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## Role of Work Engagement, Autonomy Support, Psychological Capital, and Economic Factors to Educator and Staff Well-being in the Philippines

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Original Article

# Role of Work Engagement, Autonomy Support, Psychological Capital, and Economic Factors to Educator and Staff Well-being in the Philippines

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**Abstract.** Educational institutions are transitioning their learning modalities to flexible learning from remote education; educators and staff continuously encounter ambiguous work demands that negatively affect their well-being. Literature indicates the influence of autonomy support, psychological capital, work engagement, and economic factors (i.e., financial preparedness and job insecurity) on well-being. We propose that social, psychological, work, and economic factors influence the well-being of university educators and staff. 315 employees voluntarily completed the autonomy support, work engagement, hope, self-efficacy, job insecurity, and financial preparedness scales. We used IBM SPSS Amos for the confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. Five separate models were conducted to test the research objective. Results indicate good to excellent model fit indices for the research scales and structural model. We also found that self-efficacy, work engagement, hope, and financial preparedness during emergencies positively predict well-being, while job insecurity is detrimental. Our findings could serve as a basis for mental health programs to address the mental issues of educators and staff.

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**Keywords:** Economic Factors, Psycho-social Resources, Well-being, Work Engagement.

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## Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic caused a drastic shift in the academe, forcing faculty, staff, and administrators to adopt a work-from-home setup. Educational institutions continued to cater to the academic and administrative needs of the students. To address the demand for online classes learning modules and administrative tasks were immediately transferred online. However, educators and university staff were left unprepared for the need for technology, pedagogy, and information communication skills to navigate online education (Carreon et al., 2021; Donitsa-Schmidt & Ramot, 2020). The lack of preparation and training did not hamper the demand and desire to teach effectively and provide academic and administrative support (Pressley, 2021). The ambiguous work conditions and high demands caused adverse mental health (Carreon et al., 2021; Embalsado et al., 2021). Extant literature suggests that autonomy-supportive supervisors and peers, work engagement, and psychological capital (e.g., hope and self-efficacy) affect the well-being of educators and staff in universities (Bakker & Demerouti,

2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017; Yunying et al., 2021). We have four arguments that can address our contention.

First, the literature on positive organizational behavior (POB) highlights the role of autonomy support as a positive source of well-being (Ebersold, 2018; Slemp et al., 2018). However, the literature on autonomy support focused on supervisor support and ignored the role of colleagues (i.e., Shultz et al., 2014; Slemp et al., 2018). Our study accounts for both supervisor and colleague support in the academic setting as a source of well-being. Second, work engagement is a consistent determinant of well-being at work. Findings on teacher work engagement are negatively linked with burnout and occupational stress (Desouky & Allam, 2017). Nonetheless, less research gave attention to the work engagement of educators and staff during the pandemic (Fute et al., 2022; Oubibi et al., 2022). We intend to provide evidence on the role of work engagement in well-being in the academe.

Third, POB research also emphasized the role of hope and occupational efficacy as internally attributed sources of well-being (i.e., Daraba et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2020; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). However, less attention is given to POB Research on the hope and occupational efficacy of educators and staff during the pandemic. Most research focuses on the student population (Yunying et al., 2021). Fourth, little evidence indicates the effect of external factors such as job instability and financial preparedness in emergencies during the pandemic. Extant literature indicates the detrimental effect of job instability and poor financial preparedness on well-being (i.e., Abrantes-Braga & Veludo-de-Oliveria, 2018; Choi et al., 2020; Hamouche, 2020).

We intend to explore the effect of occupational, psychological, and social related factors that explain well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic. Our findings could serve as a basis for mental health programs in universities as they cruise on the transitioning work arrangements as COVID-19 cases are going down.

## Social and Psychological Factors

Colleagues and immediate supervisors serve as social motivational sources that improve well-being (i.e., Bolo et al., 2013; Collie et al., 2017; Knight et al., 2017; Palo & Rothman, 2016). Autonomy supportive supervisors respect the views of their subordinates, they also provide meaningful guidance and allow autonomy (Deci et al., 2001, p.931). Autonomy support motivates employees to perform and improve their well-being (Gagné & Deci; 2005). Supporting employees to exercise their volition improves employee's views on the social worth of their job, find pleasures, and experience optimal function amidst ambiguous demands and difficult situations like the pandemic (Rigby & Ryan, 2018; Siddiqi, 2013).

The current study will focus on hope and efficacy, the proactive and internally attributed component of psychological capital (PsyCap) whereas, resilience and optimism are externally attributed (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Resilience is the capacity to bounce back from adversity, and optimism is the attribution of positive and negative events internally and externally or expecting good things to happen (Luthans, 2002). Both resilience and optimism are states that attribute their development and expression to events. Unlike hope and efficacy which are proactive in facing goals and challenges.

