionnaire items that were modified from Nienaber's (2010) Total Reward Preference Model were used to measure the construct in relation to the aspects of telecommuting, flexible work arrangements, and employee assistance programs. A five-point Likert scale measuring 1 for "Strongly Disagree" and 5 for "Strongly Agree" was used. Participants were solicited to indicate their level of concurrence or dissent about work-life integration as a form of relational reward on given annotated statements.

The findings in Table 4.14 indicated that the majority of respondents, 234(70.1%), cumulatively agreed that they were equally satisfied with balancing work and family roles. Nonetheless, 34(10.2%) of respondents disagreed with the statement, with 66(19.8%) being neutral. One more statement sought to determine whether the employer enables

them to log into his network from home. The majority of the respondents, 198(59.3%), cumulatively agreed with the statement, with 65(29.5%) disagreeing. However, some participants, 71(21.3%), were neutral in their responses.

Table 4.14 sought to determine whether the sector provides employee assistance programs. 209(62.5%) participants cumulatively agreed with the statement. In contrast, 55(16.5%) disagreed with the idea, while 70(21.0%) of those surveyed were neutral with the statement. The findings from table 4.9 similarly revealed that majority of respondents 238(71.1%), agreed that the sector recognizes the need for job sharing among employees, with 27(8.1%) who disagreed to the statement. Further, 69(20.7%) of those surveyed were neutral on the statement. Accordingly, the findings revealed that the majority of respondents, 139(41.6%), cumulatively disagreed that they could not balance work priorities with their personal life, with 141(42.2%) agreeing on the same. However, 54(16.2%) were neutral on the same. The total mean for work-life integration was 3.6, with a standard deviation of .837. With a mean of 2.99, the statement regarding finding a work-life balance received the lowest average. This imply to the study that there was minimum chance of outliers and majority of the respondents had similar views. Table 4.14 provided the results in summary form.

Table 4.14: Work Life Integration

Work Life Integration	SD f (%)	D f (%)	N f (%)	A f (%)	SA f (%)	Mean	S.D
Work and Family Roles Satisfaction	7(2.1)	27(8.1)	66(19.8)	82(24.6)	152(45.5)	4.03	1.080
Working from home	18(5.4)	47(14.1)	71(21.3)	161(48.2)	37(11.1)	3.46	1.038
Employee Assistant Programs Provided	9(2.7)	46(13.8)	70(21.0)	118(35.3)	91(27.2)	3.71	1.092
Job Sharing Recognized	4(1.2)	23(6.9)	69(20.7)	205(61.4)	33(9.9)	3.72	.782
Balancing work and personal life	19(5.7)	120(35.9)	54(16.2)	127(38.0)	14(4.2)	2.99	1.067
Composite mean						3.6	

N=334; Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), Strongly Agreed (SA=5)

From Table 4.14, it can be inferred that the public health sector recognizes the need for job sharing among its employees. This implies more excellent continuity and coverage of work during absences and enhanced problem-solving by having two people work on the task. Equally, the environment does not enable employees to balance work and personal life, as indicated by most study participants.

The study findings are consistent with those obtained by Darko-Asumadu, Sika-Bright, and Osei-Tutu (2018), who established that there is a need to balance work responsibilities and non-work activities to facilitate commitment and engagement to work. They argued that more participation in the job leads to less time for social activities reducing commitment to work, whereas spending more time with family than work can lead to absenteeism and labour turnover among employees. Similarly, the findings are in corroboration with Williamson and Baird (2015), who opines that job sharing results in the retention of highly skilled employees, helps in work-life balance by meeting both family and work responsibilities, and employers benefit by having two employees who can exchange ideas and support each other.

These findings were triangulated with data collected from an open-ended question with respondents. The respondents were asked to give their views on whether the quality of work-life balance is vital in improving employee engagement in the sector. Flexible work plans and job sharing came out clearly as thematic content. However, one respondent advocated:

"Yes. Enabled work life balance helps reduce stress and prevent burnout in the work place" – RESP 177

Another respondent posits:

"Yes. Offers flexible work timings and gives employees a chance to do their work and also work on certain important personal commitments" – RESP 185

Yet another respondent reported:

"Yes. It improves my engagement in my organization by assisting me in have job sharing knowledge" – RESP 20

These comments explain that work-life balance induces employee engagement through the provisions of flexible work plans and breaks in between the work schedules. These enable sharing knowledge and working on personal commitments, reducing burnout, stress, and depression. These findings collaborate with Oludayo *et al.* (2015), who posited that without an employer's successful balance between workers' jobs and non-work roles, adverse employee behavioural outcomes correlated with conflict, tension, and job dissatisfaction in multiple roles could arise.

4.5.5 Organizational Culture

The moderating variable for the study was organizational culture. The study assessed the effect of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector. Organizational culture was operationalized using values, norms, and beliefs (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 2013). All measures of the moderating variable used 1 = strongly disagree (SD) to 5 = strongly agree (SA) on a 5-point likert scale.

The findings in Table 4.15 indicated that the majority of respondents, 187(56.0%), agreed that top managers help them discover how to validate their values with the organizational values, with 8(2.4%) strongly agreeing with the statement. However, 55(25.5%) cumulatively disagreed with the statement, whereas 82(24.6%) were neutral with the statement. Consistently, the majority of the study participants, 161(48.2%), agreed that they share the same values and vision that the sector represents, with 35(10.5%) strongly agree with the statement. 50(15.0%) cumulatively disagreed that they share the same values and vision that the sector represents. Of the respondents who were neutral with the statement were, 88(26.3%).

Further, the study sought to find out whether the public health sector rewards employees in proportion to the excellence of their job performance. A little figure of the respondents, 22(6.6%) strongly disagreed with the statement, with 27(8.1%) disagreed with the statement. Those who answered in affirmative cumulatively were 175(51.4%), with 136(40.7%) agreeing and 39(11.7%) strongly agreeing with the statement. Accordingly, a good number of those surveyed, 110(23.9%), were neutral with the statement. The findings from table 4.15 also showed that 45(13.5%) of the respondents cumulatively disagreed that management practices in the sector allow freedom to plan and act in one's sphere. On the contrary, 204(60.4%) of respondents cumulatively agreed that they are allowed to plan and work in their sphere. Equally, 83(24.9%) were neutral with the statement.

Table 4.15 also revealed that 218(65.3%) respondents believed that organizational culture supports improved employee performance. This was against 33(9.9%) respondents who disagreed that organizational culture supports improved employee performance. However, 81(24.3%) were neutral on the statement. Further, the findings indicated that 164(49.1%) of respondents cumulatively agreed that the public health sector's culture is open to change and employees can adapt, with 56(16.8%) contrary to the statement. However, quite several participants, 112(33.5%), were neutral on the statement. The statement on organizational culture supporting energetic improved performance had the highest mean of 3.69. The composite mean score for organizational culture was 3.47 with a standard deviation of .956. This imply that most respondents of the study agreed on the variable with a minimum chance of outliers. A summary of the findings was presented in table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Organizational Culture

Organizational Culture	SD f (%)	D f (%)	N f (%)	A f (%)	SA f (%)	Mean	S.D
Management Support on value congruent	9(2.7)	46(13.8)	82(24.6)	187(56.0)	8(2.4)	3.39	.923
Sharing of Values and Vision	10(3.0)	40(12.0)	88(26.3)	161(48.2)	35(10.5)	3.51	.939
Performance based Rewards	22(6.6)	27(8.1)	110(23.9)	136(40.7)	39(11.7)	3.43	1.019
Freedom to Plan and Act	9(2.7)	36(10.8)	83(24.9)	171(51.2)	33(9.2)	3.52	.976
OC Supports Energetic Improved Performance	12(3.6)	21(6.3)	81(24.3)	167(50.0)	51(15.3)	3.69	.957
OC is open to change	13(3.9)	43(12.9)	112(33.5)	144(43.1)	20(6.0)	3.32	.978
Composite mean						3.47	

N=334; Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), Strongly Agreed (SA=5)

From table 4.15, it can be concluded that the organizational culture practiced in the public health sector supports energetic improved performance. This is achieved through sharing values and vision and management support on value congruent. These findings are supported by Warrick, and Gardner (2021), who argued that one of the most effective ways to build culture is to have a compelling vision, purposeful mission, memorable core values that are known, valued, and practiced, and goals that are communicated and understood throughout the organization. Similarly, Gardner, Wickramasinghe, and Pierce (2018) reckon that organizational culture is propelled by values which are abstract beliefs about what is good or bad. When people share these beliefs, they agree regarding what is acceptable in terms of their organizational behaviour, attitudes, and decisions. Further, Schneider *et al.* (2013) supported that firm culture is one that has extensively-shared beliefs and values that have a significant effect on the member's behaviours of outcome.

The study further, through open ended questions investigated ways which could be used to improve employee engagement through organizational culture in the public health sector. Majority of the study participants indicated that management support through

motivational culture, feedback culture and counselling culture would increase employee engagement. Similarly, that employee involvement culture and dialogue culture through meetings would increase employee engagement. Further, that information dissemination through developing communication policy, holding regular meetings, recognition and rewarding better performers would increase employee engagement.

4.5.6 Employee Engagement

The study went further to determine how far employees within the public health sector are engaged to the industry and how such engagement could be influenced by relational rewards. Employee engagement was operationalized using the intellectual, affective and social (Soane *et al.*, 2012). All measures of the predicted variable used 1 = strongly disagree (SD) to 5 = strongly agree (SA) on a 5-point likert scale.

Intellectual Engagement

Table 4.16 presents the findings which show that majority of respondents 150(44.9%) strongly agreed and 125(37.4%) agreed that they focus hard on their work against 18(5.4%) respondents cumulatively who did not agree on the same. Additionally, 41(12.3%) of the study participants were neutral on the statement. Consistently, majority of respondents 159(47.6%) strongly agreed and 133(39.8%) approved totaling to 87.4 per cent that they concentrate on their work. Nonetheless, an insignificant figure of 14(4.2%) of the study participants cumulatively disagreed that they don't concentrate on their work. Further, 28(8.4%) were neutral on the statement. Equally, 83.5 per cent of the respondents who were majority, 155(46.4%) strongly agreed with 124(37.1%) agreeing that they pay a lot of attention to their work. Nevertheless, 7(2.1%) disagreed with the statement and another 6(1.8%) strongly opposing. Additionally, 42(12.6%) were neutral and they neither contradicted nor agreed with the statement.

Social Engagement

The results in table 4.16 also revealed that, majority of respondents 224(67.0%) answered in affirmative that they share the same work values as their colleagues with 132(39.5%) agreeing and 92(27.5%) strongly agreeing on the same. It was against 27(8.1 %) of respondents who strongly disagreed with 13(3.9%) opposing that they share the same work values as their colleagues. In addition, 70(21.0%) were neutral with the statement. Equally, majority of the respondents 162(48.5%) cumulatively agreed that they share the same work goals as their colleagues with 66(19.8%) cumulatively disagreeing on the same. However, 106(31.7%) were neutral on the statement. Nonetheless, 129(38.6%) of the study participants disagreed that they share the same work attitudes as their colleagues with 120(35.9%) agreeing on the same. However 85(25.4%) of the respondents were neutral on the same.

Affective Engagement

Similarly, majority of the respondents 141(42.2%)) strongly agreed that they felt pleased about their work with 121(36.2%) agreeing with the statement making up 78.4 per cent of the study's participants. Collectively, 19(5.7%) of the respondents did not share this opinion. A further 53(15.9%) were neutral with the statement. Consistently, 236(70.6%) of study participants. cumulatively felt energetic in their work with 120(35.9%) strongly agreeing and 116(34.7%) agreeing. This was against 33(9.95%) of participants who disagreed with a further 15(4.5%) of those who participated who strongly felt that they are not energetic in their work. The study also sought to find out how enthusiastic the respondents were in their work. Majority 199(59%) cumulatively agreed with the statement with 52(15.6%) cumulatively disagreeing with the statement. A further, 85(25.4%) were neutral with the statement. The mean for both the measures of employee engagement was 3.8 with intellectual engagement having the highest mean of 4.24 with a standard deviation of .894. Affective engagement had the second highest mean of 3.87 and social engagement having the lowest mean of 3.39 with a standard deviation of 1.086. The values of the means and standard deviation indicate that most respondents agreed on

the three dimensions of employee engagement with minimum chance of outliers. A summary of the findings is shown in table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16: Employee Engagement

Employee Engagement	SD f (%)	D f (%)	N f (%)	A f (%)	SA f (%)	Mean	S.D
Intellectual Engagement							
Focusing hard on my work	9(2.7)	9(2.7)	41(12.3)	125(37.4)	150(44.9)	4.19	.942
Concentrating on my work	6(1.8)	8(2.4)	28(8.4)	133(39.8)	159(47.6)	4.29	.857
Paying a lot of attention to my work	6(1.8)	7(2.1)	42(12.6)	124(37.1)	155(46.4)	4.24	.883
Composite Mean						4.24	
Social Engagement							
Sharing work values with colleagues	13(3.9)	27(8.1)	70(21.0)	132(39.5)	92(27.5)	3.79	1.057
Sharing work goals with colleagues	13(3.9)	53(15.9)	106(31.7)	109(32.6)	53(15.9)	3.41	1.055
Sharing work attitudes with colleagues	28(8.4)	101(30.2)	85(25.4)	85(25.4)	35(10.5)	2.99	1.147
Composite Mean						3.39	
Affective Engagement							
Feeling positive about work	5(1.5)	14(4.2)	53(15.9)	121(36.2)	141(42.2)	4.13	.931
Feeling energetic in work	15(4.5)	33(9.9)	49(14.7)	116(34.7)	121(36.2)	3.88	1.140
Being enthusiastic in work	13(3.9)	39(11.7)	85(25.4)	127(38.0)	70(21.0)	3.60	1.062
Composite mean						3.87	

N=334; Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), Strongly Agreed (SA=5)

Table 4.16, indicated consistency in general agreement on all responses by the study participants to the likert statements about employee engagement. This gave a clear indication that majority of the public health sector employees are intellectually absorbed in their work and they think hard about the work they do and how they can do it better. Further that the respondents were optimistic about doing a good job and were equally

affectively engaged. Kotera, Mayer and Vanderheiden (2021) provided backing that such employees tend to demonstrate positive emotions at work which can lead to improved performance and retention. This view is in corroboration with Donovan (2022); Ullah, Khattak, and Rahman (2018) who reckoned that engaged employees show high morale, stress on teamwork, and promote a supportive work culture. Further, Adrianto and Riyanto (2020) posited that engaged employees are a loyal worker who feel a sense of belongingness, fulfilled and satisfaction.

