



INFLUENCES OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT, SELF-EFFICACY, WORKING MEANINGFULNESS ON WORK ENGAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF LECTURERS AT PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN HO CHI MINH CITY

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
<p>DOI: 10.52932/jfm.vi3.364</p> <p><i>Received:</i> February 5, 2023</p> <p><i>Accepted:</i> March 20, 2023</p> <p><i>Published:</i> June 25, 2023</p> <p>Keywords: Organizational commitment; Person-environment fit; Self-efficacy; Working meaningfulness; Work engagement.</p>	<p>When the competition between universities becomes stronger, the maintenance and development of human resources, especially lecturers, becomes increasingly important. How to increase lecturers' engagement with work and commitment with universities is an interesting question for both researchers and authorities. Based on the job demands-resources framework and social cognitive career theory, authors build the research model to analyze the impacts of lecturers' perception about person-environment fit, self-efficacy and work meaningfulness on lecturers' work engagement and organizational commitment. The mixed method is used with PLS-SEM analysis to analyze the data of 114 respondents. The influences of person-environment fit, and work meaningfulness are confirmed while the influence of self-efficacy is rejected. In theory, accepted hypotheses support the job demands – resources framework and social cognitive career theory. In practice, selecting carefully suitable candidates with job and with university is very necessary. Diversifying task in work is another solution to increase lecturers' work engagement and organizational commitment.</p>

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1. Introduction

Working as a lecturer at university is always under pressure when lecturers face many challenges such as standard upgrade of PhD training by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), low salary, and many difficulties of teaching activities and scientific research. According to Circular No. 20 by tertiary education law, the working regime is stipulated as follows: “Total working time of lecturers in the academic year to perform the tasks of teaching, scientific research, retraining and other tasks accounts for 1.760 hours after deducting the prescribed number of days off”. In an academic year, each lecturer has to perform the following tasks: teaching (at least 200 standard periods directly spent at class accounts for at least 50% of the prescribed norm), scientific research (at least 1/3 of the total working time), refresher training courses and other tasks in the school with a total working time in a school year of 1,760 hours. However, the MOET explains on the Government Portal that the standard period is equivalent to 3 administrative hours. As a result, 200 standard periods (\approx 600 hours of administrative work); scientific research of 586 administrative hours (1/3 of the total working time in a school year) and the results of scientific research tasks are performed with school-level scientific research project, scientific articles published in peer-reviewed journals (domestic and foreign) or scientific report at conference as criteria for evaluating teacher’s capacity (MOET, 2020). In addition, low salaries, pay raise regime through seniority and remuneration for talent attraction have not been paid much attention, which results in lecturers’ intention and decision of job-leaving. There were 16,000 teachers who left their job in 2022 (Vo Hai, 2022). At universities, in 2018, the rate of lecturers who are PhD is only 22.7%, lower than the government’s expectation (35%) (Le Minh Toan, 2018).

That how lecturers can be more engaged with their work and have a high commitment to the organization they are working for is

always a question that needs to be answered. This issue is interesting by domestic and international researchers, most of whose topics are related to factors that affect employee engagement in the organization, such as salary and bonus regime, the nature of the job or the co-worker relationship. In fact, there have been many previous papers studying about work engagement and employee commitment in different areas. Ugwu and Onyishi (2020) examined the moderating role of person-environment on the relationship between perceived workload and employee work engagement. Jin and Tang (2021) explored the effect of perceived organizational support and resilience on Chinese pharmacists’ engagement in stressful and competitive pharmaceutical work at hospitals. Yan et al. (2021) considered the relationships among workplace, role ambiguity and work engagement in order to fill in the gaps in the area of work engagement. In the domain of teaching, the research established by Granziera and Perera (2019) has shown the relations among teacher’s self-efficacy beliefs, engagement and work satisfaction through a social cognitive view. In 2020, Nguyen Phuc Nguyen and his colleagues conducted a study on employee engagement in the organizations of 3-star hotels in Da Nang. In this study, there are eight factors that affect employee engagement, including direct management, training, salary, bonus and benefits, job characteristics, career development opportunities, organizational support, empowerment, and personality. Ha Nam Khanh Giao and Nguyen Dang Huyen Tran (2017) conducted a study to assess the factors impacting employee engagement at Banking University of Ho Chi Minh City. The factors explored in this study also focus on similar factors such as: nature of work, salary and benefits, support from superiors, co-worker relations, promotion opportunities and school reputation. However, domestic and foreign authors all pay attention to external factors instead of the employees’ perception of towards the organization. Therefore, the group conducts the research in the light of lecturers’

