RESEARCH PAPER

Impact of Employee Engagement Drivers on Job Satisfaction among Employees of Selected Organizations in Gujarat

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at the study of impact of employee engagement drivers on job satisfaction among employees working in selected organisations in Gujarat. Job satisfaction was dependent variable and eleven engagement drivers namely leadership, communication, cooperation, organisational support, work environment, equal opportunities, training and development, work itself, rewards and recognition, performance appraisal and work life balance were included as independent variables for the model. Single cross sectional research design was used in this study. Data was collected through self administered and structured questionnaire. Non probability convenience sampling was used. 250 was the sample size. Pearson correlations showed that job satisfaction had significant positive associations with all engagement drivers. JS was found to have the strongest relationships with work itself and work environment followed. Multiple regression results indicated that engagement drivers had significant impact on job satisfaction. Model explained 66.8% of variance. When examined simultaneously in a model, only work itself, work environment and work life balance were significant and unique predictors. Thus, findings revealed multiple engagement drivers are associated with job satisfaction but employees' core work experience, workplace environment and work life balance are the most important drivers when all engagement drivers are measured together.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Employee Engagement and Engagement Drivers
How to cite this article: Sayed N, Patel CR. Impact of Employee Engagement Drivers on Job Satisfaction Among Employees of Selected Organizations in Gujarat. Int J Drug Deliv Technol. 2026;16(22s): 377-386. DOI: 10.25258/ijddt.16.22s.43
Source of support: Nil., **Conflict of interest:** None

1.Introduction

Job satisfaction is an important aspect for organisations because it reflects employees' overall evaluation of their job as well as working conditions (Locke, 1976; Spector, 1997). Engagement related attitudes are also critical because they shape how much energy and involvement employees bring to their roles (Saks, 2006). Recent global evidence highlighted engagement trends globally. Like, global employee engagement fell to 21% in 2024 and Gallup estimated that disengagement cost world economy US$438 billion in lost productivity. Gallup also noted that US$9.6 trillion could be added to the global economy if the workforce were fully engaged. (Gallup, 2025). These numbers are huge enough to highlight importance of engagement.

Concerns are also visible in South Asia and India too. Gallup's release reported that employee engagement in South Asia declined from 33% to 26% and India reported 32% engagement which was some what higher than global average (Gallup, 2024). These figures suggested that engagement remained key issue.

Social exchange reasoning indicated when employees perceived fair treatment, support and recognition then they responded with more positive attitudes toward their job and organisation (Saks, 2006). Practice related engagement also highlighted that drivers such as leadership, communication, development and working conditions tend to operate together as a "bundle" of workplace experiences that shape employee attitudes (Robinson et al., 2004).

Engagement drivers are often highly correlated so testing them together is necessary to identify unique predictors of job satisfaction. As job satisfaction is desired outcome and engagement drivers are considered to lead employees to better satisfaction, it is interesting to study these constructs in the present context.

2. Literature Review

Job satisfaction refers to employees' overall evaluation of their job and work experiences. Satisfaction can include intrinsic aspects like meaning, achievement, interest in work etc. and extrinsic aspects like pay, benefits, recognition, supervision and working conditions. Bin Shmailan (2016) explained that satisfaction is influenced by factors such as job fit, communication quality, appreciation and clarity of objectives, and these factors also connect satisfaction with broader organisational outcomes.

Chaudhry, Jariko, Mushtaque, Mahesar and Ghani (2017) studied working environment, training and development, employee engagement, job satisfaction and organisational

performance. Their results supported that working environment and training and development were important workplace inputs and job satisfaction played a meaningful role alongside engagement. Vorina, Simonič and Vlasova (2017) reported a positive association between engagement and job satisfaction and they found that engaged employees often felt more positive about their jobs. Abderrahim and İyigün (2023) found significant positive correlations between engagement and satisfaction.

2.1 Engagement Drivers and Job Satisfaction

Popli and Rizvi (2016) showed that leadership style was a meaningful driver of employee engagement. Robinson et al. (2004) also positioned management practices as central in building engagement attitudes among employees and they are closely related to satisfaction.

Bin Shmailan (2016) explicitly discussed good communication as an element contributing to employee satisfaction. Anwar and Qadir (2017) examined work engagement elements that included communication and workload challenge and linked these with job satisfaction. Their findings indicated that communication-related work challenges were strongly associated with satisfaction outcomes. Bellani, Ramadhani and Tamar (2018) found cooperation strengthens satisfaction and engagement.