The study further, investigated ways through which relational rewards could be used more effectively to improve employee engagement in the public health sector through open-ended questions. Majority of the respondents noted that adoption of quarterly relational rewards to motivate hard working employees through performance based pay would pull other employees who are lagging behind. In addition, provision of sufficient work tools and equipment required for efficient and effective service delivery would improve employee engagement. Similarly, that if the public health sector would come up with capacity building activities through training and development, then this would improve employee engagement. Further that for employees to be engaged, then the public health sector should involve them in the development, implementation and revision of reward management programs and provide good working environment by setting reasonable and transparent performance standards for relational rewards.

4.6 Inferential Analysis

Inferential analysis allows you to make predictions (inferences) from the data sample and generalizations about a population's characteristics (Doss, Rayfield, Burris, & Lawver 2021). As a result, inferential analysis is more concerned with estimating parameters and testing hypotheses. The study involved using regression and correlation analyses to get a more profound meaning from the data, focusing on obtaining findings that would enable concrete conclusions to be drawn. The regression and correlation analyses were conducted to establish a correlation between relational rewards and employee engagement. In addition, the regression analysis was performed to denote the amount of variance that

would occur in the dependent variable due to the influence caused by the change in the independent variable. The results were depicted per specific objectives.

4.6.1 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the strength, direction, and presence, of a linear relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement. The correlation coefficient (r) values range from **-1**, indicating a perfectly linear negative correlation (independent variables are positively and negatively related to the dependent variable) to **+1**, showing a perfectly linear positive correlation (predictor variables are perfectly and positively correlated with predicted variables). Nevertheless, a correlation coefficient close to (0) indicates little correlation (the independent variables cannot describe the variation in the dependent variable) (Cooper & Schilder, 2015; Kothari & Garg 2014). The study conducted correlation analysis using the Pearson correlation coefficient technique. The purpose of the study was to ascertain how relational rewards affected employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector. Table 4.17 provides the results and an explanation for every specific objective.

Table 4.17: Correlation Matrix

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Career Development	1					
2	Job Design	.670**	1				
3	Work Environment	.647**	.724**	1			
4	Work Life Integration	.672**	.695**	.682**	1		
5	Organizational Culture	.649**	.640**	.765**	.627**	1	
6	Employee Engagement	.670**	.721**	.699**	.748**	.627**	1

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

Career Development and Employee Engagement

The correlation matrix from table 4.17 revealed that the predictor variable career development was found to have a positive moderate significant ($r=0.670^{**}$, $p<0.01$) influence on the computed variable of employee engagement measured by intellectual, social, and affective engagements. Thus, the results suggested that an increase in career development will automatically increase employee engagement. As a result, this study can conclude that career development through career plans, career progression, and learning and development have a positive moderate significant influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

These findings were supported by Nguyen and Pham (2020); Opadeyim and Akpa (2021) who advocated that investing in employee training and career development is essential for employee engagement and ensures employees stick with the organization. Semwal and Dhyani (2017) consistently noted that the organization's career development prospects notably contribute to all the components of employee engagement more than the support provided by training initiatives alone. Similarly, Mwangi and Gachunga (2016) shared these views advocating that organizations must provide training for new employees and help develop the present employees through an efficient career system.

Job Design and Employee Engagement

The correlation matrix in table 4.17 (findings) revealed that the link between job design and employee engagement was a positive, strong correlation, having $r=0.721^{**}$ at $p < 0.01$. Therefore, the obtained results suggest that an increase in job design will automatically increase employee engagement. As a result, this study can conclude that job design has a positive, strong significant influence on employee engagement.

These results concur with the findings of Albrecht, Green and Marty (2021); Han, Sung and Suh (2021), Morgeson and Humphrey (2006): Rai and Maheshwari (2020), who noted that these five job attributes; task identity, skill variety, autonomy, task significance, and

feedback not only increase employee engagement but also affect employee behavior stemming from reduced burn-out and work-associated stress, high employee performance, high job involvement, organizational commitment, employee satisfaction, absenteeism, and low turnover rates.

Work Environment and Employee Engagement

Employee engagement was significantly and positively influenced by the work environment as shown in Table 4.17 ($r=0.699^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). Thus the results suggested that an increase in work environment will lead to an automatic increase in employee engagement. Therefore, this study can conclude that the work environment positively and significantly influences employee engagement.

These results concur with the findings from previous research. For instance, Liu and Lo, (2018) opined that a conducive physical workplace environment augments employees' engagement. Connecting this view, Rasool, Wang, Tang, Saeed, and Iqbal (2023); Sitopu, Sitinjak, and Marpaung (2021) did find that a favourable physical workplace environment impacts employee engagement and has a bearing on their alliance with colleagues, absenteeism, well-being, error rate level, innovativeness, stress and burnout and turnover rate. In the same stratum, Kiiru and Kiiru (2022) posit that recognizing a better physical workplace environment is assumed to affect employees' behavioural or psychological in that comfortable employee who concentrate and connect better to their work roles are more productive.

Work Life Integration and Employee Engagement

Work-life integration had a strong, positive influence on employee engagement, according to the correlation matrix data from table 4.17, with the highest contribution of variance being ($r=0.748^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). Thus the obtained results suggested that an increase in work-life integration activities will lead to an automatic increase in employee

engagement, as indicated in table 4.17. Therefore, this study can conclude that work-life integration positively and strongly influences employee engagement.

The findings were supported by Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary and Scarparo, (2015) who noted that managers use work-life integration to sustain employee engagement by coordinating a balance between obligations related to work and non-work. In corroboration with the view, Andeyo and Egessa (2021); Bal and De Lange (2015); Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019); Shockley and Allen (2015) estimated that workplace versatility decreases turnover intentions, inspires loyalty, serves as a motivator and increased work place vigor. Pirzadeh and Lingard (2021) advocate that inappropriate work-life balance fuels anxiety, despair, and stress, which generally decreases employee engagement.

Similarly, Darko-Asumadu, Sika-Bright, and Osei-Tutu (2018) agree that there is a need to balance work responsibilities and non-work activities to ameliorate engagement to work, arguing that more participation in the job leads to less time for social activities reducing commitment to work, whereas spending more time with family than work can lead to absenteeism and labour turnover among employees. Oludayo *et al.* (2018) argue that without successful management balance between workers' jobs and non-work roles, adverse employee behavioural outcomes correlated with conflict, tension, and job dissatisfaction in multiple roles can arise.

Organization Culture and Employee Engagement

Additionally, Table 4.17 demonstrated a linear, positive moderate ($r=0.627^{**}$, $p < 0.01$) association between organizational culture and employee engagement. This implies that organizational culture can predict employee engagement in a direct manner as well. These findings are in line with earlier research on organizational culture and employee engagement.

For instance, Sarala and Vaara (2020) reckoned that a positive organizational culture can lead to increased employee engagement, productivity, and satisfaction which result in lower employee turnover rates, more innovation, and improved financial performance. Pepra-mensah and Kyeremeh (2018) found out that organizational culture positively correlates with the employee engagement contributing to a high degree of dedication. In corroboration with this view, Bush (2018) advocates that strong organizational culture is crucial to the triumph of organizations, and it affects many essential factors such as quality of work life, performance, a high rate of revenue growth, employee retention, innovation, resilience, agility, customer service, and employee engagement.

4.6.2 Simple Linear Regression Analysis

The study additionally performed a simple linear regression analysis by fixing the linear regression models for the data. Simple linear regression analysis was administered for each of the independent variables on employee engagement. This was done on purpose to examine the level of influence that each relational reward had on engagement of employee and the model's overall goodness of fit. It attested to the connection between the predictor and the predicted variables and their power highlighted using the coefficient of determination (R^2). Further, it allowed the estimation of how a predicted variable changes as the predictor variable(s) change (Bevans, 2022). The attained results were discussed as per the specific variable.

Career Development on Employee Engagement

The study carried out a simple linear regression analysis to examine the quantity of variance of career development as a predictor variable on employee engagement and its measures (intellectual, social and affective). For the specific nature of effect to be established, the predictor variable of career development was regressed with employee engagement and the results presented in tables 4.18 and expound thereof:

The simple regression equation model given was;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where; Y is employee engagement, β_0 is the intercept term, β_1 is regression coefficient to be estimated, X_1 is career development and ε is the error term.

Table 4.18: Career Development on Employee Engagement

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			
						F	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.670 ^a	.449	.447	.38475	.449	270.574	1	332	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Career Development

Table 4.18 indicated the variation in employee engagement as explained by the independent variable career development. The simple regression analysis capitulates a coefficient R-value of 0.670 and $R^2 = 0.449$. This implies that 44.9 percent of the total variation in the dependent variable (employee engagement) can be explained by career development. The remaining could be elucidated by other variables, not in this model. Moreover, the adjusted R square (.447) also attempts to create a more candid value that estimates the entire population's R square at 44.7 percent. Similarly, the outcome in Table 4.18 indicated the F test value of $F (df = 1) = 270.574$, P-value ($0.000 < 0.01$), which was large enough to underpin the model's goodness of fit in elaborating the variation in employee engagement. This substantiates the effectiveness of career development as a predictor variable on employee engagement in the public health sector.

Further, table 4.18 revealed that career development positively and significantly influences employee engagement ($r=0.670^{**}$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who are satisfied with the diverse supported learning programs and equal career progression opportunities offered by the public health sector will also display high levels of employee

engagement. These findings are in corroboration with the research by Jia-Jun and Huaming (2022) who reckoned that investing in employee training and career growth minimizes the rate of employees leaving the organization and is considered crucial for employee engagement. Furthermore, Opadeyim and Akpa (2021) advocates that career development has a positive and significant impact on employee engagement. Similarly, Kim and Park, (2020) revealed an association between management support and job satisfaction and commitment.

Table 4.19: Regression Coefficients of Career Development

		Coefficients ^a				
		Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients			
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.799	.126		14.308	.000
	Career Development	.573	.035	.670	16.449	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

The regression model estimated from this variable was:

$$\hat{Y} = 1.799 + 0.573X_1 \dots \dots \dots \text{Model (1)}$$

The model (1) equation was translation to signify that a direct link exist between career development and employee engagement. The computed career development scores also had an unstandardized coefficients β value of 0.670 and a t-test value of 16.449 at a significance level of $p < 0.01$. The outcomes in Table 4.19 further revealed that the t-value is greater than +1.96; therefore, the regression model obtained is significant and viable. Further, with a P-value (0.000) < 0.01 , it insinuates that for every 1 per cent rise in career development, there was a predicted 0.670 unit rise in employee engagement. After realizing the objective hypothesis, the study rejected the null hypothesis, that;

Ho1: Career development has no significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Job Design on Employee Engagement

The study conducted a simple linear regression analysis to determine the quantity of variance; the specific type of influence of job design (predictor variable) on employee engagement (composite variable). The results obtained were presented in Tables 4.20 and explained thereof:

The simple regression equation model given was;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Where; Y is employee engagement, β_0 is the intercept term, β_2 is regression coefficient to be estimated, X_2 is job design and ε is the error term.

Table 4.20: Job Design on Employee Engagement

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.721 ^a	.520	.518	.35929	.520	358.966	1	332	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Design

Table 4.20 describes the results of the regression analysis output for the (predictor variable) job design against the (predicted variable) employee engagement. The results capitulate a coefficient R-value of 0.721 and R^2 of 0.520, implying that 52% of the total variation in employee engagement can be elucidated by job design. The remaining (48%) could be described by other variables, not in the model. Moreover, the adjusted R square (.518) also attempts to create a more candid value that estimates the entire population's R square at 51.8 percent Nevertheless, the F-test statistic generated a value F (df = 1) =358.966, P value (0.000) < 0.01, which was enough to reinforce the goodness of fit of the regression model in its explanation of the variation in the predicted variable (employee

engagement). The implication of the results is that job design predicts employee engagement in the public health sector.

Similarly, Table 4.20 indicated a significant and positive strong correlation ($r=0.721^{**}$, $p<0.01$) between job design and employee engagement. This implies that employees who experience higher satisfaction levels of the job characteristics; job identity, skill variety, and autonomy also tend to have higher satisfaction levels of engagement. The findings in this study supported other studies carried out formerly. For example, Albrecht, Green, and Marty (2021) in their research on meaningful work, job resource and employee engagement indicated that Job resources (job variety, autonomy and development opportunities) have an impact on employee engagement. Salanova *et al.* (2005) found out that those occupations that require employees to apply a variety of skills and abilities make them believe that what they are doing is more meaningful relative to those in simple and routine employment, increasing their engagement. On the other hand, Rai and Maheshwari (2020) shared this opinion suggesting that a well-designed job detects an employee's positive behaviour and attitude while they were working, leading to engagement.

Permata and Mangundjaya (2021) concluded that employees who are given the autonomy of work would exhibit more engagement and later will want to manifest proactive work behaviour. Therefore, employers need to provide employees with opportunities to learn, develop, and be responsible for providing job autonomy to encourage the exhibition of engagement. Muecke, Linderman-Hill, and Greenwald (2020) argue that enriching employees' job by granting them a higher degree of job autonomy makes them experience their job more challenging due to the responsibility and more chances of growth along with it. Moreover, that autonomy leads to a feeling of confidence and thereby increases employee learning and motivation.

