# Construct and Criterionrelated validation of the Bifactor Engagement Scale

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The roots of employee (sometimes aka work, e.g., Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010a) engagement research likely started with theoretical expansions of forms of employee participation (see, for example, Ferris & Hellier, 1984) and job involvement (e.g., Elloy et al., 1991). This exploration extended into broader considerations of attitudes and emotions (Staw et al., 1994) and were informed by further exploration of the dimensionality of constructs such as organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The 1990's saw focused development and refinement. Staw et al. (1994) investigated the relationships between positive emotions and favorable work outcomes, and although they do not use the word, "engagement", their distinction between felt and expressed emotion likely held influence upon the burgeoning interest in the engagement construct.

Kahn (1990) described engaged employees as being physically involved, cognitively vigilant, and emotionally connected. Although occasionally referred to as residing on the opposing pole to burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008), these two constructs are currently most commonly conceptualized as being distinct (Goering et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2009; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Timms et al., 2012), although certainly not universally (Cole et al., 2012; Taris et al., 2017). Goering et al. (2017) explore nomological networks, concluding that these two constructs have a moderate (negative) association, but also distinct nomological networks. Schaufeli et al. (2008) investigated both internal and external association indicators, concluding that engagement and burnout (as well as workaholism) should be considered three distinct constructs.

Burnout can be defined as a psychological syndrome characterized by exhaustion (low energy), cynicism (low involvement), and inefficacy (low efficacy), which is experienced in response to chronic job stressors (e.g., Leiter & Maslach, 2004; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Alternatively, engagement refers to an individual worker's involvement and satisfaction as well as enthusiasm for work (Harter et al., 2002).

#### Engagement as an attitude

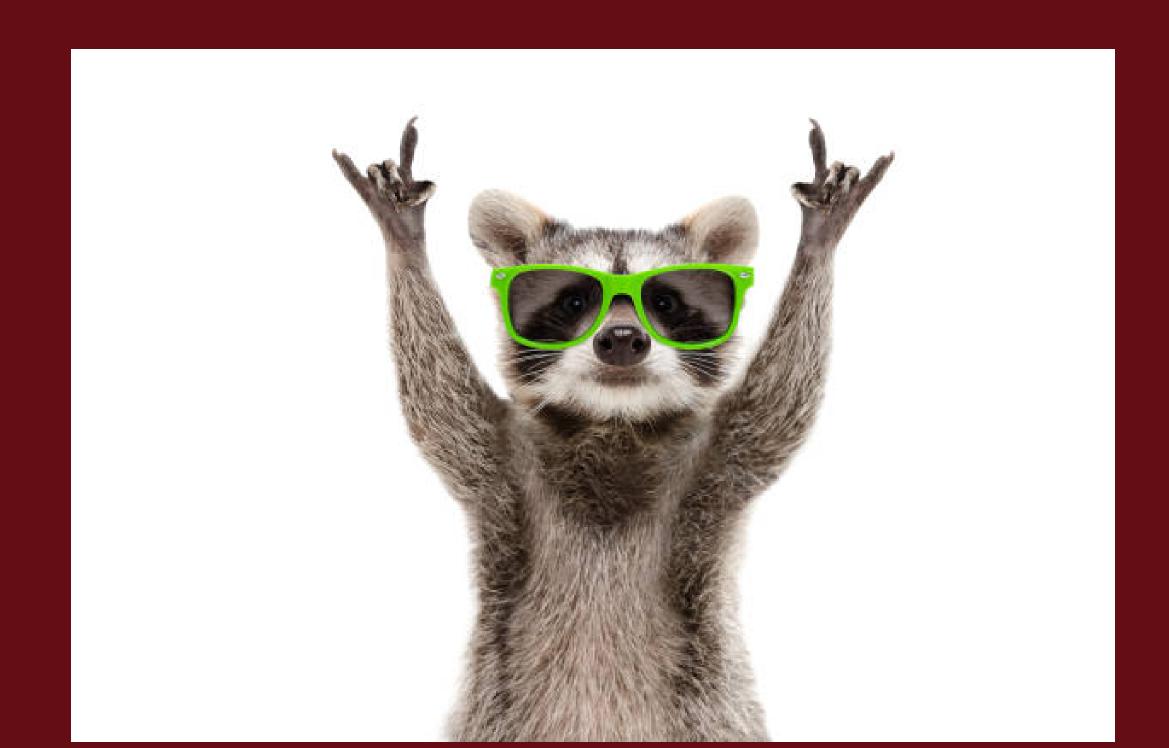
Staw et al. (1994) investigated the relationships between positive emotions and favorable work outcomes, and, although they do not explicitly mention the word "engagement", their distinction between felt and expressed emotion likely held influence upon the burgeoning interest in the engagement construct. Clear in this history is the conceptualization of engagement as a work attitude. Kahn (1990) defines engagement as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (p. 692). This definition of engagement as an attitude was also heavily influenced by Rosenberg (1960)'s tripartite model of attitudes, which was popular in the 1990's. According to Rosenberg (1960), attitudes are a molar construct with cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions. Although falling out of favor in the decades following its construction, interest in the tripartite model was revived by Kaiser & Wilson (2019). The attitudinal perspectives of engagement eventually blended into perspectives that focused on exploring the engagement construct through the lens of other conceptually similar constructs **Shaw (2005)**.