Saks (2006) included organisational resources such as support and fairness in explaining engagement and outcomes including job satisfaction. Khodakarami and Dirani (2020) noted that organisational support is meaningfully associated with engagement as it is strongly connected with job satisfaction in many organisational studies.

Chaudhry et al. (2017) showed that working environment influenced organisational outcomes through employee engagement and job satisfaction. Ang and Rabo (2018) found that employee engagement was positively related to job satisfaction dimensions. Anwar and Qadir (2017) explicitly included equal opportunities as one of the elements examined in relation to job satisfaction and noted that fairness and opportunity-related conditions are part of what shapes employees' satisfaction.

Chaudhry et al. (2017) found training and development was linked with outcomes through job satisfaction and engagement. Achmad et al. (2023) tested job satisfaction and engagement.

Anwar and Qadir (2017) highlighted work challenge as the strongest engagement element linked with job satisfaction. Ang and Rabo (2018) also framed job satisfaction as multi-dimensional and partly influenced by job environment and management relations. Ang and Rabo (2018) included compensation and benefits as a job satisfaction dimension and found positive relationships with employee engagement. Garg, Dar and Mishra (2017) highlighted intrinsic versus extrinsic satisfaction is important in explaining positive work attitudes such as engagement.

Saks (2006) included procedural justice when explaining engagement and outcomes such as job satisfaction. Employee commitment and engagement practices highlighted the role of fair systems and transparent decision-making in building positive work attitudes (Dessler, 1999; Robinson et al., 2004). Bedarkar and Pandita (2014) discussed work–life balance as one of the key engagement drivers and noted that work life balance reduces strain and supports well-being as it is commonly treated as an important pathway to satisfaction and engagement in workplace.

3. Research Gap

Many studies examined engagement and job satisfaction as directly related attitudes (Vorina et al., 2017; Abderrahim & İyigün, 2023) but very few studies tested a broad set of engagement drivers together to explain job satisfaction in one model. This research extended prior work by treating key engagement drivers like leadership, communication, cooperation, organisational support, work environment, equal opportunities, training and development, work itself, rewards, performance appraisal and work–life balance etc. It was also significant direction to find out which of these drivers significantly predicted job satisfaction.

4. Research Methodology

This research was focused on two research objectives; 1) to study impact of employee engagement drivers on job satisfaction and 2) to identify which drivers significantly predicted job satisfaction. Descriptive single cross sectional research design was used. Data was collected using non probability convenience sampling method. Unit of analysis was individual employees working in manufacturing companies in Ahmedabad, Gujarat. 250 responses were found suitable and analysed for inferences. Sample size was appropriate for regression analysis with multiple predictors and is consistent with common guidance for multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Questionnaire was prepared to collect primary data. It included employee engagement drivers as independent variables (leadership, communication, cooperation, organisational support, work environment, equal opportunities, training and development, work itself, rewards and recognition, performance appraisal and work life balance) based on literature review. Job satisfaction was measured as dependent variable. Reliability was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha and the scales showed acceptable to excellent internal consistency based on common research thresholds (DeVellis, 2017; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Item level diagnostics were also applied and one reverse worded item from the Equal Opportunities scale was removed due to weak performance and the final score was computed using remaining items (DeVellis, 2017; Field, 2018). Pearson correlation was used to examine relationships among variables and multiple linear regression was conducted to identify which drivers significantly predicted job satisfaction while controlling for other drivers (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019). Regression assumptions were assessed and supported appropriateness of the test (Field, 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

5.1 Demographic

5. Data Analysis

Table no. 1 Demographic

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Age	18-25	28	11.2
	26-35	146	58.4
	36-45	56	22.4
	46-60	20	8
Gender	Male	214	85.6
	Female	36	14.4
Education	Diploma or Certificate Course	16	6.4
	Graduate	96	38.4
	Post Graduate	138	55.2
Experience	0-5 years	59	23.6
	6-10 years	87	34.8
	11-15 years	61	24.4
	More than 15 Years	43	17.2
Ownership Type	Sole Proprietorship	11	4.4
	Partnership / LLP	13	5.2
	Private LTD	144	57.6
	Public LTD	82	32.8
No. of Employees	Upto 50	17	6.8
	51-100	16	6.4
	101-250	31	12.4
	251-500	23	9.2
	More than 500	163	65.2
Size of Organisation	Small Scale	24	9.6
	Medium Scale	95	38
	Large Scale	131	52.4

Table 1 summarises demographic and organisational characteristics of 250 respondents using frequency and percentage which is a standard approach for describing sample composition in survey-based studies (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019). Age distribution shows that most respondents were in the 26–35 years group (n = 146, 58.4%), followed by 36–45 years (n = 56, 22.4%). Smaller proportions were from 18–25 years (n = 28, 11.2%) and 46–60 years (n = 20, 8.0%). This indicates that responses mainly represent early-to-mid career employees.