Table 4.21: Regression Coefficients of Job Design

		Coefficients ^a				
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.579	.121		13.071	.000
	Job Design	.628	.033	.721	18.946	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

The regression model estimated from this variable was;

$$\hat{Y} = 1.579 + 0.628X_2 \dots \dots \dots \text{Model (2)}$$

The model (2) equation was translated to denote that a direct association exist between job design and employee engagement. Equivalently, the unstandardized regression coefficients β value of the computed scores of job design was 0.721 with a t-test of 18.946 and at a significance level of $P(0.000) < 0.01$. This inferred that for every 1 per cent increase in job design, there was a predicted increase of 0.721 units in the percentage of employee engagement. As a result of achieving the second objective, the research rejected the following null hypothesis:

H02: Job design has no relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Work Environment on Employee Engagement

The third objective asserted that the work environment (independent variable number three) significantly influenced employee engagement (composite variable). In order to identify the precise type of influence, the variation of predictor variable three (work environment) on the predicted variable (employee engagement) was established by regressing the two variables. Table 4.22 displays the results and their justification.

The simple regression equation model given was;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where; Y is employee engagement, β_0 is the intercept term, β_3 is regression coefficient to be estimated, X_3 is work environment and ε is the error term.

Table 4.22: Work Environment on Employee Engagement

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.699 ^a	.489	.488	.37051	.489	317.768	1	332	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Environment

The amount of variation on the predicted variable (employee engagement), as explained by the predictor variable (work environment), was indicated in Table 4.22. The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R-value of 0.699 and the R^2 of 0.489, which denoted that work environment can explain 48.9 percent of the corresponding variation in employee engagement. Additionally, 0.488, the adjusted R^2 , makes a similar effort to get a more straightforward number that calculates the R square for the entire population to be 48.8%. However, additional variables that were left out of the model might identify the remaining variation. In addition, the F change statistic gave the $F (df = 1) = 317.768$, P-value (0.000) < 0.01 , which was adequate in its support of the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the predicted variable (employee engagement).

Furthermore, the regression analysis results also revealed a positive moderate significant correlation between work environment and employee engagement ($\beta = 0.699$, $P < 0.01$). This insinuated that employees, who experience high satisfaction levels of work environment measures, may also manifest high satisfaction levels of engagement. Previous research has demonstrated that the work environment is a component that may be utilized to assess each employee's level of engagement within the organization. (Gaudie, 2020; Sitopu, Sitinjak, & Marpaung, 2021; Pallawagau, 2021). Mohda, Shaha, and Zailan (2016) researched the factors that affected employee engagement in a

telecommunications organization in Kuala Lumpur. The findings showed a strong link between a favourable work environment and employee engagement ($r=.711$, $p < 0.01$). Further, the study concluded that apart from the good work environment, it also ought to be free for the employee to contribute their effort to the organization. Thus, a conducive work environment positively affects employees by enhancing their commitment, motivation, satisfaction, and engagement in their job.

Table 4.23: Regression Coefficients of Work Environment

		Coefficients ^a				
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.748	.119		14.691	.000
	Work Environment	.591	.033	.699	17.826	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

The regression model estimated from this variable was;

$$\hat{Y} = 1.748 + 0.591X_3 \dots \dots \dots \text{Model (3)}$$

The model (3) equation was translated to convey that a direct connection exist between work environment and employee engagement. Comparably, the unstandardized regression coefficients β value of the computed scores of the work environment was 0.699 with a t-test of 17.826 and at a significance level of $p < 0.01$. This concluded that for every 1 per cent rise in the work environment, there was a predicted rise of 0.669 units in employee engagement. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis, having achieved the third objective, that;

H03: The work environment has no relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Work Life Integration on Employee Engagement

The fourth objective envisioned that work-life integration had a major effect on employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector. The amount of variation in the work-life integration (predictor variable) on the (Predicted variable) employee engagement was found by regressing the two variables to establish the specific nature of the influence. The outcome obtained was presented in Tables 4.24, which were clarified.

The simple regression equation model given was;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

Where; Y is employee engagement, β_0 is the intercept term, β_4 is regression coefficient to be estimated, X_4 is work life integration and ε is the error term.

Table 4.24: Work Life Integration on Employee Engagement

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.748 ^a	.559	.558	.34416	.559	421.068	1	332	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Life Integration

Table 4.24 presents the results on the quantity of variation attained on the composite dependent variable (employee engagement) as explained by the predictor variable (work-life integration). The regression analysis yielded the coefficient R-value of 0.748 and the R^2 of 0.559, which meant that 55.9 % of the corresponding variation in employee engagement could be explained by work-life integration. In addition, the rest of the variance could be spelled out by other variables not included in the multiple regression models. Moreover, the adjusted R square (.558) also attempts to create a more candid value that estimates the entire population's R square at 55.8 percent which shows the penalty for adding more repressors.

Consistently, the F change value of $F(df = 1) = 421.068$, P-value $(0.000) < 0.01$ derived was large enough to buttress the goodness of fit of the model in elaborating the variation in the (predicted variable) employee engagement. Thus, this cooperates with the view that work-life integration can be helpful predictor variable of employee engagement. Similarly, the regression analysis revealed a positive, strong, and significant relationship between work-life integration and employee engagement ($\beta = 0.748$, $p < 0.01$). It, therefore, implies that employees who experience a high balance between work and personal life matters (work-life integration) could also exhibit high proportional levels of employee engagement.

These findings are in line with previous study findings on the relationship between work-life integration and employee engagement (Bal & De Lange, 2015; Darko-Asumadu, Sika-Bright, and Osei-Tutu, 2018; Muna, 2021; Oludayo *et al.*, 2018; Shockley and Allen, 2015; Wijaya and Suwandana, 2022; Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary & Scarparo 2015). According to Darko-Asumadu, Sika-Bright, and Osei-Tutu (2018), having a balance between work and personal life activities increase engagement to work, arguing that spending more time with family than work can lead to absenteeism and labour turnover among employees. In contrast, more participation in the job leads to less time for social activities reducing commitment to work. Consistent with this view, Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary and Scarparo, (2015); Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019) established that managers who can balance work and non-work responsibilities could boost employee engagement and retention.

Wijaya and Suwandana (2022) opined that the better a person controls the balance between work and personal life, the better his performance when working. Their study's effect of work-life balance on performance was 0.599 with a sig.t value comparison of 0.000 less than the significant value used ($0.000 < 0.05$). This statistic showed a strong and positive association between work-life balance and employee engagement in increasing performance. Muna (2021) researched on the impact of the three elements of work-life balance on job satisfaction. Using a standard multiple regression model, the results indicated that the overall model was a statistically significant predictor of Job satisfaction,

F (3,496) = 66.158, p = .000. Nonetheless, Oludayo *et al.* (2018) argue that negative employee behavioural outcomes correlated with conflict, tension, and job dissatisfaction in several roles can arise without victorious management balance between workers' job and non-work roles. Similarly, that employee will exhibit workplace vigor where managers apply flexible strategies for handling personal and job requirements (Bal & De Lange, 2015).

Table 4.25: Regression Coefficients of WORK Life Integration

		Coefficients ^a				
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.659	.108		15.386	.000
	Work Life Integration	.608	.030	.748	20.520	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

The regression model estimated from this variable was;

$$\hat{Y} = 1.659 + 0.608X_4 \dots \dots \dots \text{Model (4)}$$

The model (4) equation was interpreted to convey that a direct association exist between work life integration and employee engagement. Equally, the results obtained in Table 4.25 disclosed that the unstandardized regression coefficients β value of the computed (composite index) work-life balance scores was 0.748 with a t-test of 20.520 at a significance level of P-value (0.000) < 0.01. This implied that for every 1 percent increase in work-life integration, there was a predicted increase of 0.748 units in employee engagement. As a result, the study rejected the null hypothesis, having achieved the fourth objective that;

Ho4; Work-life integration does not have any relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

4.6.3 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

The main objective of the study was to investigate how Relational Rewards affected employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector. To determine the specific nature of the influence, relational rewards (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) were jointly regressed as predictor variables with the composite index of employee engagement as the predicted variable. The raw regression equation model given was;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

Where X_1 is Career Development

X_2 is Job Design

X_3 is Work Environment

X_4 is Work Life Integration

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$, are regression coefficient to be estimated.

ε is the error term in the multiple equations

β_0 is the intercept term that is common to all the factors

The model summary results are presented in table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Relational Rewards on Employee Engagement

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.818 ^a	.669	.664	.29987	.669	165.738	4	329	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Life Integration, Career Development, Work Environment, Job Design

Table 4.26 shows the variation obtained on the composite predicted variable (employee engagement) as explained by the composite predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration). The regression analysis bore the

coefficient R-value of 0.818 and the R^2 of 0.669, which meant that relational rewards could explain 66.9 per cent of the correlating variation in employee engagement. In addition, the adjusted R square (.664) attempts to give a more truthful value that estimates the R square for the whole population at 66.4 per cent. Similarly, the regression analysis results further shows a positive, strong significant relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement ($\beta = 0.818$, P-value (0.000) < 0.01). Equally, it implies that employees, who encounter high levels of relational rewards, can similarly manifest high levels of employee engagement. Thus, this model was established to be significant and fit for the study as expressed more in the regression coefficient table in 4.28.

These findings collaborate with previous study findings on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement (Agbenyegah, 2019; Dagne, 2018; Habib, Manzoor, Khalil & Jamal, 2017; Joshi, 2016; Msisiri & Juma, 2017). For instant, Joshi, (2016) posits that relational rewards create a fulfilling work environment as a strapping and supple tool for motivating employees to achieve higher performance. Similarly, Msisiri and Juma (2017) advocate that appreciation of employees, employee work-life balance, continuous improvement of the working environment, and recognition correlate with employee retention. In support of this view, Dagne, (2018) coined that a supportive work environment, learning and development, employee recognition, and job autonomy were important components of employee retention.

Further, Agbenyegah, (2019) reckoned that opportunities for career development, job promotion, training, and involvement affect employee engagement. Whereas a study by Habib, Manzoor, Khalil, and Jamal (2017) on the evaluation of the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement using doctors, paramedical staff, and nurses as the study participants, the ANOVA results indicate that the model of the study was significant with a p-value of less than 0.05. The correlation was also backed by the F-test value (11.036), showing a significant relationship between dependent and independent variables.

Table 4.27: ANOVA

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	59.614	4	14.903	165.738	.000 ^b
	Residual	29.584	329	.090		
	Total	89.198	333			

a. Dependent Variable: EE

b. Predictors: (Constant), WLI, CD, WE, JD

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results presented in Table 4.27 indicated that the independent variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) jointly had a significant relationship with the dependent variable (employee engagement), with a p-value (.000) < 0.01 and F (df = 4) = 165.738. This was large enough to underpin the goodness of fit of the model in explaining the variation in the composite dependent variable (employee engagement) by relational rewards. It also indicates that with a p-value of less than 0.01, there is less than a 1 in 1000 chance that a flat line could explain the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement. Therefore, this supports the view that relational rewards are useful predictor variables of employee engagement.

Table 4.28: Multiple Regression Coefficients for Relational Rewards

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.041	.111		9.338	.000
	Career Development	.130	.041	.152	3.217	.001
	Job Design	.207	.045	.237	4.564	.000
	Work Environment	.160	.043	.189	3.749	.000
	Work Life Integration	.286	.040	.351	7.066	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

The results realized in Table 4.28 indicate the unstandardized regression coefficients β values of the computed (composite index) scores of relational rewards as Career development (0.152), job design (0.237), work environment (0.189), and Work-life integration (0.351). These coefficients indicated the fitted model with the inclusion of the constant (beta zero). Thus, the estimated model was given by:

$$\hat{Y} = 1.041 + 0.130X_1 + 0.207X_2 + 0.160X_3 + 0.286X_4 \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

Cohen and Cohen (1983) recommended that in establishing how useful the predictor variables could be, the t- values should be greater than +1.96 or less than -1.96. A small p-value and a large t-value on either side suggest that the predictor variable contributes significantly to the dependent variable to support the regression model as fit and applicable. The results realized in Table 4.28 indicated the t-values of (career development) t=3.217, (job design) t=4.564, (work environment) t=3.749, and (work-life integration) t=7.066. This revealed that all the t-values were within the range, and as a result, the variables were found to be significant predictors of employee engagement since all of them had p-values of less than 0.01. Accordingly, this shows that increasing the provision of relational rewards would lead to increased employee engagement with the given t- values. Thus, having achieved the objective, the study rejected the null hypothesis that:

H0: Relational rewards have no significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

These findings are inconsistent with research by Anitha (2014), who posited that elements influencing employee engagement that can be considered part of the relational rewards bundle included career development, work-life integration, working environment, team and co-worker relationship, and leadership. In their research, Victor and Hoole (2017) indicated that relational rewards were important factors in predicting trust and employee engagement. Similarly, Opadeyim and Akpa (2021) have shared these views, advocating

that investing in employee training and career growth is essential for employee engagement.

Chiekezie and Nseodo (2015) observed a positive correlation between job design and employee engagement in Nigeria's selected Manufacturing companies, with skill variety and work autonomy having a firmly positive link with employee engagement. Equally, Kariuki and Makori (2015), in their research on the role of job design on employee engagement at the Presbyterian University of East Africa in Kenya, established that task identity, feedback, skill variety, and task significance notably and firmly affected employee engagement.

Various scholars have researched the workplace environment as a factor that predicts employee engagement (Madu, Asawo & Gabriel, 2017). Agusra, Febrina, Lussianda and Susanti (2021) opined that a favourable workplace environment assures employee comfort and expedites the effort of energy towards job tasks, which converts to higher performance and engagement. Managers use work-life integration to sustain employee engagement by coordinating a balance between obligations related to work and non-work (Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary & Scarparo, 2015; Badia, Gichinga, & Kising'u, 2023).

The study, by extension, sought to fill the knowledge gap by conducting a comparative analysis to discern the differences between groups (Doctors and Nurses) on employee engagement and demographics. The following null hypothesis was formulated to test for the differences.