Self-efficacy is the conviction about one's abilities to execute motivation and cognitive resources to complete a task (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Developing self-efficacy helps surpass hindrances leading to positive well-being and accomplishments (Bandura, 1998, p. 56). Self-efficacy in PsyCap is often used in studies about occupational productivity and positive organizational behavior but used as general self-efficacy not contextualized to occupational self-efficacy (i.e., Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Existing research reveals the importance of general self-efficacy on positive organizational behavior but has not fully demonstrated the processes of occupational self-efficacy (i.e., Daraba et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2020). However, occupational efficacy is limited to the conviction of one's ability. It does not include one's belief in constructing strategies to reach goals. Making

strategies and alternatives toward their goals is unique to hope (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017; Snyder et al., 2000).

PsyCap adapted Snyder et al. (2000) hope model, which conveys the construction of multiple strategies and alternatives to reach goals. Individuals with high hope are proactive in formulating contingencies and subgoals toward their goals. The traditional hope model emphasized internal agents and neglected the influence of external agents on hope. Bernardo (2010) included external agents (family, peers, and spirituality) as sources of hope in the locus of hope. External sources of hope highlight the interdependent self-construal which, underscores the role of social relations in constructing behaviors, thoughts, and feelings of people in collectivist cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Since the Philippines predominantly adhere to collectivist values, using the locus of the model could address the gap in the lack of context-specific studies on psychological capital.

### **Work Engagement and Well-being**

The work-from-home setup changed the work environment and isolated the educators and staff during the pandemic which had a negative effect on their well-being (i.e., Banna et al., 2020; Cleland et al., 2020; Paulino et al., 2020; Restubog et al., 2020; Vinkers et al., 2020). Evidence indicates the positive effect of work engagement on employee well-being (Ariza-Montes et al., 2019). However, there is a lack of literature on the effect of work engagement on different types of well-being. Research is limited to one type of well-being (i.e., Deci et al., 2014; Ebersold, 2018; Slemp et al., 2018). Few scholars gave attention to all types of the well-being of educators (Bermejo et al., 2013, Embalsado et al., 2022) while most dedicated their time to investigating teachers' burnout.

### **Effect of Job Insecurity and Financial Preparedness**

The security of being tenured helps employees face the occupational and financial instability of the pandemic compared to probationary or contractual employees (Goldfarb et al., 2021; Hamouche, 2020). University educators and staff have not been a focus of job insecurity and financial preparedness studies. A study on job insecurity and financial preparedness during COVID-19 focused on hotel staff (Üngüren et al., 2021) whereas, earlier studies focused on accountants (Richter et al., 2014), manufacturing plants, industrial, research institute, development organizations, and hospitals (Silla et al., 2008). There is a gap in research to explore the effect of job instability and financial preparedness of educators and staff during the pandemic.

### **The Present Study**

We have four main arguments in our study, first, as employees are concerned with job demands their well-being is influenced by their work engagement. Specifically, the concerns to function optimally (psychological well-being) (Gagné & Deci, 2005), the meaning and social worth of their job (social well-being) (Al-Sabbah, 2021; Embalsado et al., 2022), and the satisfaction and pleasure their experience from their job (emotional well-being) is affected by their work engagement (Oerlemans, 2011). Second, literature on autonomy support indicates that supervisors and peers that motivate their subordinates and colleagues could improve their well-being (Ebersold, 2018; Shultz et al., 2014; Slemp et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2014). Since educators and staff worked remotely the consistent support of the supervisors and peers helped them manage their adverse mental health caused by the ambiguous work demands while working from home.

Third, for the psychological capital, research on positive organizational behavior emphasizes the role of hope and work efficacy as internally attributed sources of work well-being (i.e., Daraba et al., 2021; Donaldson et al., 2020; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). However, there is a lack of evidence on the role of hope and self-efficacy in university educators' and staff's

well-being during the pandemic. Lastly, little evidence indicates the effect of external factors such as job instability and financial preparedness in emergencies during the pandemic. Literature on Covid-19 in the organization gave attention to the social and psychological aspects of well-being. Extant literature neglected the detrimental effect of job instability and poor financial preparedness on well-being (i.e., [Abrantes-Braga & Veludo-de-Oliveria, 2018](#); [Choi et al., 2020](#); [Goldfarb et al., 2021](#); [Hamouche, 2020](#)).

## Method

### Participants

Data were collected from all available employees in an online survey. The university research office ethics provided ethics clearance for the data gathering. Participants voluntarily participated in the study and were allowed to leave at any point during the study. The informed consent explained the purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, confidentiality, and data management of the study will be provided. Data was stored in the secured drive using the university email.

### Sampling Procedures

The survey was distributed by the university's human resource department using the university email list. Among the 315 complete responses from university educators and staff, most are females (N=190, 60.3%) with age ranges from 21 to 79 years with a mean age of 39.3. Most are married (N=170, 54%), obtained bachelor's degree (N=126, 40%), and full-time regular employees (N=193, 61.3%) (Table 1).

### Instruments

The Mental Health Continuum Short Form (MHC-SF) was used to measure the psychological, emotional, and social well-being of employees. The scale is composed of 14 items ranging from 1 (Never) to 6 (Everyday) with a 4-point Likert scale. Sample items are 'good at managing the responsibilities of your daily' for psychological well-being (6 items); 'satisfied with life' for emotional well-being (3 items), and 'that you had something important to contribute to society' for social well-being (5 items) ([Keyes, 2018](#)). Psychological ( $\alpha=.883$ ), Emotional ( $\alpha=.901$ ), and Social Well-being ( $\alpha=.880$ ) obtained acceptable inter-rim internal reliability (Table 2). In terms of validity the scale also obtained good fit index (Table 3).

The Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale - Short Version (OSES-SV) ([Rigotti et al., 2008](#)) was used to measure self-efficacy. The scale is a 6-item single-factor measure ('I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities') with a 6-point Likert ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 6 (completely true). The scale obtained good internal consistency ( $\alpha=.901$ ) (Table 2) and good fit index in the CFA (Table 3).

The Locus of Hope Scale (LOHS) was used to measure the employees' hopeful thinking. The scale is a 32-item 4-factor measure with 8 items each using a 4-point Likert format ranging from 1 (Definitely False) to 4 (Definitely True) ([Bernardo, 2010](#)). Sample items are 'I can think of many ways to get out of a problem' for internal-locus-of-hope; 'My family has lots of ways of helping me attain my goals' for external-family, 'My friends usually help me find ways to get out of problematic situations' for external-peers, and 'God has made my life successful' external-spiritual. Internal-Locus-of-Hope ( $\alpha=.810$ ), External-Peer ( $\alpha=.928$ ), External-Family

( $\alpha=.934$ ), and External-Spiritual-Locus-of-Hope ( $\alpha=.964$ ) obtained good internal consistency (Table 2) and good fit index (Table 3).

Work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006). This scale is a 9-item three-dimension scale following a 7-point Likert format from 0 (Never) to 6 (Always). The three dimensions are vigor ('At my work, I feel bursting with energy'), absorption ('I am enthusiastic about my job'), and dedication ('I am immersed in my work'). Vigor ( $\alpha=.769$ ), Dedication ( $\alpha=.871$ ), and Absorption ( $\alpha=.707$ ) obtained good internal reliability (Table 2) and model fit index in the CFA (Table 3).

The Job Insecurity Scale (JIS) (De Witte, 2000) was used to measure perceived job instability. The scale is unidimensional with 4-items following a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) ('I think I might lose my job in the near future'). JIS obtained good internal consistency ( $\alpha=.759$ ) (Table 2) and good model fit index (Table 3)

Financial Well-being Scale (FWBS) was used to measure the financial preparedness of the employees during emergencies. The Financial preparedness for emergencies subscale was used to measure the financial capacity of employees during the pandemic. It is a 3-item scale with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree) ('If I lose my job today, I have enough money to cope with my expenses'). The scale obtained ( $\alpha=.878$ ) good internal reliability (Table 2) and good model fit index (Table 3).

Work Climate Inventory Short Form (WCI-SF) was used to measure colleague and supervisor autonomy support (Bard et al., 2004). WCI-SF is composed of 6-items and duplicated to measure both colleague and supervisor autonomy support. The scale follows a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items are 'I feel that my peers provide me choices and options.' and 'I feel that my immediate supervisor provides me choices and options'. WCI obtained good internal reliability (Table 2) and model fit index (Table 3) on Supervisor ( $\alpha=.913$ ) and Colleague ( $\alpha=.877$ ) support.

### **Ethical Considerations**

Ethics Review Committee of our university approved the study for data gathering on December 2, 2021 with the protocol number 2021-414. Ethics review assures the voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity, data privacy, and data management.

### **Data Analysis**

This study used two data analysis techniques, namely: confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation models.

## **Result**

Before the main analysis, a preliminary analysis was conducted to establish the reliability and validity of the scales. Coefficient alpha was obtained as the indicator of internal consistency and Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assure the test validity. SPSS version 23 was used for all the analyses. Using SPSS AMOS, separate structural equation modeling (SEM) will be used to investigate direct paths of autonomy support, work engagement, well-being, hope, and self-efficacy to well-being.

**Table 1.** Demographic Profile

|                        | M         | SD         | Range                 |
|------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------------------|
| Age                    | 39.3      | 10.8       | 21-79                 |
|                        | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
| Male                   | 125       | 39.7%      | 39.7%                 |
| Female                 | 190       | 60.3%      | 100%                  |
|                        | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
| Legally Separated      | 4         | 1.3%       | 1.3%                  |
| Married                | 170       | 54%        | 55.2%                 |
| Never Married          | 122       | 38.7%      | 94%                   |
| Separated              | 8         | 2.5%       | 96.5%                 |
| Widowed                | 11        | 3.5%       | 100%                  |
|                        | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
| Full-time Contractual  | 7         | 2.2%       | 2.2%                  |
| Full-time Probationary | 78        | 24.8%      | 27%                   |
| Full-time Regular      | 193       | 61.3%      | 88.3%                 |
| Part-time              | 37        | 11.7%      | 100%                  |
|                        | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
| Secondary Education    | 3         | 1%         | 1%                    |
| Vocational Course      | 3         | 0.9%       | 1.9%                  |
| Associate Degree       | 6         | 1.9%       | 3.8%                  |
| Bachelor's Degree      | 126       | 40%        | 43.8%                 |
| Master's Degree        | 126       | 40%        | 83.8%                 |
| Doctorate              | 49        | 15.6%      | 99.4%                 |
| Post doc               | 2         | 0.6%       | 100%                  |