personal perception such as the effect of person-environment fit, self-efficacy and working meaningfulness on work engagement and organizational commitment of lecturers at public universities in Ho Chi Minh City. This study is hopefully expected to provide helpful data for the universities which are devising solutions to lecturers' work engagement and commitment to their organizations.

2. Background

2.1. Theoretical framework

This research is based on Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) framework which supposes that each job has both sides: (1) demands and (2) resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). One of the central assumptions of the JD-R model is that work engagement is most likely when job resources are high (also in the face of high job demands). The JD-R model was used to examine job resources were the most important predictors of extra-role performance, through their relationship with (dis)engagement. Resources are supposed to be not only necessary to deal with job demands but also crucial in their own right. This agrees with the job characteristics theory developed by Hackman & Oldham (1980) which emphasizes the motivational potential of job resources at the task level (autonomy, feedback, and task significance). Accordingly, job resources may be located at four different levels, including the level of organization at large (e.g. salary, promotion opportunities, job security), the interpersonal and social relations (e.g. supervisor and colleague, team climate), the organization of work (e.g. role clarity, participation in decision making), and at the level of the task (e.g. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy). The second process proposed by the JD-R model is another background for hypothesis development of this paper, as it is motivational in nature, whereby there was an assumption that job resources motivate well employees and therefore, employees might engage more with

job and perform work better. Job resources may play an extrinsic motivational role because when organization offer more job resources, employees are willing to put their efforts to complete work (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Job resources is an external motivation because they stimulate employees' growth, learning, and development. In the second motivation-driven process, job resources (i.e. social support, supervisory coaching, performance feedback, and time control) were the only predictors of dedication and organizational commitment of employees. Hakanen et al. (2006) found that job resources diminish the negative relationship between pupil misbehavior and work engagement. In addition, they found that work engagement is particularly influenced by job resources when teachers are confronted with high levels of pupil misconduct.

The social cognitive career theory (SCCT) of work satisfaction by Lent & Brown (2006) is the second source of theory that authors base on to develop the idea and to prove hypotheses as it provides an integrative social cognitive framework for understanding the interlinkages among self-efficacy, engagement, and satisfaction experienced in career and educational domains. Work satisfaction in the SCCT framework is posited to be predicted by five classes of variables including self-efficacy and other factors. Self-efficacy is individual beliefs about his/her ability to execute actions required to achieve target in a particular field. Self-efficacy in educational sector refers to teachers' self-referent judgments about their ability to complete teaching-related tasks required to achieve target in education. The SCCT also allows teacher engagement to be conceptualized as participation in goal-directed activity (Perera et al., 2018).

2.3. The research model and hypothesis

The job demands and resources (JD-R) theory shows the relationship between person-environment fit and work engagement. According to the theory, disequilibrium between job demands (e.g., workload) depletes acquired

resources and hinders work engagement. Bakker & Demerouti (2014) examined that person-job fit plays a motivational role in reducing any damaging effect of workload and thus promoting work engagement. When the degree of person-environment fit increase, employees satisfy more with job and they want to commit to organization (Andela & van der Doef, 2019; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). In contrast, if there is the misfit between employees and their working environment, employees believe that their psychological needs have been ignored (Cable & Edwards, 2004). As consequences, employees do not satisfy with job, and then, the level of individual performance can decrease (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Hypothesis H1. Person-environment fit is positively associated with work engagement

Person-environment fit refers to the fit between individual work values and job characteristics or perceived work rewards. The attraction-selection attrition (ASA) model proposes that people tend to be attracted to and commit to organizations that share similar values and preferences because doing so enables them to achieve their goals (Ugwu & Onyishi, 2020). Only employees who “fit” remain, leading to members of the organization becoming more homogenous in traits, values, and preferences (Giberson et al., 2005). Some studies prove that when people perceive a match between their preferences and the environment, their sense of commitment will be risen (Astakhova, 2016). Satisfaction and commitment will be high when employees’ expectations (in terms of preferences or values) are met (in terms of perceived rewards) (Mottaz, 1987). Some studies have proved that the degree to which employees perceive that their capabilities match job’s requirements has a direct relation to their organizational commitment (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009).