Ho: There is no significant difference in employee engagement between the Doctors and Nurses.

The results were obtained in table 4.29 and 4.30 below.

Table 4.29: Difference in Employee Engagement between Doctors and Nurses

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Employee EngagementE		Minimum	Maximum
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Doctor	60	3.7556	.42015	.05424	3.6470	3.8641	3.00	4.44
Nurse	274	3.8552	.53553	.03235	3.7915	3.9189	1.44	4.89
Total	334	3.8373	.51755	.02832	3.7816	3.8930	1.44	4.89

Table 4.29 results showed that nurses had a mean of 3.85 with a standard deviation of 0.535, while doctors had a mean of 3.75 with a standard deviation of 0.420. Similarly doctors were 60 in number compared with nurses who were 274 in number.

Table 4.30: ANOVA for the Difference in EE between Doctors and Nurses

ANOVA					
Employee Engagement					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.489	1	.489	1.830	.177
Within Groups	88.709	332	.267		
Total	89.198	333			

There was no statistically significant difference in employee engagement between and within the groups (Doctors and Nurses), according to the analysis of variance (ANOVA) results in Table 4.30 with $F(df = 1) = 1.830$ and p-value (.177) 0.05. The study therefore accepts the null hypothesis, which is that:

Ho: There is no difference in employee engagement between Doctors and Nurses.

Control Variables in the Moderating Influence of Organizational Culture

Control variables form a central component of the research design of any empirical study (Nielsen & Raswant, 2018). Including control variables in human resource management studies allows for sharing of variance between the variables and independent variable which increase the magnitude of a regression coefficient R^2 and reduce the error terms

(MacKinnon *et al.*, 2000). Research done by Becker *et al.* (2015) indicated that control variables provided for internal validity of inferences made about cause and effect.

This study included gender, age bracket, years worked, education levels, and work area as control variables. The reason is that the variables are closely linked to the elements of relational rewards which contribute to employee engagement (Mukanzi *et al.*, 2014). Gender was measured by the nominal variable where (1) was designated for males and (2) for females. To measure the age bracket, the study used a continuous scale and categorized it into four; (1) for 20-29, (2) for ranging 30-39, (3) for ages between 40-49, and (4) for above 50 years. Similarly, years worked were measured using a continuous scale and equally categorized into four: (1) less than one year, (2) 1-2 years, (3) 3-5 years, and (4) above 5 years. Further, education level was measured using the same scale whereby (1) was designated for holders of Ph.D., (2) for master's degrees, (3) for those with bachelor's degrees (4) was designated for diplomas, and (5) was for certificate holders. The work area was measured by dichotomous variables where (1) was designated for doctors and (2) for nurses.

4.6.4 Moderation Relationship

The study also sought to determine the moderating influence of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement. To investigate this moderation, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Hierarchical analysis help in controlling for the effects of individual differences thought to be related to the predicted variable (Nyikuli *et al.*, 2017). Hence, the predicted variable (employee engagement) was kept in raw form. In contrast, the independent variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) and the moderator (organization culture) were mean-centered and standardized to aid in model interpretation of the simple effects of independent variable (Hayes, Glym, & Huge, 2012).

After that, the interaction terms were created by multiplying the mean-centered independent variables and the moderator. Further, several multiple regression analyses

were carried out using the mean-centered predictor and moderator values against the predicted variable (hierarchical regression). The hierarchical regression analysis first sought to determine the influence of control variables (age and years worked) on the predicted variable (employee engagement), followed by a series of other steps, as indicated in Table 4.31. After that, the interaction plots were generated to confirm whether there was an interaction between the variables at different levels of moderation after carrying out hierarchical regression. Eventually, the study also conducted a step-wise regression analysis to determine each independent variable's incremental contribution to the dependent variable's variance.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Model 1 involved two standardized individual demographic variables of age and years worked, which were determined as control variables in the first step. Wambua and Karanja (2016) posited that age affects employee engagement because when employees grow older, they tend to stay in their current organizations much longer, grow their careers and end up being rewarded better. Similarly, Sinurat, Berampu, and Alfifto (2021) posited that years worked (employee experience) influence employee engagement. That is, experience enables an employee to have fun at work which builds trust between employers and employees. It helps employees enjoy work assignments, allows them to redesign job characteristics, and permits organizations to create better workplaces. Thus, it was important to determine them as control variables.

Model 2 involved the addition of all predictor variables as the second step. The variables were entered after being mean-centered to reduce the potential of multi-collinearity trouble from the moderation analysis. This also ensured that the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) scores were below 10.0 (Chauhan *et al.*, 2017). Model 3 involved the addition of the moderating variable (mean-centered scores of organizational culture) as the third step. Model 4 was obtained by adding all interaction terms (moderating variable and products of mean-centered predictors) as the fourth step. The hierarchical raw regression summary model given was;

$$Y = \alpha + \beta x + \beta m + \beta x \cdot m + \varepsilon$$

Where;

Y = Dependent Variable

α = Constant

β = regression coefficient to be estimated

x = Independent Variables

m = Moderator (Organizational Culture)

ε = Error Term.

Table 4.31: Hierarchical Regression Model

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.185 ^a	.034	.028	.51013	.034	5.879	2	331	.003
2	.819 ^b	.670	.664	.29994	.636	157.617	4	327	.000
3	.820 ^c	.672	.663	.30025	.000	.332	1	326	.005
4	.832 ^d	.692	.682	.29183	.022	5.769	4	322	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Years Worked

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Years Worked, career development, job design, work environment, work life integration

c. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Years Worked, career development, work environment, work life integration, job design, organizational culture

d. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Years Worked, career development, work environment, work life integration, job design, organizational culture, work life integration*organizational culture, job design*organizational culture, work environment* organizational culture, career development* organizational culture

The results in Model 1 from Table 4.31 showed that the two demographic variables clasped as control variables were positive and weakly correlated with employee engagement ($r = .185, p < 0.01$). Nevertheless, although the model was significant ($p < 0.01$), it could only explain 3.4% of the variance in the predicted variable (employee

engagement). In the second step, the standardized z scores (mean-centered) of four independent variables were added to model 1 to obtain model 2, as indicated in Table 4.31. Equally, all four independent variables were respectively positively strong and significantly related to employee engagement ($r=.819$, $p<0.01$). The R^2 value increased from .034 to .670, implying that the new model could explain 67 percent of the variance in employee engagement at $p < 0.01$. The results supported the hypothesis that relational rewards had a strong and significant influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. The results, therefore, indicated a strong and positive relationship between relational rewards (CD, JD, WE, WLI) and employee engagement ($r = .819$, $p<0.001$). Thus, model 2 was found to be statistically fit and applicable.

In the third step, organizational culture was added as a moderator to obtain model 3. The results indicated that both predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) and the moderator variable (organization culture) were jointly and significantly related to employee engagement ($r =.820$, $p<0.01$). This showed that when the demographic variables were controlled, there was a positive and statistically significant association between relational rewards (on the addition of organizational culture) and employee engagement. Accordingly, model 3 could still account for 67.2 percent of the variation in employee engagement. Model 3 was therefore, determined to be statistically appropriate and suitable.

Ultimately, in the fourth step, which was to investigate how organizational culture moderates the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya, the interaction terms of both the mean-centered predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) and moderator (organization culture) were entered in the regression model to obtain model 4. The entry caused an increase in the R^2 from .672 to .692. The findings showed that organizational culture has a positive moderate significant moderating influence on the link between relational rewards and employee engagement ($r = 0.832$, $R^2 = 0.692$, $p<0.01$). This inferred that, when moderated by organizational culture, the influence of relational

reward could now explain 69.2 per cent of the variance in employee engagement. Thus, model 4 was found to be statistically fit and applicable.

Model 4 was therefore, determined to be statistically appropriate and suitable. As a result, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis revealed that the moderating effect of organizational culture on the effects of relational rewards on employee engagement was marginally increased with the addition of interaction terms. However, it was discovered that this influence was found to be moderate and positive. Therefore, the study results concluded that organizational culture has a positive moderate moderating influence on the relationship between relational rewards used and employee engagement. Further, the study results concluded that organizational culture moderates the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement. Furthermore, the unstandardized coefficient Table 4.32 below indicated the statistically significant amount of variance in the predicted variable by the variable of interest (organizational culture) through hierarchical regression analysis after accounting for all other variables.

Table 4.32: Unstandardized Coefficients for Hierarchical Model

Model	Coefficients ^a				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Step 1: Control Variables					
(Constant)	3.647	.087		42.060	.000
Years Worked	-.005	.038	-.010	-.136	.892
Age	.095	.038	.193	2.502	.013
R=0.185, R²= 0.034, ΔR²=0.034, P = 0.003					
Step 2: Independent Variables					
(Constant)	.987	.119		8.312	.000
Career development	.126	.041	.148	3.093	.002
Job design	.206	.045	.237	4.556	.000
Work environment	.162	.043	.192	3.800	.000
Work life integration	.285	.041	.350	6.947	.000
R=0.819, R²= 0.670, ΔR²=0.636, P = 0.000					
Step 3 : Moderating Variable					
(Constant)	.983	.119		8.250	.000
Organizational culture	.024	.042	.030	1.577	.005
R=0.820, R²= 0.672, ΔR²=0.000, P = 0.005					
Step 4: Interaction terms					
(Constant)	1.614	.426		3.788	.000
Career development *organization culture	.160	.060	1.185	2.648	.008
Work environment *organization culture	.195	.051	1.463	3.839	.000
Work life integration*organization culture	-.220	.056	-1.643	-3.954	.000
Job design*organization culture	-.077	.055	-.568	-1.401	.162
R=0.832, R²= 0.692 ΔR²=0.022, P = 0.000					

a. Dependent Variable: Employee engagement

The output of a hierarchical regression analysis' unstandardized coefficients is shown in Table 4.32. Table 4.32 initial step in Model 1 showed that the link between the control variables and employee engagement was insignificant (years worked and age) with a standardized coefficient of -.010 and .193, respectively. However, when the predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) were added to create model 2, the influence of the control variable on employee engagement changed. When relational rewards (independent variables) were included and controlled, the negligible results between the control variable and employee engagement

altered, highlighting the significance of career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration.

The inclusion of mean-centered or standardized z scores of organization culture in model 3 brought a change in the significance of the work-life integration, and organizational culture indicated a significant relationship with employee engagement at a significance level of $p < 0.000$, while career development at $p < 0.01$ and work environment at $p < 0.000$. Job design remained statistically non-significant in model 3. In addition, model 4 in Table 4.32 showed that when controlled, the coefficient values of the computed (composite index) standardized scores of relational rewards (independent variables) were all significant except for job design ($p > 0.05$).

That is, work-life integration had a $p < 0.01$, work environment at $p < 0.01$, and career development was at $p < 0.01$. On the other hand, the interaction terms showed a non-significance value ($p > 0.05$) except for job design \times organization culture with employee engagement. Job design will not be part of the equation because it is not significant; that is, its P-value (.162) is greater than the alpha of 0.05. However, the coefficients are interpretable since some independent variables were significant. Therefore, from the results obtained in Table 4.32, hierarchical multiple regression model can be stated as shown:

$$\text{Employee engagement} = 1.614 + 0.160 \text{ career development} \times \text{organizational culture} + 0.195 \text{ work environment} \times \text{organizational culture} + - 0.220 \text{ work life integration} \times \text{organizational culture} \dots\dots\dots \text{Model (6)}$$

Similarly, to interpret how Organizational culture moderates the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement, regression equations were calculated at high and low levels of organizational culture for each level relationship. The regressions were run using the process model 1 method as advanced by Andrew F. Hayes on centered terms (Hayes, 2022). The resulting values obtained, which showed the interaction effects between the predictor variables (career development, job design, work environment, and

work-life integration) and the moderating variable (organization culture), were plotted on an interaction plot to help interpret the interaction. As a rule of thumb, non-parallel lines revealed an interaction because the more non-parallel the lines are, the greater the interaction. The output results of these equations were plotted graphically and presented in figures 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9, respectively.

According to the results in Table 4.32, there was a significant interaction effect of organizational culture on the correlation between career development and employee engagement at ($= 1.185, p 0.01$). However, the organizational culture offered by the public health sector was a prerequisite for the relationship between career development (predictor variable) and employee engagement (predicted variable). As a result, figure 4.6 in the public health sector shows how moderation affects the relationship between career growth and employee engagement.

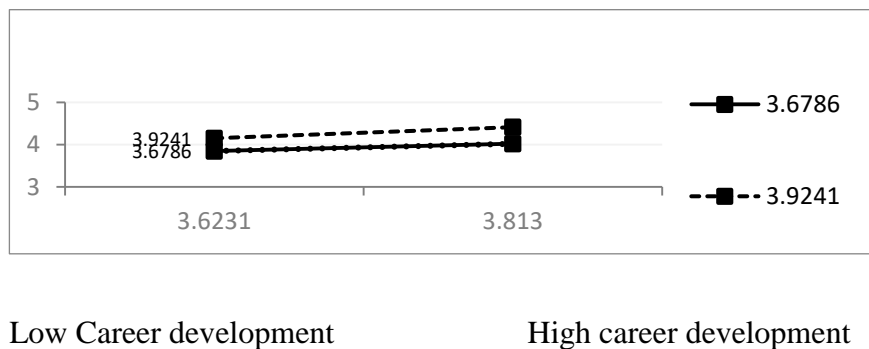
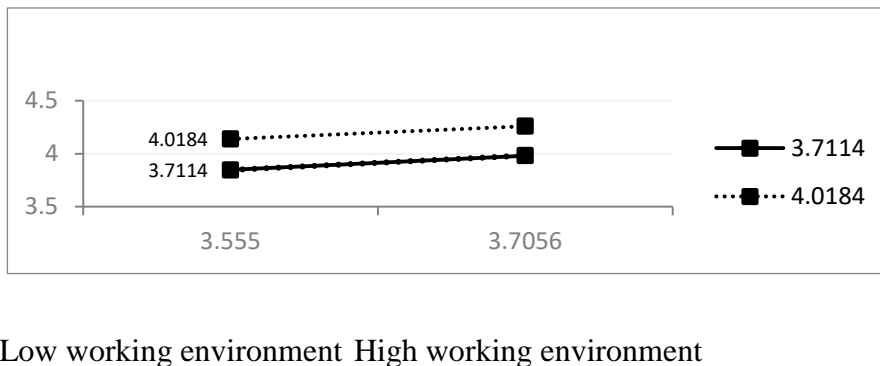


Figure 4.6: Career Development and Organization Culture Interaction

The results in figure 4.6 indicated that the relationship between career development and employee engagement was relatively high when the organizational culture was high. In contrast, career development was found to have a weak positive influence on employee engagement when the organizational culture was low. Therefore, organizational culture was found to have a moderating influence on the relationship between career development and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Further, Table 4.32 indicated the interaction effect of organizational culture between work environment and employee engagement ($\beta = 1.463, p < 0.01$). This also demonstrated that there was a correlation between the work environment and employee engagement contingent on the level of organization culture practiced. The nature of the moderation influence was presented in figure 4.7:



Low working environment High working environment

Figure 4.7: Work Environment and Organization Culture Interaction

According to the results shown in figure 4.7, there was a strong correlation between the work environment and employee engagement when organizational culture is strong. The work environment, on the other hand, was found to have a weakly positive effect on employee engagement when the organizational culture was low. As a result, it was found that organizational culture in Kenya's public health sector had a moderating effect on the relationship between the work environment and employee engagement.