Gender composition indicates a higher representation of male respondents (n = 214, 85.6%) compared with female respondents (n = 36, 14.4%). Education profile shows that more than half of respondents were postgraduates (n = 138, 55.2%), followed by graduates (n = 96, 38.4%) while diploma or certificate holders formed a smaller group (n = 16, 6.4%). This shows that respondents were largely educated at graduate level and above.

Work experience distribution indicates that the largest group had 6–10 years of experience (n = 87, 34.8%), followed by 11–15 years (n = 61, 24.4%) and 0–5 years (n = 59, 23.6%) while 17.2% had more than 15 years of experience (n = 43). This suggests participation across multiple experience levels with stronger representation of mid-experience employees.

Organisational characteristics show that most respondents worked in Private Ltd organisations (n = 144, 57.6%) followed by Public Ltd organisations (n = 82, 32.8%), while fewer respondents were from Partnership/LLP (n = 13, 5.2%) and Sole proprietorship (n = 11, 4.4%). Employee strength indicates that most respondents belonged to organisations with more than 500 employees (n = 163, 65.2%), with smaller shares across upto 50 (n = 17, 6.8%),

51–100 (n = 16, 6.4%), 101–250 (n = 31, 12.4%) and 251–500 (n = 23, 9.2%). Size classification further shows that respondents mainly came from large-scale organisations (n = 131, 52.4%) and medium-scale organisations (n = 95, 38.0%) while small-scale organisations were less represented (n = 24, 9.6%). These distributions present overall sample context for interpreting subsequent analyses on job satisfaction and engagement drivers (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019).

5.2 Descriptive

Table No. 2 Descriptive (N=250)				
Variable	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Job Satisfaction	3.8784	0.86536	-0.757	0.73
Leadership	4.018	0.84337	-1.239	1.703
Communication	3.838	0.9272	-0.943	0.843
Cooperation	3.9293	0.83481	-0.912	1.073
Organisational Support	3.6853	0.70036	-0.789	1.15
Work Environment	3.9749	0.86893	-1.112	1.502
Equal Opportunity	3.897	0.84617	-0.903	1.208
Training and Development	3.812	0.99618	-0.87	0.392
Work Itself	4.0007	0.74108	-0.847	1.484
Reward and Recognition	3.6507	0.90653	-0.401	-0.25
Performance Appraisal	3.818	0.89727	-0.737	0.618
Work Life Balance	4.0248	0.80831	-0.965	1.122

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) along with skewness and kurtosis values for job satisfaction and the employee engagement drivers. Reporting mean and standard deviation is appropriate for Likert-type composite variables because it summarises central tendency and variability in respondents' perceptions (Field, 2018). Overall, the mean scores show that respondents reported moderate-to-high levels on all drivers and job satisfaction, with values ranging from 3.65 to 4.03.

For the dependent variable, Job Satisfaction recorded a mean of 3.88 (SD = 0.87), indicating generally favourable satisfaction levels. Among the drivers, the highest mean values were for Work Life Balance (M = 4.02, SD = 0.81), Leadership (M = 4.02, SD = 0.84) and Work Itself (M = 4.00, SD = 0.74), suggesting respondents viewed these aspects positively. Drivers with relatively lower mean values were Reward and Recognition (M = 3.65, SD = 0.91) and Organisational Support (M = 3.69, SD = 0.70), indicating comparatively weaker perceptions in these areas. Variability was highest for Training and Development (SD = 1.00) and Communication (SD = 0.93), showing greater differences in employee views for these drivers.

Skewness and kurtosis values were used to assess univariate normality, which is commonly reported before correlation and regression analysis (Hair et al., 2019). All variables showed negative skewness (−0.40 to −1.24), meaning responses were more concentrated toward higher agreement levels. Kurtosis values ranged from −0.25 to 1.70, indicating distributions that were generally close to normal with some variables showing slightly peaked distributions. Using common guidelines for large samples, skewness values within ±2 and kurtosis within ±7 indicate acceptable univariate normality for parametric analysis (Byrne, 2016; Hair et al., 2019). Since all variables fall within these recommended limits, the data demonstrate acceptable univariate normality, supporting the use of Pearson correlations and multiple regression in subsequent analysis (Field, 2018).