*Note: N = 315*

Table 2. Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics

|               | M     | SD    | $\alpha$ | 1        | 2        | 3        | 4        | 5        | 6        | 7        | 8        | 9        | 10       | 11       | 12       | 13       | 14      | 15 |
|---------------|-------|-------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|---------|----|
| 1. PWB        | 4.01  | .859  | .883     |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 2. SWB        | 3.597 | 1.068 | .880     | .749***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 3. EWB        | 4.07  | .891  | .901     | .785***  | .710***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 4. Vigor      | 4.45  | 1.033 | .769     | .561***  | .513***  | .565***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 5. Dedication | 5.07  | .978  | .871     | .554***  | .535***  | .539***  | .765***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 6. Absorption | 4.713 | .966  | .707     | .287***  | .321***  | .275***  | .583***  | .633***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 7. SAS        | 6.319 | .913  | .959     | .295***  | .315***  | .314***  | .441***  | .524***  | .341***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 8. CAS        | 6.229 | .877  | .960     | .203***  | .245***  | .188***  | .323***  | .421***  | .252***  | .252***  |          |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 9. Int Hope   | 3.51  | .423  | .810     | .623***  | .482***  | .586***  | .554***  | .544***  | .362***  | .416***  | .274***  |          |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 10. PeHope    | 3.01  | .695  | .928     | .278***  | .369***  | .246***  | .228***  | .244***  | .242***  | .268***  | .343***  | .405***  |          |          |          |          |         |    |
| 11. PaHope    | 3.32  | .695  | .934     | .442***  | .454***  | .437***  | .379***  | .377***  | .223***  | .236***  | .222***  | .447***  | .529***  |          |          |          |         |    |
| 12. SpHope    | 3.77  | .503  | .964     | .523***  | .461***  | .516***  | .416***  | .408***  | .288***  | .359***  | .150***  | .498***  | .220***  | .425***  |          |          |         |    |
| 13. OSE       | 5.27  | .610  | .902     | .482***  | .360***  | .389***  | .529***  | .542***  | .382***  | .360***  | .361***  | .643***  | .262***  | .242***  | .264***  |          |         |    |
| 14. JI        | 1.80  | .873  | .759     | -.381*** | -.303*** | -.331*** | -.328*** | -.339*** | -.135*** | -.215*** | -.184*** | -.341*** | -.107*** | -.247*** | -.229*** | -.280*** |         |    |
| 15. FP        | 4.41  | 1.69  | .878     | .224***  | .150***  | .257***  | .231***  | .167***  | .146***  | .107***  | .093***  | .273***  | .038***  | .132***  | .102***  | .313***  | -.168** | -  |

Note: PWB - Psychological Well-being, SWB - Social Well-being, EWB - Emotional Well-being, SAS-Supervisor Autonomy Support, CAS- Colleague Autonomy Support, Int Hope- Internal Hope, Pe Hope - Peer Hope, Pa Hope - parent external hope, Sp Hope - spiritual external hope, OSE - Occupational Self-efficacy, JI - Job Insecurity, EFP-Financial Preparedness



**Table 3.** Results of Confirmatory Factory Analysis

|  | $\chi^2$ | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> | CFI  | TLI  | RMSEA | SRMR  |
|--|----------|-----------|----------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Mental Health Continuum (Three-Factor Model)                 | 278.147  | 74        | <.001    | .983 | .924 | .094  | .0483 |
| Mental Health Continuum (Modified Three-Factor Model)        | 185.586  | 69        | <.001    | .963 | .953 | .073  | .0430 |
| Work Climate Inventory Scale (Two-Factor Model)              | 288.605  | 53        | <.001    | .947 | .934 | .119  | .0320 |
| Work Climate Inventory Scale (Modified Two-Factor Model)     | 127.338  | 42        | <.001    | .981 | .970 | .080  | .028  |
| Uretch Work Engagement Scale (Three-Factor Model)            | 89.284   | 24        | <.001    | .960 | .941 | .093  | .0451 |
| Uretch Work Engagement Scale (Modified Three-Factor Model)   | 48.908   | 21        | <.001    | .983 | .971 | .065  | .0313 |
| Locus of Hope Scale (Four-Factor Model)                      | 1116     | 428       | <.001    | .916 | .909 | .071  | .050  |
| Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (One-Factor Model)          | 57.2     | 9         | <.001    | .957 | .928 | .130  | .034  |
| Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (Modified One-Factor Model) | 16.5     | 8         | <.05     | .992 | .986 | .058  | .019  |
| Job Insecurity Scale (One-Factor Model)                      | 1.90     | 2         | .386     | 1.00 | 1.00 | .000  | 0.013 |
| Emergency Financial Preparedness (One-Factor Model)          | 2.80     | 0         | <.001    | 1.00 | 1.00 | .000  | .000  |