Work-life integration and employee engagement were shown to interact with organizational culture in Table 4.32 ($= -1.643, p 0.01$). This demonstrated that the degree of organizational culture practiced was a factor in the relationship between work-life integration and employee engagement. The nature of the moderation influence was presented in figure 4.8:

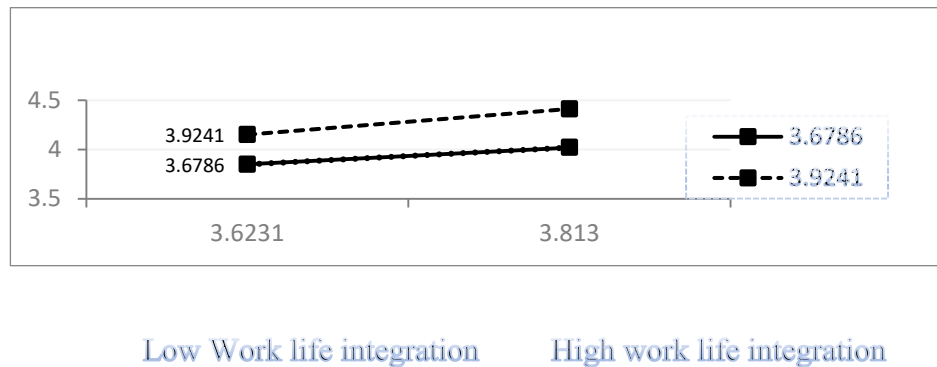


Figure 4.8: Work Life Integration and Organization Culture Interaction

According to the findings in figure 4.8, there was a strong association between work-life integration and employee engagement when organizational culture is high. Work-life integration was found to have a weakly favorable effect on employee engagement when organizational culture was low. Therefore, it was discovered that organizational culture in Kenya's public health sector had a moderating effect on the link between work-life integration and employee engagement.

Additionally, Table 4.32 showed how organizational culture interacted with job design and employee engagement ($= -.568, p=.162$). This demonstrated that the degree of organizational culture practiced was a factor in the relationship between job design and employee engagement. Figure 4.9 illustrates the moderating influence's nature.

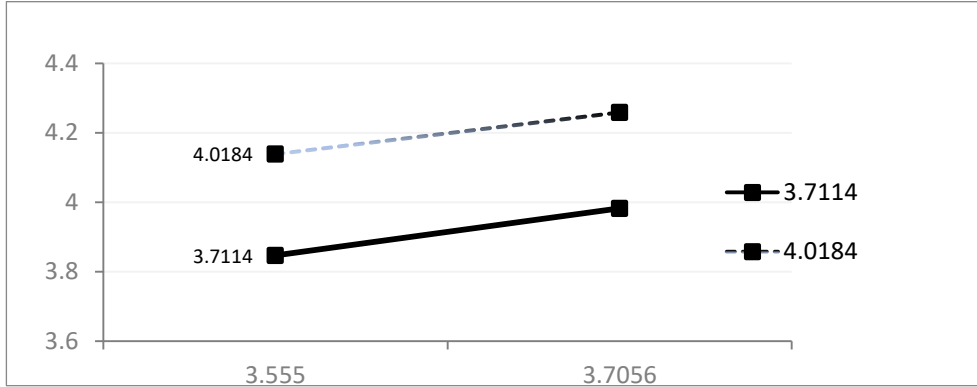


Figure 4.9: Job Design and Organization Culture Interaction

According to the findings shown in figure 4.9, there was a strong correlation between job design and employee engagement when the organizational culture is strong. Job design, on the other hand, was found to have a weakly positive effect on employee engagement when organizational culture was low. As a result, it was found that organizational culture in Kenya's public health sector had a moderating effect on the link between job design and employee engagement. This provided evidence in favor of the hypothesis that organizational culture modifies the link between relational rewards and employee engagement.

Step-wise Regression Analysis

In order to ascertain how organizational culture gradually influences the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement, step-wise regression was used in the second multiple regression model. Moreover, the analysis was done to determine which independent variables (between career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) may have had the weakest contribution to variance in employee engagement. The output results are presented in Table 4.33:

Table 4.33: Step-Wise Regression Model

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.185 ^a	.034	.031	.50938	.034	11.774	1	332	.001
2	.748 ^b	.560	.557	.34444	.526	395.114	1	331	.000
3	.799 ^c	.638	.635	.31288	.078	71.137	1	330	.000
4	.811 ^d	.658	.654	.30434	.021	19.786	1	329	.000
5	.818 ^e	.669	.664	.30005	.011	10.476	1	328	.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, work life integration

c. Predictors: (Constant), Age, work life integration, job design

d. Predictors: (Constant), Age, work life integration, job design, work environment

e. Predictors: (Constant), Age, work life integration, job design, work environment, career development

Step-wise regression output standard elements are shown in Table 4.33 with five models. Age (control variable) was entered first in the first model since it was found to have significantly impacted the variance in employee engagement. The other control variable (years worked) was deleted from the model at this stage because of its insignificant input to the predicted variable. Thus, the first age model indicated that the R² for model 1 was .034, suggesting that age could explain 3.4 percent of the variance in employee engagement at this point. With a p-value < 0.01, this model was found to be significant at a 99% confidence level. In addition, the F change statistic of F (df =1) =11.774, P-value (.001) < 0.01) also indicated that the model was significant at 0.01. Therefore, this model was found to be applicable and fit.

Further, the second model added the work-life integration variable to model 1 first as it was found to have had the highest contribution to the variance in employee engagement, as shown in Table 4.33. This increased the influence on employee engagement to 56.0 percent, an increase of 52.6 percent in variance to the predicted variable. The p-value was established at 0.000, which was less than 0.01. Therefore, model 2 was significant and

applicable since the F change statistic was also significant $F (df =1) =395.114$, P-value $(.000) < 0.01$.

Additionally, the third model added a job design variable to the model whose contribution to the variance in employee engagement came second. This increased the influence on employee engagement by 7.8 percent to 63.8 percent in variance to the dependent variable. The p-value was also established at $(p\text{-value} < 0.01)$, which was less than 0.01. Hence, model 3 was found to be significant, fit, and applicable since the F change statistic was also significant $F (df = 1) =71.137$, P-value $(.000) < 0.01$. Similarly, model 4 was attained by adding work environment to model 3 variables. This inclusion raised the R^2 value from 0.638 to 0.658. Further, this suggested that combining work-life integration, job design, and work environment could explain 65.8 per cent of the variance in employee engagement. Model 4 was also significant with a p-value = 0.000 at a 99 per cent confidence level. Based on the F change $F (df =1) =19.786$, P-value $(.000) < 0.01$ statistic in table 4.33, the fourth model was found to fit and applicable.

Further, the fifth model was generated by adding the career development variable to the model 4 variables with the rest of the interaction terms removed from the model. This undertaking increased the R^2 value by 0.669, which implied that jointly, the four predictor variables could explain 66.9 per cent of the variance in the predicted variable (employee engagement). Correspondingly, this model was significant at a p value= of $0.001 < 0.01$, while the F change statistic of $F (df =1) =10.476$, P-value $(.001) < 0.01$ indicated that the model was significant and applicable. This confirms that organizational culture slightly enhanced the moderating influence on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement.

Saunders *et al.* (2014) posited that step-wise regression performs multiple regressions severally and at each time, removing the weakest correlated variable. From the output one, the moderating variable (organizational culture) was removed together with all the interaction terms of Career development \times organizational culture, Job design \times organizational culture, Work environment \times organizational culture, and work-life

integration \times organizational culture. Further, the five variables were discarded, and the step-wise analysis was repeated. Consistently, the results achieved were indistinguishable from those obtained earlier in Table 4.33. This implied that the moderating variable used had the least influence on the variance in employee engagement and, therefore, had a moderate significance on how relational rewards and employee engagement are related. However, it was discovered that organizational culture had a positive, moderately significant moderating effect on the association between relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Studies by Sarala and Vaara (2020); Schneider *et al.* (2013) supported that a strong organizational culture has extensively-shared beliefs and values that significantly affect the member's behaviours of outcomes. Further, in a diagnosis of the implications of social exchange theory and the reciprocity norms, it was found that a supportive management environment through motivational culture, feedback culture, employee involvement culture, and dialogue culture would increase employee engagement through the development of feelings of obligation that would enable them to repay the organization by giving attention to their socio-emotional needs (McBey, Karakowsky & Ng, 2017). The results obtained further produced the unstandardized coefficients summarized as shown in Table 4.34:

Table 4.34: Unstandardized Coefficients of Step-Wise Regression

Model		Coefficients									
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	1.659	.108		15.386	.000					
	WLI	.608	.030	.748	20.520	.000	.748	.748	.748	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	1.228	.110		11.117	.000					
	WLI	.388	.037	.477	10.372	.000	.748	.495	.343	.517	1.934
	JD	.339	.040	.389	8.451	.000	.721	.421	.280	.517	1.934
3	(Constant)	1.124	.110		10.227	.000					
	WLI	.326	.039	.401	8.352	.000	.748	.418	.269	.450	2.221
	JD	.245	.044	.281	5.517	.000	.721	.291	.178	.400	2.502
	WE	.188	.042	.223	4.449	.000	.699	.238	.143	.414	2.416
	(Constant)	1.041	.111		9.338	.000					
4	WLI	.286	.040	.351	7.066	.000	.748	.363	.224	.408	2.454
	JD	.207	.045	.237	4.564	.000	.721	.244	.145	.373	2.684
	WE	.160	.043	.189	3.749	.000	.699	.202	.119	.396	2.524
	CD	.130	.041	.152	3.217	.001	.670	.175	.102	.449	2.228

a. Dependent Variable: EE

The Unstandardized regression coefficients β values of the computed (composite index) scores of relational rewards and employee engagement when moderated with organizational culture were (0.748) work-life integration, (0.389) job design, (0.223) work environment, and (0.152) career development with t-test values of 20.520 (work-life integration), 8.451 (job design), 4.449 (work environment), and 3.217 (career development). All the t-values were above +1.96 and below -1.96. The p values for all the variables in table 4.34 were less than 0.01. Therefore, this study's relational rewards had a statistically significant influence on employee engagement. Similarly, Table 4.34 indicated that organizational culture had significant moderate influence on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement. The study rejected the null hypothesis, having achieved the objective that:

H0: Organizational culture has no moderating significant positive influence on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

The regression model obtained from the step-wise regression coefficients in Table 4.34 was stated as shown:

$$Y = 1.041 + 0.286X_1 + 0.207X_2 + 0.160X_3 + 0.130X_4$$

OR

Employee Engagement (predicted) = 1.041 + 0.286Work life integration + 0.207Job design + 0.160Work environment+ 0.130Career development.

4.7 Hypotheses Testing Results

The purpose of this study was to ascertain how relational rewards affected employee engagement in the in the public health sector in Kenya. To achieve the purpose of the study, five specific objectives and, afterward, five corresponding null hypotheses were formulated and tested. From the correlation and regression analysis administered in the testing, the following results were obtained:

Ho1: Career development has no significant relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

The correlation matrix's findings (table 4.17) and the tables that followed (tables 4.18 and 4.19) showed that career development and employee engagement had a positive, moderately significant association. Results showed a positive β value of 0.670, indicating a positive relationship, and as a result, as career development increases, employee engagement improves. The multiple regression's unstandardized coefficients in table 4.28 also indicate a p-value of 0.001 for career development which is less than the level of significance of 0.05 and which shows a linear correlation between career development and employee engagement. Since the p-value ($0.001 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis was rejected because there was a significant correlation between career development and employee engagement. The study concedes that there is a 0.670 unit increase in employee engagement for each increase in career development. This influence was also stated by a t- a value of 3.217, which is greater than +1.96, implying that the standard error associated

with the parameter is less than the influence of the parameter. Prior studies have also indicated that career development is significantly correlated to employee engagement (Jia-Jun & Hua-ming, 2022; Kim & Park, 2020; Opadeyim & Akpa, 2021).

H02: Job design has no relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Further, the findings obtained in the correlation matrix (table 4.17) and the linear regression Tables 4.20 and 4.21 revealed that job design strongly influences employee engagement ($\beta = 0.721$, p-value = 0.000). The multiple regression's unstandardized coefficient Tables 4.28 also indicated the p-value of 0.000 for job design and a t value of 4.564, which shows a significant influence on employee engagement at a 99 per cent confidence level. Similarly, this study rejects the null hypothesis and accepts a 0.721 unit increase in employee engagement for each increase in job design. This influence was also stated by a t- value of 18.946 from the linear regression output, implying that the standard error associated with the parameter is less than the influence of the parameter. Furthermore, past research studies have also established a significant link between job design and employee engagement (Albrecht, Green, & Marty, 2021; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Permata & Mangundjaya, 2021).