5.3 Reliability

Table no. 3 Reliability		
Variable	Cronbach's α	Items
Job Satisfaction	0.944	5
Leadership	0.958	10
Communication	0.911	4
Cooperation	0.879	3
Organisational Support	0.771	6
Work Environment	0.954	7
Equal Opportunity	0.881	4
Training and Development	0.964	8
Work Itself	0.902	6
Reward and Recognition	0.947	9
Performance Appraisal	0.912	4
Work Life Balance	0.941	5

Table 3 reports Cronbach's alpha values to assess internal consistency reliability for Job Satisfaction and each employee engagement driver scale. Cronbach's alpha is widely used to evaluate whether items within a scale measure the same underlying construct and values of .70 or higher are generally considered acceptable for research purposes (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In this study, all constructs reported alpha values above .70, indicating that the measurement scales demonstrate satisfactory to excellent internal consistency.

The Equal Opportunity scale originally had five items but showed poor reliability (α = .558). Item diagnostics showed that the reverse-worded item EO3 performed poorly because its corrected item–total correlation was negative (−.444), indicating it did not align with the overall construct and may have been misunderstood due to negative wording. Removing EO3 substantially improved reliability (α increased to .898), while removing other items did not produce a similar improvement. Based on standard

reliability criteria, EO3 was deleted and the final Equal Opportunity score was calculated using EO1, EO2, EO4 and EO5 (Barnette, 2000; DeVellis, 2017; Field, 2018; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

The dependent variable, Job Satisfaction, showed excellent reliability (α = .944) across 5 items, indicating consistent measurement of satisfaction among respondents. Among the employee engagement drivers, most constructs demonstrated very high reliability, including Training and Development (α = .964, 8 items), Leadership (α = .958, 10 items), Work Environment (α = .954, 7 items), Reward and Recognition (α = .947, 9 items) and Work Life Balance (α = .941, 5 items). These results show strong consistency among items in these scales.

Other drivers also showed good to excellent reliability, such as Performance Appraisal (α = .910, 4 items), Work Itself (α = .900, 6 items), Communication (α = .900, 4 items), Equal Opportunity (α = .881, 4 items) and Cooperation (α = .879, 3 items). Organisational Support (α = .771, 6 items) recorded the lowest alpha value, but it remains above the minimum acceptable threshold, indicating adequate reliability for further analysis. Overall, the reliability results support using these composite variables in correlation and regression analysis for testing the impact of employee engagement drivers on job satisfaction (Hair et al., 2019; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

5.4 Correlations

Table no. 4 Pearson Correlations among Study Variables (N = 250)

	JS	L	Com	Cop	OS	WE	EO	TD	W	RR	PA	WLB
JS	1	.646**	.680**	.585**	.666**	.741**	.718**	.716**	.759**	.685**	.690**	.632**
L	.646**	1	.709**	.568**	.647**	.690**	.731**	.711**	.707**	.566**	.609**	.514**
Com	.680**	.709**	1	.709**	.754**	.753**	.768**	.727**	.725**	.677**	.700**	.558**
Cop	.585**	.568**	.709**	1	.641**	.690**	.700**	.655**	.680**	.658**	.634**	.541**
OS	.6	.6	.7	.6	1	.7	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.5
	66**	47**	54**	41**		74**	31**	29**	09**	67**	75**	27**
WE	.741**	.690**	.753**	.690**	.774**	1	.768**	.772**	.791**	.774**	.742**	.655**
EO	.718**	.731**	.768**	.700**	.731**	.768**	1	.779**	.793**	.733**	.746**	.588**
TD	.716**	.711**	.727**	.655**	.729**	.772**	.779**	1	.777**	.737**	.731**	.637**
W	.759**	.707**	.725**	.680**	.709**	.791**	.793**	.777**	1	.785**	.754**	.652**
RR	.685**	.566**	.677**	.658**	.667**	.741**	.733**	.737**	.785**	1	.797**	.618**
PA	.690**	.609**	.700**	.634**	.675**	.742**	.746**	.731**	.754**	.797**	1	.579**
WLB	.632**	.514**	.558**	.541**	.527**	.655**	.588**	.637**	.652**	.618**	.579**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Where, L–Leadership, Com–Communication, Cop–Cooperation, OS–Organisational Support, WE–Work Environment, EO–Equal Opportunity, TD–Training and Development, W–Work Itself, RR–Remuneration and Reward, PA–Performance Appraisal, WLB–Work Life Balance, JS–Job Satisfaction

Table 4 reports Pearson correlation coefficients to examine the direction and strength of associations among job satisfaction and the employee engagement drivers. Pearson

correlation is appropriate when variables are continuous or composite scale scores and it helps assess whether higher perceptions of drivers are associated with higher job satisfaction (Field, 2018). All correlations in the table are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), indicating statistically meaningful positive relationships across the variables.