Note: *N* = 315

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Table 3) on Mental Health Continuum ( $\chi^2$  (74) = 278.147,  $p$ <.001, CFI = .983, TLI = .924, RMSEA = .094, SRMR = .0483), Work Climate Inventory ( $\chi^2$  (53) = 288.605,  $p$ <.001, CFI = .947, TLI = .934, RMSEA = .119, SRMR = .032), Uretch Work Engagement Scale ( $\chi^2$  (24) = 89.284,  $p$ <.001, CFI = .960, TLI = .941, RMSEA = .093, SRMR = .0451), and Occupational Self-efficacy ( $\chi^2$  (9) = 57.2,  $p$ <.001, CFI = .957, TLI = .928, RMSEA = .130, SRMR = .034) obtained good fit indices. Analyzing the modification indices of Mental Health Continuum (Psychological Well-being- 10 & 12, 11 & 12, and 12 & 13;  $\chi^2$  (69) = 185.586,  $p$ <.001, CFI = .963, TLI = .953, RMSEA = .073, SRMR = .043), Work Climate Inventory (Colleague autonomy support, 1 & 2, 1 & 5, 2 & 5, 2 & 3, 3 & 5, 5 & 6; and items

for Supervisor autonomy support 7 & 8, 7 & 12, 8 & 9, 9 & 11, 9 & 12, and 11 & 12;  $\chi^2$  (42) =127.338 ,  $p < .001$ , CFI =.981 , TLI =.970 , RMSEA =.080 , SRMR =.028); , Uretch Work Engagement Scale( 1 & 2, 4 & 6, and 8 & 9;  $\chi^2$  (21) =48.908,  $p < .001$ , CFI =.983, TLI =.971 , RMSEA =.065, SRMR =.0313 ), and Occupational Self-efficacy (5 & 6;  $\chi^2$  (8) = 16.5,  $p < .05$ , CFI =.992, TLI =.986, RMSEA =.058, SRMR =.019 ) allowed items from similar subscale to covary. This yielded excellent fit index for all of the measures.

Locus of Hope Scale ( $\chi^2$  (428) =1116,  $p < .001$ , CFI =.916, TLI =.909, RMSEA =.071, SRMR =.050 ), Job Insecurity Scale ( $\chi^2$  (2) =1.90,  $p = 3.86$ , CFI =1.00, TLI =1.00, RMSEA =.000, SRMR =.000 ), and Financial Preparedness in Emergency obtained excellent fit index without any modification ( $\chi^2$  (0) =2.80,  $p < .001$ , CFI =1.00, TLI =1.00, RMSEA =.000, SRMR =.000).

**Table 4.** Model Fit Indices with Well-being as outcome

|   | $\chi^2$ | df | p     | CFI  | TLI  | RMSEA | SRMR |
|---|----------|----|-------|------|------|-------|------|
| Supervisor and Colleague Autonomy Support | 4.728    | 4  | .316  | .999 | .998 | .024  | .016 |
| Locus of Hope                             | 32.856   | 8  | .000  | .978 | .942 | .099  | .026 |
| Occupational Self-efficacy                | 6.396    | 2  | 0.041 | .993 | .980 | .084  | .019 |
| Work Engagement                           | 6.862    | 6  | .334  | .999 | .998 | 0.021 | .013 |
| Job Insecurity                            | 1.567    | 2  | .457  | 1.00 | 1.00 | .000  | .009 |
| Financial Preparedness                    | 5.46     | 2  | .065  | .994 | .983 | .074  | .022 |

#### **Structural Models with Well-being as Outcome**

Supervisor and colleague autonomy support were allowed to covary and obtained excellent fit indices ( $\chi^2$  (4) =4.728,  $p = .316$ , CFI =.999, TLI =.998, RMSEA =.024, SRMR =.016). The locus of hope (internal, peer, parent, and spiritual) were covaried and obtained good fit indexes ( $\chi^2$  (8) =32.856,  $p < .001$ , CFI =.978, TLI =.942, RMSEA =.099, SRMR =.026). Likewise, Occupational self-efficacy also obtained good fit indices ( $\chi^2$  (2) =6.396,  $p < .05$ , CFI =.993, TLI =.980, RMSEA =.084, SRMR =.019). Components of work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption) were covaried resulting to excellent model fit ( $\chi^2$  (6) =6.862,  $p = .334$ , CFI =.999, TLI =.998, RMSEA =.000, SRMR =.009). Job insecurity ( $\chi^2$  (2) =1.567,  $p = .457$ , CFI =1.00, TLI =1.00, RMSEA =.000, SRMR =.009) and Financial preparedness ( $\chi^2$  (2) =5.46,  $p < .001$ , CFI =.994, TLI =.983, RMSEA =.074, SRMR =.022) obtained excellent fit indices. All structural models obtained acceptable fit indices. Even models with good fit indices obtained excellent findings other than their RMSEA.