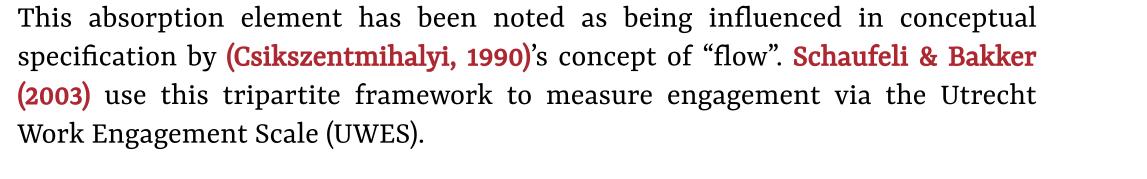
## **Existing Measures of Engagement**

Our review of existing instruments non-exhaustively presents measures that are commonly viewed as *either* predominantly academic or applied, although please note that this is an imposed subjective distinction.

## Research measures (e.g., freely available).

Schaufeli & Bakker (2003) characterize engagement as a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (p. 74). Via their conceptualization, vigor is described as high levels of energy and mental resilience while working. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).





The Intellectual, Social, Affective (ISA) Engagement Scale (Soane et al., 2012) is another option for researchers. This 9-item measure draws inspiration from Kahn (1990)'s theory of engagement and can aggregate to three 3-item scales (Intellectual Engagement, Social Engagement, and Affective Engagement) or one 9-item summary aggregate (Overall Engagement). Intellectual engagement refers to the degree of intellectual absorption one has in their work and the degree they think about improving work (Soane et al., 2012). Social engagement primarily concerns social connections in a workplace context as well as having shared values with colleagues (Soane et al., 2012). According to Soane et al. (2012), affective engagement refers to a positive emotional state relating to one's work role. This measure has been explicitly validated at both the subscale and overall aggregate level (Soane et al., 2012).

Another example of an engagement measure comes from Saks (2006), who splits engagement into two distinct entities: job engagement and organization engagement. This dichotomy largely results from Kahn (1990)'s theory that an individual's role is central to engagement. Saks (2006) further posits that employees typically have more than one role, with the most important being their work role and their role as a member of an organization. The former role is specific to the employee's job, while the latter is more broad and refers to the organization as a whole. Antecedents and consequences of this measure have been tested, with findings suggesting that perceived organizational support precedes both job and organizational engagement and that job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to quit, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are consequences (Saks, 2006). Recently the broader theoretical model underpinning the measure was revisited and revised to include several new antecedents (e.g. leadership, job demands, dispositional characteristics, etc.) leading to engagement as well as consequences (e.g. burnout, stress, health and well-being, etc.) resulting from high or low levels of engagement (Saks, 2019).

#### Commercial measures (e.g., typically fee-based).

Gallup's Q12 is a popular commercial measure for engagement. The Q12 is a 12item measure that originated from a push to use "soft" metrics as opposed to "hard" ones for future action planning (Coffman & Harter, 1999). In this interpretation "soft" metrics tend to be metrics that are more abstract and difficult to measure (e.g. engagement, brand loyalty), while "hard" metrics are easily-measured and typically deal with concrete numbers (e.g. turnover, profitability). In the original creation of the survey, each of the 12 items were found to relate to important organizational outcomes including productivity, profitability, turnover, and customer satisfaction (Coffman & Harter, 1999). A recent meta-analysis of 456 studies revealed that the Q12 also relates to additional performance measures such as absenteeism, wellbeing, and organizational citizenship (Harter et al., 2013). While this engagement measure is one of the most popular, some scholars disagree with its conceptualization as "engagement"; some feel that this measure is better described as (or no different than) a measure of overall satisfaction, as the two concepts are highly correlated, r = .91 (Sirota & Klein, 2013).

Gallup is not the only organization with an engagement measure; many consulting companies have commercially available surveys, models, and processes for measuring engagement. One such example is Aon Hewitt, a consulting firm that annually measures engagement for over 1000 companies worldwide. Their measurements are centered around an engagement model that focuses on three main factors: say, stay, and strive. Essentially, the model states that employees demonstrate engagement through saying positive statements about their organization, staying at their organization for a long time, and striving to put in their best effort and help the organization succeed (Hewitt, 2017). In their most recent analysis. Hewitt (2017) recently noted that global levels of engagement may be declining as in this report they had retracted since the previous year.

BlessingWhite, another consulting firm, provides a different model for engagement. BlessingWhite's model, the X Model, measures engagement through the lens of satisfaction and contribution. Essentially, BlessingWhite believes that cooperation between the organization and individual employees is necessary, and that maximum engagement can only be reached when an employee reaches maximum levels of satisfaction while also outputting maximum contribution towards the organization (BlessingWhite, 2018). Their model holds each level in the organization accountable for employee levels of engagement. From their view, executive leaders must shape the organization's culture, and managers must be able to effectively communicate with and motivate their subordinates (BlessingWhite, 2018).

The last commercial example discussed here<sup>1</sup> is the Towers Perrin-ISR, which holds the philosophy that employee engagement can only be worked on indirectly; engagement can only be attained through effective leadership, business strategy, and organizational culture (Ballendowitsch & Perrin-ISR,