Relationship between drivers and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction (JS) showed positive and strong correlations with all engagement drivers, suggesting that employees who reported better perceptions of engagement drivers also reported higher job satisfaction. The strongest association with job satisfaction was observed for Work Itself ($r = .759$, $p < .01$), followed by Work Environment ($r = .741$, $p < .01$). High correlations were also found with Equal Opportunity ($r = .718$, $p < .01$), Training and Development ($r = .716$, $p < .01$), Communication ($r = .680$, $p < .01$) and Performance Appraisal ($r = .690$, $p < .01$). These results indicate that meaningful work content, supportive work conditions and fairness and development-related practices are strongly linked with job satisfaction in this sample.

Moderately high correlations were found between job satisfaction and Remuneration and Reward ($r = .685$, $p < .01$), Organisational Support ($r = .666$, $p < .01$) and Leadership ($r = .646$, $p < .01$), suggesting these drivers also relate strongly to satisfaction. Work Life Balance showed the lowest correlation with job satisfaction ($r = .632$, $p < .01$), but the magnitude still indicates a substantial positive association. Using common interpretation guidelines, correlations around .50 to .70 are considered moderate to strong while values above .70 indicate strong relationships, showing that most drivers had moderate-to-strong links with job satisfaction (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2018).

Inter-correlations among the employee engagement drivers

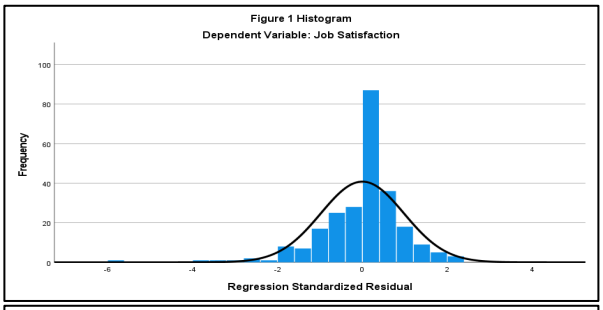
The driver variables themselves were also strongly interrelated, with several very high correlations. For example, Remuneration and Reward correlated strongly with Performance Appraisal ($r = .797$, $p < .01$) and Work Itself ($r = .785$, $p < .01$). Work Environment correlated highly with Work Itself ($r = .791$, $p < .01$) and with Organisational Support ($r = .774$, $p < .01$). Equal Opportunity also correlated strongly with Work Itself ($r = .793$, $p < .01$) and Training and Development ($r = .779$, $p < .01$). These strong intercorrelations indicate that employees who rated one engagement driver positively tended to rate other drivers positively as well, which is common in perception-based HR and engagement research where practices may be experienced as a bundle rather than in isolation (Hair et al., 2019).

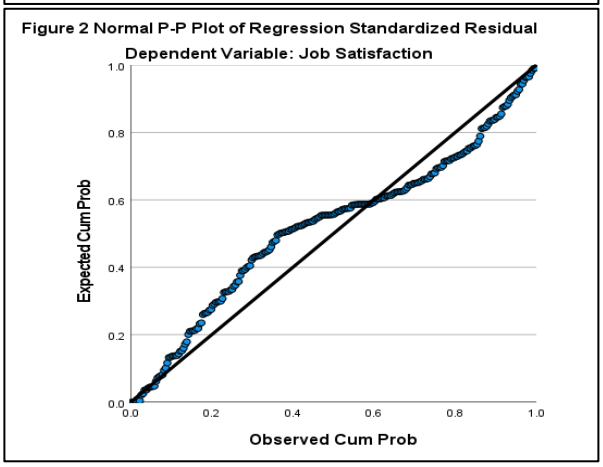
Because many correlations among predictors are high, the regression results should be interpreted with attention to multicollinearity diagnostics such as VIF and tolerance, which provide a clearer view of unique effects in the presence of correlated predictors (Hair et al., 2019). Overall, the correlation pattern supports Objective 1 by showing that all engagement drivers are positively associated with job satisfaction, providing a basis for the regression analysis to identify which drivers uniquely predict job satisfaction.