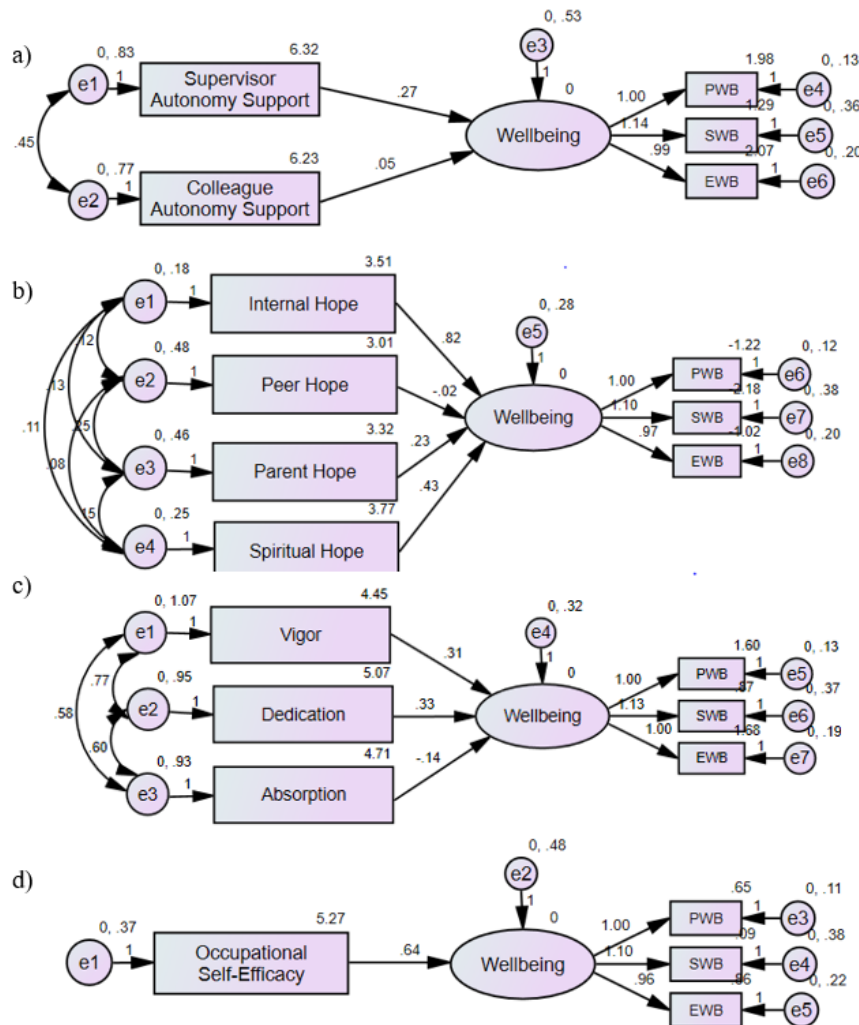
#### **Regression Estimates with Well-being as outcome**

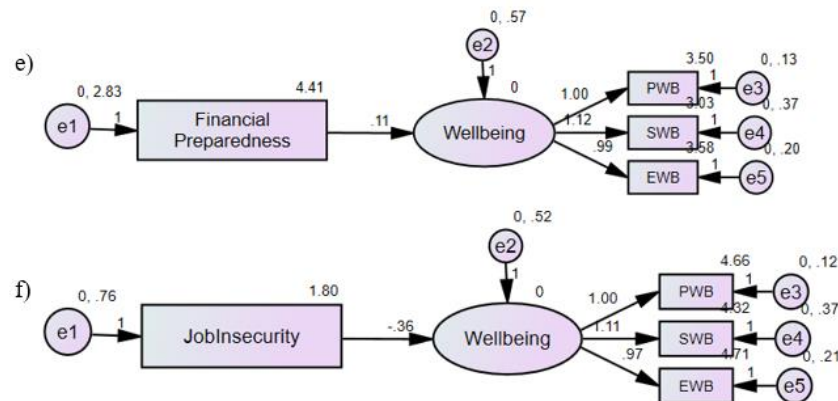
For autonomy support only supervisor autonomy support significantly predicts employee well-being ( $\beta = .316$ ,  $s.e. = .058$ ,  $p < .001$ ). All work engagement components predicted well-being (Vigor,  $\beta = .411$ ,  $s.e. = .054$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Dedication,  $\beta = .417$ ,  $s.e. = .060$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Absorption,  $\beta = -.171$ ,  $s.e. = -.048$ ,  $p < .01$ ). However, Absorption resulted to a negative link with well-being, in contrast with the expected results. Three loci of hope (internal hope,  $\beta = .443$ ,  $s.e. = .099$ ,  $p < .001$ ; parent external hope,  $\beta = .198$ ,  $s.e. = .062$ ,  $p < .001$ ; spiritual external hope,  $\beta = .277$ ,  $s.e. = .079$ ,  $p < .001$ ) significantly predict well-being aside from peer hope ( $\beta = -.017$ ,  $s.e. = .058$ ,  $p = .736$ ).

Occupational self-efficacy ( $\beta = .490$ ,  $s.e. = .069$ ,  $p < .001$ ), job insecurity ( $\beta = -.398$ ,  $s.e. = .050$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and financial preparedness during emergency ( $\beta = .248$ ,  $s.e. = .027$ ,  $p < .001$ ) predicted well-being.