H03: The work environment has no relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Additionally, the findings presented in the correlation matrix (table 4.17) and in the linear regression Tables 4.22 and 4.23 showed that the work environment has a moderate positive correlation with employee engagement ($\beta = 0.699$, p-value = 0.000). The multiple regressions' unstandardized coefficient table 4.28 also indicated a p-value of 0.000 for the work environment and a t value of 3.749, which indicates a significant influence on employee engagement at a 99 per cent confidence level. Therefore, this study rejects the null hypothesis articulated and accepts a 0.666 unit increase in employee engagement for each improvement in the work environment. This influence was also stated by a t- value

of 17.826 from the linear regression output, suggesting that the standard error associated with the parameter is much less than the influence of the parameter itself. Additionally, a number of studies have found a positive and significant connection between work environment and employee engagement (Gaudie, 2020; Mohda, Shaha & Zailan, 2016; Sitopu, Sitinjak, & Marpaung, 2021)

Ho4: Work-life integration does not have any relationship with employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Nonetheless, the findings in table 4.17 (correlation matrix) and that in the linear regression Tables 4.24 and 4.25 respectively divulged a positive, strong, and significant relationship between work-life integration and employee engagement ($\beta = .748$, p-value = 0.000). The multiple regressions' unstandardized coefficient Table 4.28 also indicated the p-value of 0.000 for the work-life integration variable with a t value of 7.066, which indicates a considerable significant influence on employee engagement at a 0.01 significance level. As a result, the study rejects the null hypothesis and affirms that there is a 0.748 unit increase in employee engagement for each improvement in work-life integration. This influence was also disclosed by a t- a value of 20.520 from the linear regression output, which implies that the standard error correlated with the parameter is less than the influence of the parameter itself. Moreover, previous study findings have established a positive and significant relationship between work-life integration and employee engagement (Darko-Asumadu, Sika-Bright, & Osei-Tutu, 2018; Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019; Muna, 2021; Oludayo *et al.*, 2018; Shockley & Allen, 2015; Wijaya & Suwandana, 2022).

Ho5: Organizational culture has no moderating effect on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

The findings in hierarchical regression model and unstandardized coefficients presented in Tables 4.31 and 4.32 respectively, divulged that organizational culture had a positive moderate moderating influence between relational rewards and engagement of employees.

This was shown by an increase in R² value with the subsequent addition of the predictor variables, followed by the moderating variable and eventually the interaction terms. The hierarchical regression's table 4.31 further indicated p-values of 0.000, which is less than the 0.01 significance level. Thus, this study rejected the null hypothesis and equally accepted that the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement was moderated by organizational culture.

Table 4.35: A Summary of Hypotheses Testing

	Hypothesis		Beta (β) value	P value	Decision
H ₀₁ :	Career development has no relationship with employee engagement.	H _{0 1} =μ	.670	.000	Rejected
H ₀₂ :	Job design has no relationship with employee engagement.	H _{0 2} =μ	.721	.000	Rejected
H ₀₃ :	Work environment has no relationship with employee engagement.	H _{0 3} =μ	.699	.000	Rejected
H ₀₄ :	Work-life integration does not have any relationship with employee engagement.	H _{0 4} =μ	.748	.000	Rejected
H ₀₅ :	Organizational culture has no moderating effect on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement	H _{0 5} =μ	.030	.000	Rejected

4.8 Model Optimization and Revised Conceptual Framework

Given that all the variables are statistically significant, the fitting model remains the same as hypothesized in chapter 3 as;

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

A model optimization was conducted based on multiple regression results in Table 4.28. The aim of model optimization was to guide in deriving at the final model (revised

conceptual framework) where only the significant variables are incorporated for objectivity. The results of the multiple regression analyses and statistical power (R-square) of each of the predictor variable was used to derive the final model. No variable was discarded since all the variables were significant. The variables were arranged in order of their statistical power they had on the predicted variable and the results are shown in Figure 4.10.

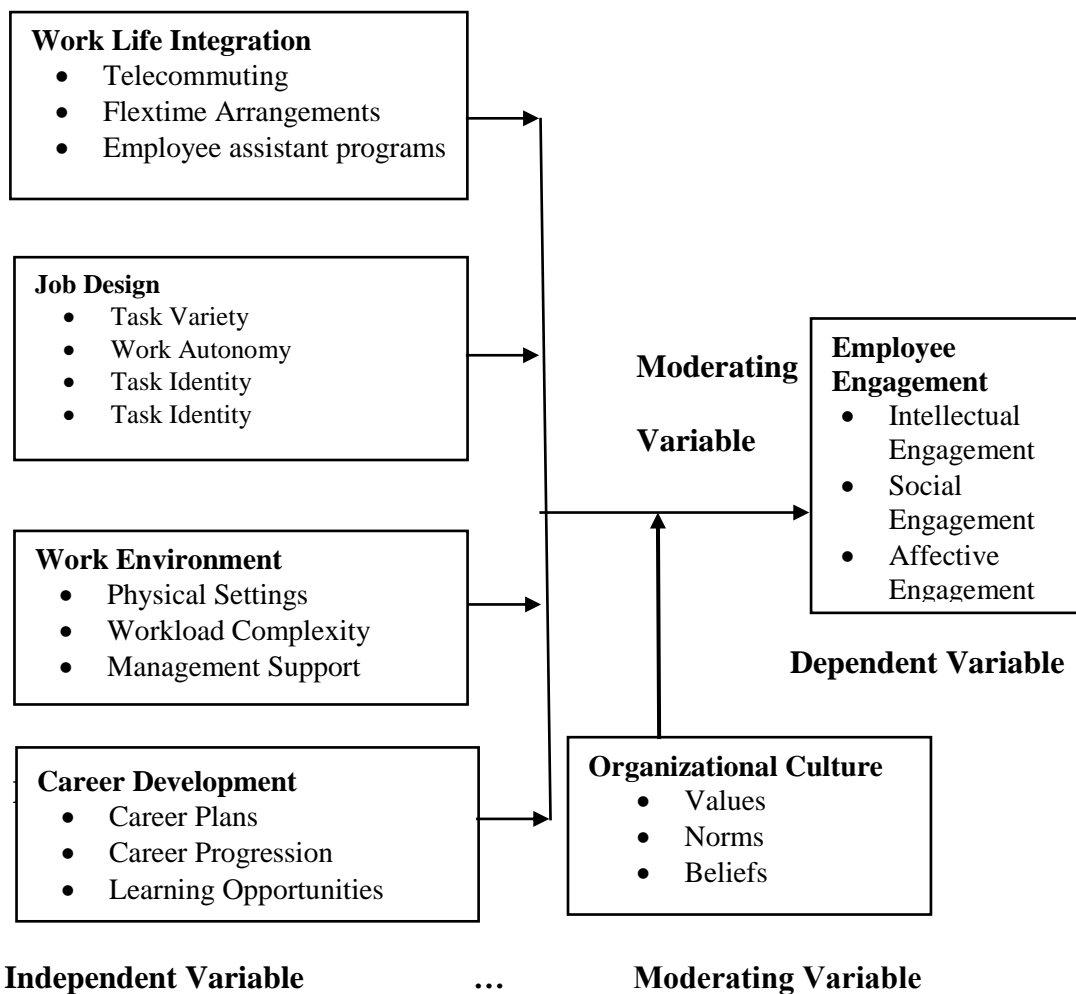


Figure 4.10: Revised Conceptual Framework

In figure 4.10, work life integration had greatest beta coefficient of 0.351 and thus having the most significant effect on employee engagement. The second highest beta coefficient

of 0.237 was for job design with the second most significant effect on employee engagement. Work environment had the third beta coefficient of 0.189 being the third relational reward that impacts employee engagement while career development was fourth and last based on its effect on employee engagement with a beta coefficient of 0.152.

The possible cause of work life integration having the highest contribution to the dependent variable was due to the flexible work arrangements which enables employees to engage in personal and family matters increasing employee engagement. Further, sharing of work enables mentorship, sharing of ideas and increased problem solving increasing employee engagement. In addition, availability of breaks in between contributes to an employee being energized stimulating engagement. Career development had the lowest contribution to the dependent variable due to the fact the doctors come in service at the pick of their career and therefore, engaging in career development activities is minimal. Similarly, the cost implication of career advancement and availability of the institutions offering career development programmes for employees of the public health sector are found majorly in cities yet some employees work in rural areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarized the findings from the collected data of both descriptive and inferential statistics regarding the specific study objectives. The chapter assessed the meaning of results by evaluating and interpreting them. Further, the chapter made conclusions on the critical findings given the observations made from demographic statistics and background information, including qualitative strands and decisions stated in previous studies. In addition, recommendations were made about suggestions needed to operationalize conclusions per the objectives, tested hypotheses, and the study outcomes. The chapter also elucidated the study's contributions to theory, methodology, relational rewards for enhancing employee engagement, and improvement of the relationship of the variables. This chapter ended with suggestions for further areas of study to help expand knowledge in the research study area.

5.2 Summary of the Study Findings

The study's central argument is that the health workforce engagement in Kenyan public health sector is modeled by relational rewards designed by the public health sector. Six months of data collection were conducted using a questionnaire following authorization from JKUAT and NACOSTI. The study italicized some significant findings concerning relational rewards (career development, job design, work environment, work life integration) and employee engagement. The study revealed that such results have many implications for the public health sector. Statistics from demographics showed that female employees than male dominated the scope of the study in the public health sector. Different middle-level ages dominated the study population, with those who had worked for over five years having a higher percentage. Similarly the findings revealed that those

with a diploma level of education were more compared to the other groups, with nurses holding a higher rate than doctors.

The study used three theories and two models, including the social exchange theory, super's career development theory, burnout theory of engagement, job demands-resource model, and job characteristics model, all of which offered credible explanations for the findings obtained. For example, the super's career development theory, burnout theory of engagement, job demands-resource model, and job characteristics model tried to link career development, work-life integration, work environment, and job design respectively to the individual's engagement to achieve the public health sector's goals.

To achieve the study's specific objectives, several regression analyses (correlation, simple and multiple, hierarchical and step-wise) were carried out to test for the strength, direction, and degree of association between the pairs of variables (the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement). Pearson Correlation Coefficient and ANOVA were the inferential tools used. These were triangulated by content analysis which utilized themes to analyze qualitative data. The alternative hypotheses study formulated five hypotheses supported by most of the results obtained from the study.

The findings revealed that relational rewards (career development, job design, work environment, work life integration) positively and significantly influenced employee engagement. Similarly, that they were predictors of employee engagement with the most critical one being work life integration followed by job design, work environment and lastly career development. Nevertheless, during a step-wise regression, the study found the organizational culture to have a positive moderate moderating influence on the relationship between relational rewards on the employee. Further from the analysis, age had a reasonable positive value, influencing employee engagement. A summary of the findings obtained was discussed, as shown in the various sections.

5.2.1 Study Findings on Career Development

The first objective sought to determine whether career development had an influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. The findings from the descriptive analysis revealed that out of the six statements, five statements were answered in affirmative, with only one account on the provision of equal opportunity for promotion, where the majority were neutral, with a good number disagreeing with it. The computed Cronbach Alpha of the career development items was reliable. The inferential and correlation analysis findings revealed that career development had a positive moderate significant influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Correspondingly, the findings indicated that employees who are provided with diverse learning programs and receive management support in career progression through scholarships and government sponsorship tend to have increased employee engagement in the sector. Further, the study found that employee engagement increased when the public health sector provided equal learning and career progression opportunities through targeted programs for different groups. Providing career development awareness through progressive policies was also a critical factor in employee engagement. Thus, the study rejected the null hypothesis set with the establishment and adoption of alternative hypothesis that career development had a positive moderate significant influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

5.2.2 Study Findings on Job Design

The second objective examined whether job design influenced employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. Descriptive statistics analysis similarly revealed that out of the five statements, four were answered in affirmative, with one account on the provision of information on performance majority disagreeing with a good number being neutral. The computed Cronbach Alpha of the job design items indicated the study instrument's reliability. The inferential and correlation analysis findings showed that job

design had a positive significant solid influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Accordingly, the findings showed that employees who are provided with work schedules and are empowered exhibit engagement. Equally, where the public health sector specifies how to perform the tasks by establishing employees' responsibilities, roles, procedures, and the systems to be used, it boosts employee engagement. In addition, the findings revealed that division of labour is paramount in enabling one to engage in various activities which enhance use of multiple skills. However, the study found that the public health sector needs to up its game by furnishing required information about employee performance to increase employee engagement. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis set and adopted the alternative hypothesis because job design strongly influenced employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

5.2.3 Study Findings on Work Environment

In agreement with the third objective, which sought to determine whether the work environment influenced employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya, the study used six questionnaire items to assess the independent variable. Descriptive statistics analysis equally revealed that out of the six statements, respondents answered five in affirmative with one account on whether respondents were satisfied with the workload, with the majority disagreeing with the statement and a good number being neutral. The computed Cronbach Alpha of the work environment items indicated reliability of the study instrument. The inferential and correlation statistics findings suggested that the work environment positively influenced employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Consequently, the findings revealed that the public health sector encourages and supports team performance, provides good health and safety standards, including good work design. Further, the results indicated that where employees were provided with an enabling environment, including a physical and social environment, and the sector

observed ergonomic, it stimulated employee engagement since they affect teamwork, error, and turnover. However, the findings showed that the public health sector needs to work on improving the improvement of workspace and tools. Hence, with the establishment that the work environment had a positive moderate significant influence on staff engagement in the Kenya's public health sector, the study rejected the null hypothesis set and adopted the alternative hypothesis.