5.5 Multiple Regression

Assumptions of Regression

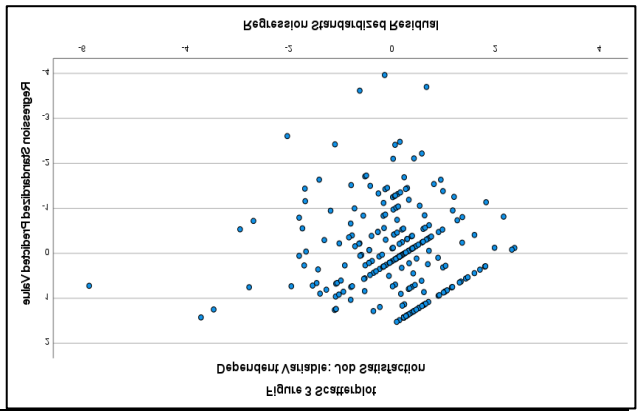
Figure 1 (Histogram of regression standardized residuals)





shows residuals centered close to zero with a roughly bell-shaped pattern. This distribution supports the assumption that residuals are approximately normally distributed which is commonly assessed through residual histograms in regression (Field, 2018).

Figure 2 (Normal P–P plot of regression standardized residuals) shows most points tracking closely along the diagonal reference line. This pattern indicates that residuals follow a near-normal distribution overall because observed cumulative probabilities align closely with expected cumulative probabilities under normality (Hair et al., 2019). Some departure from the line is visible toward higher



cumulative probabilities which suggests mild deviation in the upper tail though overall alignment remains acceptable for normality assessment in multiple regression (Field, 2018).

Figure 3 (Scatterplot of standardized predicted values vs standardized residuals) displays a broadly random spread of points with no clear funnel shape and no clear curved pattern. This supports the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity because residual variance appears reasonably similar across levels of predicted values and residuals do not show systematic structure (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Most residual values fall within about ±2 with a few more extreme negative values which is consistent with the presence of a small number of outlying residuals.

5.6 Model Summary

Table no. 5 Multiple Regression Model Summary Predicting Job Satisfaction

R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error	F	df1	df2	p	Durbin–Watson
0.817	0.668	0.653	0.50998	43.54	11	238	< .001	1.913

Note. Predictors entered: Leadership, Communication, Cooperation, Organisational Support, Work Environment, Equal Opportunity, Training and Development, Work Itself, Reward and Recognition, Performance Appraisal and Work Life Balance.

Table 5 presents the multiple regression model summary examining the combined effect of employee engagement drivers on job satisfaction. Multiple regression is used to estimate how well a set of predictors explains variation in a dependent variable while considering their combined influence (Field, 2018). The model produced a strong overall correlation between the predicted and observed values of job satisfaction (R = .817), showing a high level of association between the predictors and job satisfaction.

The model explained a substantial proportion of variance in job satisfaction, with R^2 = .668, indicating that 66.8% of the variability in job satisfaction was accounted for by the 11 engagement drivers included in the model. The adjusted R^2 = .653 shows that even after adjusting for the number of predictors and sample size, the model still explains 65.3% of the variance, suggesting the model has strong explanatory power and is not inflated due to including multiple predictors (Hair et al., 2019).

The overall model was statistically significant, $F(11, 238) = 43.54$, $p < .001$, meaning that the set of predictors, taken together, significantly predicted job satisfaction compared with a model with no predictors (Field, 2018). The standard error of the estimate (0.50998) indicates the average distance between observed job satisfaction scores and those predicted by the model, with lower values reflecting better prediction accuracy.

The Durbin–Watson statistic (1.913) is close to the ideal value of 2, suggesting that residuals are largely independent and there is no serious autocorrelation problem in the regression model, which supports the validity of the regression estimates (Field, 2018). Overall, Table 5 supports Objective 1 by showing that engagement drivers collectively have a strong and significant impact on job satisfaction, providing a robust basis for examining individual driver effects in the coefficients table for Objective 2 (Hair et al., 2019).

Table No. 6 ANOVA for Regression Model Predicting Job Satisfaction

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	124.564	11	11.324	43.54	< .001
Residual	61.899	238	0.26		
Total	186.463	249			

Table 6 presents the ANOVA results for the multiple regression model predicting job satisfaction from the employee engagement drivers. In regression, the ANOVA table tests whether the overall model explains a statistically significant amount of variance in the dependent variable compared with a model that contains no predictors (Field, 2018). This is done by comparing the explained variance (regression sum of squares) with the unexplained variance (residual sum of squares).