**Table 5.** Regression Estimates with Well-being as Outcome

| Variable                    | $\beta$ | s.e. | P-value    |
|-----------------------------|---------|------|------------|
| Supervisor Autonomy Support | .316    | .058 | $p < .001$ |
| Colleague Autonomy Support  | .060    | .060 | .375       |
| Vigor                       | .411    | .054 | $p < .001$ |
| Dedication                  | .417    | .060 | $p < .001$ |
| Absorption                  | -.171   | .048 | $p < .01$  |
| Internal Hope               | .443    | .099 | $p < .001$ |
| Peer Hope                   | -.017   | .058 | .736       |
| Parent External Hope        | .198    | .062 | $p < .001$ |
| Spiritual External Hope     | .277    | .079 | $p < .001$ |
| Occupational Self-efficacy  | .490    | .069 | $p < .001$ |
| Job Insecurity              | -.398   | .050 | $p < .001$ |
| Financial Preparedness      | .248    | .027 | $p < .001$ |





**Figure 1.** Path models

Note: a) Supervisor and Colleague Autonomy Support, b) Locus of Hope, c) Work Engagement, d) Occupational Self-efficacy, e) Financial Preparedness, f) Job Insecurity

## Discussion

Findings reveal that supervisor autonomy support predicts well-being, providing further evidence that autonomy-supportive supervisors improve the well-being of educators and staff while facing struggles during the pandemic. In terms of work engagement, employee vigor and dedication significantly predict well-being. Indicating that employee enthusiasm and effort could improve well-being. However, employee work absorption has an inverse link to well-being in contrast with the expected findings. Employee attachment and dedication at work do not improve mental health. It could be that employees during the pandemic extended their working hours to fulfill their duties which could result in possible distress rather than improved well-being. In terms of employee psychological capital, findings on occupational self-efficacy are aligned with the hypothesis. Suggesting that the beliefs of an employee to perform their work duties has a positive impact on their mental health. On the other hand, findings on internal hope, parent external hope, and spiritual external hope supported the hypothesized link with well-being. Peer hope did not obtain significant findings. Indicating that an employee's hopeful thinking, and parents' spirituality as external sources of hope positively influence well-being. Lastly, Job insecurity obtained a negative link with well-being while financial preparedness during emergencies is positively linked with well-being.

## Social Resources

Autonomy-supportive supervisors positively contribute to the mental health of employees. Indicating that deans, department chairs, and unit heads improve the well-being of their subordinates by serving as a source of social motivation. Our findings are aligned with existing research on the importance of respecting autonomy in improving well-being in an organization (Slemp et al., 2018). Encouraging employees to fulfill their duties in their means, and promoting enthusiasm, and persistence improve the well-being of employees (Deci et al., 2001). The unfamiliar working conditions brought by the online teaching set up forced isolation of employees and challenges fulfill their responsibilities which caused mental health issues (Embalsado et al., 2022; Nasr, 2020). Extant literature shows that support from supervisors could alleviate the distress and improve the well-being of employees as they confront personal and occupational challenges (Embalsado et al., 2022; Ebersold et al., 2019). Supervisors that understand the experiences of their subordinates serve as a scaffold that guides educators and

staff to adapt and experience better well-being. While autonomy support from colleagues did not have a significant impact on well-being. This shows that during the strict implementation of full-online learning, the educators and staff in universities rely on their supervisors as sources of instructional support and their families as pillars of emotional stability.

### **Psychological Resources**

Evidence supports the positive effect of occupational self-efficacy and hope to well-being. Self-efficacy and hope are internally regulated psychological states that drive a person to believe in themselves and reach their goals (Lutahans, 2002). The occupational self-efficacy of educators and staff allows them to believe in their capacity to reach their goals. Even faced with ambiguous job demands educators and staff that remain calm, look at their previous success and capacity to complete tasks, and strive to meet their deadlines tend to have a positive influence on their well-being (Klassen & Durksen, 2014; Milam et al., 2018). Those who believe in their capacity tend to experience better mental health amidst difficult situations since they internally attribute the outcomes rather than attributing failure and success to their environment like the pandemic (Bandura, 1998; Iskander, 2009). The findings also support literature on the positive effect of a person's agency in surpassing challenges. Implying that believing in one's capabilities can mitigate adverse mental health issues.

Occupational self-efficacy is limited to the agency to carry out work it does not involve the strategies and alternatives to reach the goals. Hope addresses this gap, hope involves the personal agency (i.e., belief in oneself) and pathways (i.e., strategies and alternatives) to reach goals (Snyder et al., 2000). Our findings support the literature on the positive influence of hope on well-being (Bai et al., 2017; Snyder et al., 2000). However, literature on hope in organizations emphasized internal hope and not external sources of hope. The Philippines as a collectivist culture value external sources of hope. Bernardo (2010) extended the hope model and include parents, peers, and spirituality as external hope. Our study indicates that parent and spiritual external hope predict the well-being of employees and staff in universities. Parents are natural sources of support, guidance, and emotional stability (Marbell & Grolnick, 2013). The guidance and support from parents provide agency and ways to surpass difficulties which improve well-being. Considering that education and office work is done online, educators and staff spend more time with their parents and could rely on them more as pillars of hope.