5.2.4 Study Findings on Work Life Integration

The study's fourth objective was to ascertain the influence of work-life integration on the engagement of employees in the public health sector in Kenya. Work-life integration was measured by five questionnaire items on a 5-point Likert scale. Descriptive statistics showed that four statements were answered in the affirmative except one account on balancing work and personal life. The respondents neither agreed with nor disagreed with it. The computed Cronbach Alpha of the items of work-life integration also demonstrated the validity of the research tool. The results of the statistical inference and correlation tests indicated that work-life integration had a positive, significant influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Accordingly, the findings showed that the public health sector recognizes the need for job sharing among employees, the implication being that there is excellent continuity and coverage of work during absence and enhanced problem solving by having two people working on the same task. It also enables the exchange of ideas, increases retention, and acts as mentorship. Further, the findings revealed that work-life integration induces employee engagement by providing flexible work plans and breaks between the work schedule, enabling sharing of knowledge and working on personal commitments, reducing burnout, stress, and depression. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis set with the establishment that work-life integration had a positive, significant strong influence on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

5.2.5 Study Findings on Relational Rewards

The main objective of the study was to determine whether relational rewards influence employee engagement in the Kenya's public health sector. Four variables hypothesized that the joint influence of relational rewards was more significant than the individual influence of the variables to achieve this objective. A multiple regression analysis was adopted to test the hypothesis. From its investigation, it was established that jointly, career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration had a positive, significant strong influence on employee engagement.

These results were similar to the analysis of variance (ANOVA), which indicated that independent variables had a meaningful relationship with dependent variables. The R square obtained was higher than for any individual variables' influence on the independent variable. This suggested that the study variables had a higher prediction of variance in employee engagement. Therefore, relational rewards should always be considered as a critical component and outcome of strategic human resource management for enhanced employee engagement leading to performance. Other findings have supported these results on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement.

5.2.6 Study Findings on Organizational culture

In order to determine whether organizational culture had a moderating effect on the association between relational rewards and employee engagement, the fifth objective of the study examined this relationship. The moderating effect of organizational culture was investigated using both hierarchical and step-wise regression models. However, it was found through the hierarchical regression analysis and the displayed interaction graphs that organizational culture had a moderately positive moderating effect on the association between relational rewards and employee engagement. In the public health sector in Kenya, step-wise regression discovered that the overall organizational culture had a positive moderate moderating influence on the link between relational rewards and employee engagement.

5.2.7 Study Findings on Employee Engagement

The study went further to determine how far employees within the public health sector in Kenya are engaged to the sector and how such engagement could be influenced by relational rewards. The findings from the descriptive analysis revealed most of the statements were answered in affirmative. Further, the mean for both the measures of employee engagement was 3.8 with intellectual engagement having the highest mean of 4.24 with a standard deviation of .894. Affective engagement had the second highest mean of 3.87 and social engagement having the lowest mean of 3.39 with a standard deviation of 1.086. These results gave a clear indication that the majority of the public health sector employees are intellectually absorbed in their work, affectively optimistic about doing a good work and socially engaged by sharing work values, goals and attitude with colleagues. Thematic content analysis results revealed that performance based pay and capacity building activities increased employee engaged.

5.3 Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to analyse the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. Five specific objectives were derived from the main objective, and five hypotheses were formulated from those specific objectives to achieve this purpose. These hypotheses were then subjected to correlation and regression analysis to determine the strength, direction, and degree of influence. From the findings, various conclusions were coherently drawn, as shown below.

5.3.1 Conclusions on Career Development

The study sought to assess whether career development influences employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya as the first objective. From the study findings, it was concluded that career development was the least variable that influences employee engagement in the public health sector. From the likert scale table findings, the study concludes that provision of diverse supported learning programs and equal learning and

career progression opportunities through progressive policies act as a genesis of employee engagement. From qualitative finding, the study concludes that management support in career progression through scholarships and government sponsorship increased employee engagement in the sector. Similarly, there was a positive moderate significant relationship between career development and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. This implies that when career development is low or not provided to nurses and doctors within the public health sector, then their engagement will decrease. Failure to implement diverse and supported career development programs and learning opportunities could cost the sector a lot in terms of decreased engagement affecting service delivery and performance.

5.3.2 Conclusions on Job Design

The second objective of the study was to examine if job design had an impact on employee engagement in Kenya's public health sector. From the study findings, the conclusion drawn indicated that job design was the second most important variable that influences employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. From the Likert scale table findings, the study concludes that specifying the way of performing the tasks by establishing employees' responsibilities and roles, procedures, and the systems they should use boosts employee engagement. However, information about employee performance is not provided. From the qualitative data findings, the study concludes that division of labour, provision of work schedules and job enrichment increased employee engagement.

Further, the influence of job design on employee engagement was positively, strongly, and statistically significant. This implies that an increase in job design would cause a corresponding increase in employee engagement among nurses and doctors in the public health sector in Kenya. Therefore, this means that provision of work autonomy, empowering employees, job identity, and variety to nurses and doctors would enhance their engagement in the sector.

5.3.3 Conclusions on Work Environment

The study equally sought to examine whether the work environment influences employee engagement in the public health sector as a fourth objective. From the study findings, the conclusion drawn advocated that work environment was the third most important variable that influences employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. The study concluded from the likert scale table findings, that the public health sector encourages and supports team performance and has put in place good work design and health and security standards that stimulate employee engagement. From qualitative data findings, the study concluded an enabling environment with team-building activities and observing ergonomic stimulated employee engagement.

Equally, the work environment has a positive moderate, and statistically significant influence on employee engagement. The implication is that an improved work environment would cause a comparable increase in employee engagement among nurses and doctors in the public health sector in Kenya. Thus, providing a conducive physical and social environment, teamwork support, good health, and safety standards, and good work design enhances employee engagement in the sector.

5.3.4 Conclusions on Work Life Integration

In a similar vein, the study's fourth objective was to ascertain whether work-life integration affects employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. From the study findings, the conclusion drawn revealed that work life integration was the most important variable that influences employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya having the highest variance contribution. From the correlation and regression analyses findings, the study concluded that work-life integration positively, strongly and significantly influenced employee engagement. Moreover, respondents agreed with the statements from the descriptive analysis.

The implication is that an increase in work-life integration would cause a corresponding increase in employee engagement among nurses and doctors in the public health sector in Kenya. As a result, the provision of flexible work plans and breaks between the work schedules enhance their engagement by sharing knowledge and working on personal commitments, reducing burnout, stress, and depression. Similarly job sharing enhances job continuity, problem solving, exchange of ideas and mentorship as indicated in the likert scale findings.

5.3.5 Conclusions on Relational Rewards

This study's primary goal was to ascertain whether relational rewards (career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration) have an impact on Kenyan public health sector employees' engagement. Correlation and regression analysis results concluded that, jointly, relational rewards have a positive, strong significant influence on employee engagement and that the significant effect was larger than for each predictor variable.

5.3.6 Conclusions on Organizational Culture

The study's fifth objective was to determine whether organizational culture in Kenya's public health sector had a substantial moderating effect on the link between relational rewards and employee engagement. From the likert scale data it can be concluded that the organizational culture practiced in the public health sector supports energetic improved performance achieved through management support on value congruent. Furthermore, the results of step-wise and hierarchical regression analyses showed that organizational culture moderated the association between relational rewards and employee engagement in a favourable but minor way.

5.3.7 Conclusions on Employee Engagement

The study makes a firm conclusion that employee engagement is a fundamental determinant of employee behavioural outcomes; commitment, motivation, satisfaction and

organizational citizenship behaviour. The findings from the likert scale table concludes that majority of the public health sector employees are intellectually absorbed in their work and they are creatively energized with a positive relating to work role and they experience connectedness with the environment. Further that the respondents were optimistic about doing a good job and were socially engaged through sharing common values, goals and attitude with colleagues. From the qualitative data findings, the study concluded that performance based pay, capacity building activities and employee involvement in the development, implementation and revision of reward management programs increased employee engaged.

5.4 Recommendations

The study justifies that when employees are provided with supported career development programs, good job design, a favourable work environment, and allowed to practice work-life integration, it is possible to have them display an engagement attitude. Therefore this study intends to provide significant awareness of how relational rewards can successfully influence employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. This study makes the following recommendations based on the findings.

5.4.1 Recommendations on Career Development

The study's findings indicated that career development was positively and significantly related to employee engagement. Therefore, this study recommends that administrators and policymakers adopt career management policies that enhance supported career development and learning programs that would take equal opportunities for learning and upgrading. Further, sensitization on the availability of this career management policy should be programmed. In addition, management should support career development programs by offering scholarships. The provision of targeted competency development modules and evaluation for all the groups (nurses and doctors) could nurture, foster, and grow individual performance and engagement.

5.4.2 Recommendations on Job Design

The study's findings showed that job design was positively and significantly related to employee engagement. Therefore, this study recommends that the public health sector provide their employees with activities on task variety, task identity, and task autonomy by enabling them to decide on the methods to use and how to achieve them. Further, the administrators should establish employees' responsibilities, roles, and the systems that should be used, which could increase employee engagement.

5.4.3 Recommendations on Work Environment

The study's findings revealed that the work environment was positively and significantly related to employee engagement. Therefore, this study recommends that public health sector administrators strive to ensure that employees are provided with enough workspace to enhance privacy. Uphold healthy and safety standards and teamwork performance. Further, the study recommends that the administrators improve workload allocation through equal distribution of work which will help build positive relationships among colleagues. Finally, the provision of good ergonomics induces employee engagement.

5.4.4 Recommendations on Work Life Integration

The findings in this study indicated that work-life integration had the most significant influence on employee engagement compared to the other independent variables. Therefore, this study recommends that the public health sector administrators should pump in more money to promote flexible work timings to enable employees attend to their commitments which increases engagement. The promotion of such activities reduces cases of burnout, stress and depression among frontline healthcare providers. Further, they should recognize the need for job sharing, which implies exchanging ideas, mentorship, retention, and support for each other.

5.4.5 Recommendations on Organizational culture

Based on the hierarchical and step-wise regression analyses findings about the moderating influence of organizational culture on the relationship between relational rewards and employee engagement, the study recommends that the public health sector should strive to offer management support through motivational culture, feedback culture, employee involvement culture, and dialogue culture through meetings which would increase employee engagement. Further, that information dissemination through developing communication policy, holding regular meetings, and recognizing and rewarding better performers would increase employee engagement.

5.4.6 Recommendations on Employee Engagement

From the study findings and conclusions, the study recommends that the administrators of the public health sector should come up with employee engagement strategies and activities, including continuing learning and enhancement of skills. Similarly, their policies, practices and procedures should be reflected in the quality of Physical setting and in management support. Further, they should allow employees to interact between personal, family, paid and unpaid work responsibilities.

5.5 Contribution of Research

The study research contributes to the literature review through the methodology adopted, which was unique in terms of the analysis of the interaction of various relational rewards and how they have been associated with employee engagement through the moderation of organizational culture in the public health sector in Kenya. Consequently, by examining the influence of relational rewards on employee engagement, the mixed methodology of data collecting, analysis, and processes makes a contribution to the field of human resource management.

Additionally, using both hierarchical and step-wise regression analyses to examine the moderating impact of organizational culture on the relationship between relational

rewards and employee engagement contributed significantly and revealed new information for the appropriate implementation of relational rewards in the public sector. This study also used a control variable and a moderator to assess the influence of the relationship between predictor and predicted variables instead of using only a moderator or a mediator.

Further, the study research theoretically contributes to the literature review by analysing the primary data collected on relational rewards and employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya. It provided the interaction between the variables giving work-life integration a more significant variance in employee engagement compared to the other constructs (career development, job design, and work environment). Therefore, the public health sector administrators may find such findings insightful, looking at the nature of the job for nurses and doctors where flexible work arrangements and job sharing are vital components that would be applied to enhance employee engagement, loyalty, and retention.

The study's theoretical framework drew from social exchange theory, Super's career development theory, and burnout theory of engagement, Job demand-resource model, and Job characteristics model. All these theories and models were linked to each variable of the study. The study advanced the use of social exchange theory by determining the role of relational rewards on employee engagement. From the findings, the results revealed a significant association between relational rewards and employee engagement. The implication is based on the exchange standards whereby employee engagement levels depend on the benefits or resources they receive from the sector and vice versa. Therefore, if the public health sector can create attractive relational rewards, the employee will reciprocate by engagement.

Similarly, Super's career development theory was linked to the career development variable, which holds that occupational preferences, competencies, and individual life situations change with time and experience through career development stages. Therefore,

the public health sector should expose employees to a broader range of career development programs and learning opportunities.

The contribution of the study to theory and practice is envisaged by the work life integration variable which explained fifty two point six percent of the variance in employee engagement. Thus it contributes to the burn out theory of engagement which holds that job characteristics (job demands and job resources) contribute to employee burnout in the sense that JD presence contributes to emotional tiredness and that the absence of job resources hinders employees from achieving work goals and personal developments. Therefore, the public health sector should provide management support by coordinating a balance between work and non-work obligations, come up with interventions to reduce job demands as flexi arrangements to include shifts, career breaks, and job sharing, and reinforce psychological resources like employee assistant programs.

Nonetheless, the job demands-resource model was linked to the work environment variable, which holds that employees must be supplied with the necessary resources to deal with the demands and perform their work roles. The model supports the study in that if the PHS can provide employees with good physical and social settings, including equipment, good office design, teamwork involvement, and management and social support, it increases engagement. Additionally, the Job characteristic model was linked to the job design variable. The PHS could use the five job characteristic model as a checklist for job analysis and motivational strategies like job rotation and job enrichment. Therefore, this study provides a better reference point for administrators on how to link relational rewards to employee engagement in the public health sector in Kenya.