The results show that the predictors jointly explain a large portion of variance in job satisfaction, with a regression sum of squares (SS) of 124.564 across 11 degrees of freedom, producing a mean square (MS) of 11.324. The unexplained variance is represented by the residual SS of 61.899 with 238 degrees of freedom and an MS of 0.260. The model's F-statistic was $F(11, 238) = 43.54$, $p < .001$, indicating that the regression model significantly predicts job satisfaction and performs better than an intercept-only model (Field, 2018).

Overall, this ANOVA result confirms that the set of employee engagement drivers, considered together, provides a statistically significant explanation of job satisfaction in the sample which supports Objective 1 and justifies interpreting the individual regression coefficients to identify significant predictors under Objective 2 (Hair et al., 2019).

Table no. 7 Regression Coefficients Predicting Job Satisfaction

Variable	B	SE	β	T	p	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	0.032	0.22		0.147	.883		
Leadership	0.066	0.064	0.064	1.026	.306	0.358	2.791

Communication	0.065	0.067	0.07	0.974	.331	0.272	3.678
Cooperation	-0.07	0.061	-0.067	-1.138	.256	0.402	2.49
Organisational Support	0.064	0.083	0.052	0.77	.442	0.309	3.231
Work Environment	0.156	0.078	0.156	1.997	.047	0.228	4.385
Equal Opportunity	0.092	0.079	0.09	1.164	.246	0.233	4.29
Training and Development	0.063	0.064	0.073	0.984	.326	0.256	3.899
Work Itself	0.276	0.092	0.237	2.992	.003	0.223	4.487
Reward and Recognition	0.033	0.07	0.034	0.465	.643	0.257	3.887
Performance Appraisal	0.082	0.068	0.085	1.212	.227	0.282	3.541
Work Life Balance	0.153	0.057	0.143	2.686	.008	0.495	2.019
Note. B = unstandardized coefficient; β = standardized coefficient. p values are two-tailed.							

Table 7 presents the regression coefficients showing the unique contribution of each employee engagement driver in predicting job satisfaction while controlling for the other drivers in the model. In multiple regression, the unstandardized coefficient (B) indicates the expected change in job satisfaction for a one-unit increase in a predictor, holding other predictors constant, while the standardized coefficient (β) allows comparison of relative predictive strength across variables measured on different scales (Field, 2018). The model includes 11 predictors, so statistically significant coefficients indicate drivers that explain unique variance in job satisfaction beyond shared variance with other drivers (Hair et al., 2019).

Significant predictors of Job Satisfaction

Three drivers emerged as statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction:

Work Itself was the strongest predictor (B = 0.276, SE = 0.092, β = 0.237, t = 2.992, p = .003). This indicates that higher satisfaction with the nature of work is associated with higher job satisfaction when other drivers are controlled. The standardized effect (β = .237) shows it contributes the largest unique influence among the predictors in this model.

Work Environment also significantly predicted job satisfaction (B = 0.156, SE = 0.078, β = 0.156, t = 1.997, p = .047). This suggests that better perceptions of the work environment are linked with higher job satisfaction, even after accounting for other engagement drivers.

Work Life Balance significantly predicted job satisfaction (B = 0.153, SE = 0.057, β = 0.143, t = 2.686, p = .008). This shows that greater balance between work and personal life is associated with higher job satisfaction after controlling for the full set of predictors.

These results directly address Objective 2 by identifying the drivers that uniquely and significantly explain job satisfaction in the regression model (Field, 2018).

Non-significant predictors

Leadership, Communication, Cooperation, Organisational Support, Equal Opportunity, Training and Development, Reward and Recognition and Performance Appraisal did not show statistically significant unique effects ($p > .05$). Although these variables correlated strongly with job satisfaction in the correlation matrix, their non-significant regression coefficients suggest that much of their relationship with job satisfaction is shared with other predictors in the model rather than explaining unique variance (Hair et al., 2019).

Unstandardized Regression Equation (B values) Predicted Job Satisfaction (JS) was estimated using unstandardized coefficients as follows: JS = 0.032 + 0.066(L) + 0.065(Com) − 0.070(Cop) + 0.064(OS) + 0.156(WE) + 0.092(EO) + 0.063(TD) + 0.276(W) + 0.033(RR) + 0.082(PA) + 0.153(WLB)

Where L = Leadership, Com = Communication, Cop = Cooperation, OS = Organisational Support, WE = Work Environment, EO = Equal Opportunity, TD = Training and Development, W = Work Itself, RR = Reward and Recognition, PA = Performance Appraisal and WLB = Work Life Balance.