Findings indicate that spiritual external hope predicts well-being. The Philippines is known as a religious country (Madrigal et al., 2020). Filipinos flock to the church and regularly attend mass even during the pandemic. People adapted their church involvement by attending mass online and forming a makeshift altar home (del Castillo et al., 2021; Galang et al., 2021). Literature in Filipino spirituality indicates that devotees pray for guidance and support from God (Yabut, 2013). Filipino usual cope with difficulties by resorting to private spaces like their spiritual experiences (del Castillo & Alino, 2020). They believe that God's grace and blessings could help them confront their issues in life. The positive impact of spiritual external hope on educators and staff shed light on the importance of spirituality in coping with difficult situations. Contrasting with the positive influence of parent and spiritual hope, peer external hope fails to predict well-being. Since work is mostly done online, employees spend most of their time at home, giving less time to interact with peers (Embalsado et al., 2022). Spending more time with their families makes them more influential in their well-being.

### **Work Engagement**

Work vigor and dedication have a positive effect on the well-being of educators and staff during the pandemic. Energetic and resilient employees feel satisfied and appreciate their jobs optimally functioning to fulfill their duties (Ariza-Montes et al., 2019). The commitment of educators and staff to accomplish their tasks amidst the uncertainty and unfamiliarity of the pandemic influences their well-being. Those who are dedicated as observed by their enthusiasm, and pride in their work are less likely to experience adverse mental health (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). However, employees who are absorbed or fully occupied by their work tend

to experience lower well-being. Considering the shift to online learning from the traditional face-to-face demands educators adapt class instructions, modules, and classroom management; while university staff is expected to virtually carry on with their tasks (Embalsado et al., 2022; Syrek et al., 2022). Absorption could be detrimental to well-being since employees tend to extend work hours, and spend less personal time and social interaction, especially during the pandemic. It is evident that employees who believe in their capacity to cope with the work demands feels satisfied, enthusiastic, and proud of their job develop well-being.

### **Employment and Economic Factors**

Evidence suggest the negative effect of job insecurity to well-being of employees. Our findings support existing literature on the detrimental effect of job insecurity to mental health (Silla et al., 2008; Üngüren et al., 2021; Vander Elst et al., 2014). The loss of control and uncertainty in the environment for an extended period does not only lead to adverse mental health but economic difficulties. (i.e., Menéndez-Espina et al., 2019; Vander Elst et al., 2014). Employees will continuously perceive job instability until the unemployment rate falls, especially during the pandemic (Keim et al., 2014; Üngüren et al., 2021).

Financial preparedness during emergencies positively influences well-being. The pandemic caused financial disruption which hampered regular activities dealing with unexpected health expenses and job insecurity (Abrantes-Braga & Veludo-de-Oliveria, 2018). Educators and staff that are financially prepared to face the financial uncertainties experienced better mental health. According to Choi et al. (2020), even though high-income individuals express a lower level of financial stress they are also high-income and educated individuals are also susceptible to financial problems if a situation hampered their ability to meet their needs. Financial preparedness for emergencies during unexpected events like the pandemic could limit its detrimental effect (Abrantes-Braga & Veludo-de-Oliveria, 2018).

### **Scope of the Study**

The study also has limitations. We utilized self-report instruments which contain forced-choice items. Scholars could conduct qualitative research to capture the experiences of teachers in terms of the social, psychological, work, economic, and financial factors that affect their well-being. Since the data was gathered at one point in time it did not capture the long-term changes in the educator and staff well-being during the pandemic. Researchers could conduct daily diaries to capture the daily nuances of well-being. The data gathering was only focused on one institution with a larger sample size from different institutions to capture more variance.

Conceptually, we only explored the direct effect of autonomy support, work engagement, hope, occupational self-efficacy, job insecurity, and preparedness during the pandemic on well-being. Researchers could explore intervening models with the research variables. For instance, the Job Demand-Resource model (JD-R Model) suggests that environmental factors like support from supervisors and peers could improve work engagement and well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). They could also explore the potential mediating effect of work engagement between autonomy support and well-being. The JD-R Model also suggests that psychological capital like occupational self-efficacy and hope positively affect work engagement and well-being. Moderating or mediating effects of this psychological capital could be observed. Furthermore, scholars could conduct further validation of occupational self-efficacy in different cultures since it is often overshadowed by general measures of self-efficacy (i.e., Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). The traditional conceptualization of psychological capital emphasized the individualistic process, Bernardo (2010) extended the hope model by incorporating external sources of hope. The effect and interactions of internal and external sources hope could be further explored in the context of organizations. Lastly, studies on organizations during the pandemic are inclined toward well-being and positive organizational

research. The intervening effect of financial and employment factors has not gained enough attention. We suggest that future researchers consider the above-mentioned to provide well-rounded evidence of employee well-being during the pandemic.

## Conclusion

Our study extended the existing literature by providing social, psychological, work, employment, and financial factors that influence university educator and staff well-being. Findings indicate that supervisor autonomy support, occupational self-efficacy, hope (internal hope; and spiritual and parent external hope), work engagement, job insecurity, and financial preparedness for emergency affect well-being. We hope that our study could contribute to program development and further research on well-being in educational institutions.

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