Finally, the study adds to the body of knowledge in two ways. First, it emphasizes relational incentive components such as career growth, job design, work environment, and work-life integration on staff engagement in Kenya's public health sector, as opposed to the constructs mentioned in many other studies. Secondly, it fills the knowledge gap by conducting comparative analysis to discern differences between groups (Doctors and Nurses) regarding employee engagement and demographics. This comparative analysis

would be beneficial to the Public health sector to ensure that they remain updated and relevant on the changes as far as employee engagement and demographics are concerned.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

This study focused on four dimensions of relational rewards; career development, job design, work environment, and work-life integration. Future studies on relational rewards may identify additional constructs and other moderators (not organizational culture) or mediators, which may widen the range of these rewards on employee engagement. Further, the replication of this study in the private health sector, including Non-Governmental Organizations and Faith-Based Organizations, would demonstrate the significance of these dimensions and how they relate to employee engagement in general. A researcher can further review the study on transactional rewards on other employee behavioral outcomes like commitment, motivation, retention, and satisfaction, among others.

Equally, instead of focusing on doctors and nurses only, future research should consider expanding the scope to multiple internal informants, such as other health care providers and patients, together with other stakeholders in the public health sector industry, to achieve reliable conclusions of the variables under the study. Future studies should also combine data collection instruments like interview schedules and observation guides to the questionnaire used in this study and include other methodologies not applied. Finally, further studies may be conducted across other industries since the study drew the sample from the health sector industry in Kenya. Thus, the conclusions may not be generalized to those other industries

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction

Dear Respondent,

The researcher is a student pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy in Human Resource Management at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. As part of the program, the researcher is expected to write the research thesis. The title of the proposed thesis is *Relational Rewards on Employee Engagement in the Public Health Sector in Kenya*.

Therefore, the researcher humbly requests you to assist her by filling in this questionnaire to be able to complete the research thesis. The information you provide will remain confidential and will be used strictly for purposes of this research.

The research results will help stakeholders in this sector, and a copy will be provided to these counties.

Yours Sincerely,



WILBRODAH M. MUCHIBI

PhD IN HRM STUDENT

JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY

P. O. BOX 62000-00200

NAIROBI, KENYA.

Appendix II: Questionnaire

Guidelines:

1. Fill the following questionnaire as truthfully as possible.
2. Use a tick (✓) to indicate your appropriate response
3. Do not indicate your name on the questionnaire

The researcher would wish to thank you for your assistance in taking the time to fill the questionnaire. I hope your responses to the questions will contribute a lot to my research. If you have any queries, please feel free to tell me on 0722427729 or e-mail wilbrodahm@yahoo.com.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Please state your gender

Male []

Female []

2. Please indicate your age bracket

20-29 years []

30-39 years []

40-49 years []

Above 50 years []

3. State the number of years you have worked in the Health Sector in the County

Less than one year []

1-2 years []

3-5 years []

Above 5 years []

4. Please indicate the level of your education

PhD []

Masters []

Bachelor's degree []

Diploma []

Certificate []

5. Please indicate the area of your work in the health sector

Doctor []

Nurse []

SECTION B: CAREER DEVELOPMENT

In this section, please tick (✓) the most appropriate response for each of the statements in the table below with the following scores in mind. **Strongly Disagree (SD=1), Disagree (D=2), Neutral (N=3), Agree (A=4), and Strongly Agreed (SA=5)**. Please rate these statements according to your sector's career development.

	STATEMENTS	SD=1	D=2	N=3	A=4	SA=5
6.	Management support on provision of learning programs motivates me to perform better at work					

7.	All employees are given growth opportunities in training and development					
8.	The organization has a policy of employee career development					
9.	There are coaching and mentorship programs for management development					
10.	At my place of work, there is control over my own work methods					
11.	All employees are given equal opportunity for promotion					

12. What would you suggest needs to be done to improve employee engagement through training and development?

SECTION C: JOB DESIGN

Please rate these statements with **Strongly Disagree (SD=1)**, **Disagree (D=2)**, **Neutral (N=3)**, **Agree (A=4)**, and **Strongly Agreed (SA=5)** according to your organizational job design.

	STATEMENTS	SD=1	D=2	N=3	A=4	SA=5
13.	My job requires the performance of a wide range of tasks					
14.	My job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work.					
15.	My job allows me to make decisions about what methods I use to complete my work.					

16.	My job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.					
17	I am provided with information about performance of my job.					

18. Job design enables employees to engage in a variety of job activities which enhances the use of a variety of skill. What should be done in your organization to improve job design?

SECTION D: WORK ENVIRONMENT

Please rate these statements with **Strongly Disagree (SD=1)**, **Disagree (D=2)**, **Neutral (N=3)**, **Agree (A=4)**, and **Strongly Agreed (SA=5)** according to your organizational work environment.

	STATEMENTS	SD=1	D=2	N=3	A=4	SA=5
19.	I am satisfied with the quality of co-workers in the team					
20.	The workplace organization allows for good work design.					
21.	I am satisfied with the current safety and security standards in the organization					
22.	My employer provides comfortable working environment i.e. work space, tools and physical environment					
23.	The management supports and encourages team performance					

24	I am satisfied with the workload provided in my job					
----	---	--	--	--	--	--

25. In your opinion do you think physical and social environment can improve employee engagement? Suggest a few reasons.

SECTION E: WORK LIFE INTEGRATION/BALANCE

Please rate these statements with **Strongly Disagree (SD=1)**, **Disagree (D=2)**, **Neutral (N=3)**, **Agree (A=4)**, and **Strongly Agreed (SA=5)** according to your organizational quality of work life.

	STATEMENTS	SD=1	D=2	N=3	A=4	SA=5
26.	I am equally satisfied with balancing work and family roles					
27.	My employer enables me to log into his network from home					
28.	My organization provides employee assistant programs					
29.	My organization recognizes the need for job sharing among employees					
30.	Am able to balance work priorities with my personal life					

31. Do you think quality of work life is important in improving employee engagement in your organization? Give some reasons

SECTION F: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Please rate these statements with **Strongly Disagree (SD=1)**, **Disagree (D=2)**, **Neutral (N=3)**, **Agree (A=4)**, and **Strongly Agreed (SA=5)** according to your organizational culture.

	STATEMENTS	SD=1	D=2	N=3	A=4	SA=5
32.	Top managers help employees discover how to validate their personal values with the organizational values.					
33.	The employees share the same values and vision that the organization represents					
34.	In our organization people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance.					
35.	In our organization management practices allow freedom to plan and act in one's own sphere.					
36.	Organization culture supports improved employee performance.					
37.	The organizational culture is open to change and employees are able to adapt.					

38. Suggest ways which can be used to improve employee engagement through organizational culture

SECTION G: EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT


Please rate these statements with **Strongly Disagree (SD=1)**, **Disagree (D=2)**, **Neutral (N=3)**, **Agree (A=4)**, and **Strongly Agreed (SA=5)** according to employee job performance in the organization.

	STATEMENTS	SD=1	D=2	N=3	A=4	SA=5
	Intellectual Engagement					
39.	In our organization employees focus on their work assignment					
40.	In our organization we concentrate on the work assigned which is shown by the work output					
41.	In our organization we pay attention to the work assigned					
	Social Engagement					
42.	I share the same work values as my colleagues					
43.	I share the same work goals as my colleagues					
44.	I share the same work attitudes as my colleagues					
	Affective Engagement					
45.	In our organization employees feel positive about the work assigned by our supervisors					
46.	In our organization employees feel energetic when undertaking duties assigned by the supervisor					
47.	In my organization I am enthusiastic when undertaking my responsibilities					

48. Suggest ways through which relational rewards can be used more effectively to improve employee engagement in your organization

Appendix III: Nacosti Research License

 **REPUBLIC OF KENYA**

 **NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION**

RefNo: **807781** Date of Issue: **15/November/2021**

RESEARCH LICENSE



This is to Certify that **Ms. Wilbrodah Mutsoli Muchibi** of **Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology**, has been licensed to conduct research in **Bungoma, Busia, Kakamega, Vihiga** on the topic: **Influence of Relational Rewards on Employee Engagement in the Public Health Sector in Kenya** for the period ending : **15/November/2022**.

License No: **NACOSTI/P/21/14210**

807781
Applicant Identification Number


Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code



NOTE: This is a computer generated license. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

Appendix IV: Research Authorization from Kakamega County Commissioner

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



**THE PRESIDENCY
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND CO-ORDINATION OF NATIONAL
GOVERNMENT**

Telephone: 056-31131

Email: cckakamega12@yahoo.com
When replying please quote:

Ref: ED 12/1/VOL.VI/8

County Commissioner
Kakamega County
P O BOX 43 - 50100
KAKAMEGA

Date: 30th November, 2021

Muchibi Willbrodah Mutsoli
C/O Kakamega CBD Campus
Jomo Kenyatta University of
Agriculture and Technology

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your authorization vide letter Ref: No. NACOSTI/P/21/14210 dated 15th November, 2021 by NACOSTI to undertake research on "*Influence of Relational Rewards on Employee Engagement in the Public Health Sector in Kenya*" for the period ending 15th November, 2022. I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out the research on the same in this county.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

EREDI C.M.
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

Appendix V: Research Authorization from Ministry of Education

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EARLY LEARNING AND BASIC EDUCATION

Telephone: 056-30411
Fax: 056-31307
E-mail: roeducation2016@gmail.com
When replying please quote our Ref.

County Director of Education
Kakamega County
P. O. BOX 137 - 50100
KAKAMEGA

REF: KAKA/C/GA/29/17/VOL.V/172

30th November, 2021

MS. WILBRODAH MUTSOLI
JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE
& TECHNOLOGY
KAKAMEGA CAMPUS

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

The above has been granted permission by National Council for Science & Technology vide letter Ref. NACOSTI/P/21/14210 dated 15th November, 2021 to carry out research on "**Influence of relational rewards on employee engagement in the Public Health Sector - Kakamega county**" for the period ending 15th November, 2022".

Please accord him/her any necessary assistance he may require.

to Eng...
FOR
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

DICKSON O. OGONYA
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

Copy to:

The Regional Director of Education
WESTERN REGION

Appendix VI: Permission to Collect Data from Counties

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



COUNTY GOVERNMENT OF BUNGOMA
MINISTRY OF HEALTH
OFFICE OF THE COUNTY DIRECTOR
HEALTH



Telegrams: "MEDICAL", BUNGOMA
Telephone: (055) 30230 Fax: (055) 30650
E-mail: docakatu@yahoo.com
When replying please quote

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF HEALTH
BUNGOMA COUNTY
P. O. BOX 18-50200
BUNGOMA

REF: CG/BGM/CDH/RESRC/VOL.1(78)

DATE: 24TH NOVEMBER, 2021

MUCHIBI WILBRODAH MUTSOLI
C/O KAKAMEGA CBD CAMPUS
JKUAT

RE: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN BUNGOMA COUNTY HOSPITALS

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "Influence of Relational Rewards on Employee Engagement in the Public Health Sector in Bungoma County Hospitals, I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out research for a period ending 15th November, 2022.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a copy of the final research report to the County Director of Health. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the online Research Information system.

Thank you.

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF HEALTH
BUNGOMA COUNTY
P. O. Box 18-50200
BUNGOMA

DR. JOHNSTON AKATU
for **DR. JOHNSTON AKATU**
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF HEALTH
BUNGOMA COUNTY



**COUNTY GOVERNMENT OF BUSIA
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND SANITATION,
P.O. BOX 1040 - 50400
BUSIA, KENYA**



CG/B5A/H/ADM/1/56/VOL.II/63

DATE: 22RD NOVEMBER 2021

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL – WILBRODA MUTSOLI MUCHIBI

This is to confirm that the above named who is a PHD student at JKUAT has been authorized to conduct a study Entitled: “**Influence of Relational Rewards on Employee Engagement in the Public Health Sector in Kenya**” in partial fulfilment of her PHD degree.

The study has also been approved by NACOSTI (approval attached for your perusal).

Kindly accord her any necessary co-operation.

**COUNTY DIRECTOR
OF
HEALTH**
Date: *22/11/2021*
Dr. Nelson Letemias
County Director of Health
Department of Health and Sanitation
BUSIA COUNTY

-
- CC. CECM Department of Health and Sanitation
- Chief Officers Department of Health and Sanitation
-

Appendix VII: Ethics Review Approval

COUNTY GOVERNMENT OF KAKAMEGA

E-mail: wpght5@yahoo.com
Telephone: Kakamega 0702930346
When replying, please quote:
REF: CGH/ER/ERC/VOL/126



COUNTY GENERAL HOSPITAL
P.O. Box 15 G.P.O 50100
KAKAMEGA

DATE: 28th January, 2022

MINISTRY OF HEALTH SERVICES

WII.BRODAH MUTSHOLI MUCHIBI
LICENCE NO. NACOSTI/P/21/14210

RE: RESEARCH PROPOSAL APPROVAL – NO. ERC/141-01/2022

This is to inform you that **Kakamega County General Hospital Ethics Review Committee (KCGH ERC)** has approved your research proposal titled: *"Influence of Relational Rewards on employee Engagement in the Public Health Sector in Kenya"*. The approval period is 28th January, 2022 – 15th November 2022.

This approval is subject to compliance with the following requirements:

- i. Only approved documents including informed consent, study instruments, MTA will be used.
- ii. All changes including amendments, deviations and violations are submitted for review and approval by the **KCGH ERC**.
- iii. Death and life-threatening problems and serious adverse events or unexpected adverse events whether related or unrelated to the study must be reported to **KCGH ERC** within 24 hours of notification.
- iv. Any changes, anticipated or otherwise that may increase the risks or affected safety of welfare of the study participants and others or affect the integrity of the research must be reported to **KCGH ERC** within 24 hours.
- v. Clearance for export of biological specimens must be obtained from relevant institutions.
- vi. Submission of a request for renewal of approval at least 60 days prior to expiry of the approval period. Attach a comprehensive progress report to support the renewal.
- vii. Submission of an executive summary report within 90 days upon completion of the study to **KCGH ERC**.

This approval should be attached to your research license from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and also other necessary clearances.


DR. AJEVI AUSTINE
CHAIRMAN
ETHICS AND RESEARCH COMMITTEE