Standardized Regression Equation (β values) Using standardized beta coefficients, job satisfaction was expressed as: Z(JS) = 0.064 Z(L) + 0.070 Z(Com) − 0.067 Z(Cop) + 0.052 Z(OS) + 0.156 Z(WE) + 0.090 Z(EO) + 0.073 Z(TD) + 0.237 Z(W) + 0.034 Z(RR) + 0.085 Z(PA) + 0.143 Z(WLB)

Note. Z(JS) represents the standardized job satisfaction score and Z(X) represents standardized predictor scores.

6. Discussion of Result and Conclusion

Findings from employees in selected organisations in Gujarat, India showed that employee engagement drivers had a strong combined relationship with job satisfaction. The regression model was statistically significant, $F(11, 238) = 43.54$, $p < .001$, and explained a substantial share of job satisfaction ($R^2 = .668$, adjusted $R^2 = .653$). This supports the idea discussed in the literature that job satisfaction is shaped by multiple workplace experiences and that engagement-related drivers together form an important set of organisational levers linked with employees' overall work evaluation (Robinson et al., 2004; Saks, 2006). The demographic profile also indicated that most respondents were early-to-mid career employees working mainly in private and large organisations, which

provides context for interpreting the relative importance of different drivers in this sample (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019).

Bivariate analysis further supported Objective 1 because job satisfaction had significant positive correlations with all engagement drivers at the 0.01 level. The strongest associations were observed for work itself (r = .759) and work environment (r = .741), followed by equal opportunity (r = .718) and training and development (r = .716). This pattern is consistent with the view that satisfaction reflects both intrinsic experiences of work and extrinsic conditions such as environment, fairness and development, which have been highlighted in prior studies across contexts including Saudi Arabia, Pakistan and the Philippines (Ang & Rabo, 2018; Bin Shmailan, 2016; Chaudhry et al., 2017). The results also align with evidence that engagement and job satisfaction are closely connected across countries and sectors, supporting the relevance of examining workplace drivers as predictors of satisfaction (Abderrahim & İyigün, 2023; Vorina et al., 2017).

When all drivers were tested simultaneously in multiple regression to address Objective 2, only three drivers showed statistically significant unique effects on job satisfaction: work itself (β = .237, p = .003), work environment (β = .156, p = .047) and work life balance (β = .143, p = .008). Work itself emerged as the strongest predictor, indicating that employees' satisfaction increased most when they perceived their work as meaningful, engaging and positive in daily experience. This aligns with earlier evidence that work challenge and job content are strongly linked with satisfaction outcomes in private sector settings (Anwar & Qadir, 2017). The significant role of work environment and work life balance is also consistent with studies emphasizing that supportive working conditions and balance-related practices contribute to satisfaction and engagement outcomes (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014; Chaudhry et al., 2017).

Several drivers leadership, communication, cooperation, organisational support, equal opportunity, training and development, rewards and recognition and performance appraisal were not significant in the regression model even though they showed strong positive correlations with job satisfaction. This pattern suggests that these predictors share substantial variance with other drivers and therefore do not add unique explanatory power when all are included together, which is common when workplace practices are experienced as bundled and interrelated (Hair et al., 2019). The correlation matrix showed high intercorrelations among predictors and the VIF values were below 5, indicating multicollinearity was not critical but overlap was present enough to affect individual significance (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019). Therefore, these non-significant regression effects should be interpreted as "not uniquely predictive after controlling other drivers" rather than "unrelated to job satisfaction," which remains consistent with literature that positions leadership and communication as important upstream drivers of positive work attitudes (Popli & Rizvi, 2016; Robinson et al., 2004) and organisational support as a key resource linked with engagement and satisfaction outcomes (Khodakarami & Dirani, 2020; Saks, 2006).

Study concludes that employee engagement drivers jointly explain job satisfaction to a large extent in the Gujarat context and that the most influential unique predictors are work itself, work environment and work life balance. This addresses the research gap noted in the literature review by testing a broad set of engagement drivers together within one predictive framework rather than examining drivers in isolation. At the same time, because data were collected using a cross-sectional design with convenience sampling and self-reported measures, causal claims are limited and results should be generalised cautiously (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Even with these limitations, findings provide clear evidence that improving employees' core work experience, strengthening the work environment and supporting work life balance are the most direct pathways associated with higher job satisfaction.

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