Hypothesis H2: Person-environment fit positively relates to employee commitment.

According to the SCCT model, teacher engagement reflects their goal-directed activity

involvement (Perera et al., 2018), teachers’ self-efficacy expectations may relate to the extent to which they are participants in goal-directed activity. When people believe on their ability, they aware better opportunities and threats in the environment. Furthermore, the level of belief influences on the decision of setting target, making effort for target (Bandura, 1997).

In a longitudinal design by Simbula et al. (2011), teachers’ self-efficacy was found to have both short-term (4 months) and longer-term (8 months) positive predictive effects on work engagement in Italian teachers. Some practical papers have shown that prior teacher engagement may plausibly influence later self-efficacy beliefs (Salanova et al., 2011). The experience of engagement generates opportunities for domain-specific mastery, which is integral to self-efficacy development (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, affective experiences are believed to be significant sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), teachers’ engagement at work, which involves positive emotional responses to specific work tasks, may be interpreted as indicators of their perceived capability in a specific domain (Grigg et al., 2018).

Hypothesis H3. Self-efficacy is positively associated with work engagement

An organizational commitment, a motivational construct relating to performance, has been evidenced to be an outcome of self-efficacy. For example, meta-analytic research of Avey et al. (2011) demonstrated that psychological capital consisting of hope, resilience, optimism, and efficacy had a certain relationship with organizational commitment. Self-efficacy is the result of interactions between the outside environment and other self-adjustment mechanisms and personal capabilities, experience, and achievements. Moreover, self-efficacy is a crucial element for the change of behavior and is a part of self-control. According to social learning theory, self-efficacy influence people’s choice of activities (Bandura, 1997). Furthermore, it also affects how deeply individuals might become

involved and how long they might persist with their work. This is consistent with career resilience, which is defined as the attitude toward facing adverse circumstances in order to prevent the collapse of a life. The beliefs of ability have significant impacts on people's decisions, motivation and perseverance when they face trouble (Kear, 2000).

Hypothesis H4. Self-efficacy positively relates to organizational commitment.

Previous studies confirmed that when lecturers perceived more meaning of their work, they engage more in work and release their job stress. When people strongly feel their work meaningfulness, they often commit to their workplace (Schnell et al., 2013). Quantitative studies of employees in various occupations show that these feelings allow them to invest more effort in their careers (Steger et al., 2012), as reflected, for example, in increased motivation, engagement, and performance (May et al., 2004). Specifically, a sense of meaning at work is very important for lecturers when they might have high potential impacts on students. It is clear that when people do not feel work meaningfulness, they do not think that they need to commit to their job and their organization (May et al., 2004).

Hypothesis H5: Work meaningfulness is positively associated with work engagement

Hypothesis H6: Work meaningfulness positively relates to employee commitment

Whilst some studies have framed work engagement as an outcome of organizational commitment and investigated the impact of organizational commitment on work engagement (e.g. Zhang et al., 2015), others posit that work engagement is the premise of organizational commitment and examined the influence of work engagement on organizational commitment (e.g. Albrecht, 2012). Some pieces of evidence define work engagement as a positive state of mind, which is characterized by high energy, enthusiasm, and full concentration at work (Schaufeli et al., 2002), organizational

commitment, on the other hand, was viewed as the strength of the employee identification to his organization (Mowday et al., 1979). Several researchers have identified work engagement as an antecedent of organizational commitment and investigated the effect of work engagement on organizational commitment (e.g. Albrecht et al., 2015). The commitment to higher education is considered a significant element in achieving high performance among academics, according to Eisinga et al. (2010).

Hypothesis H7: Work engagement has a positive effect on organizational commitment

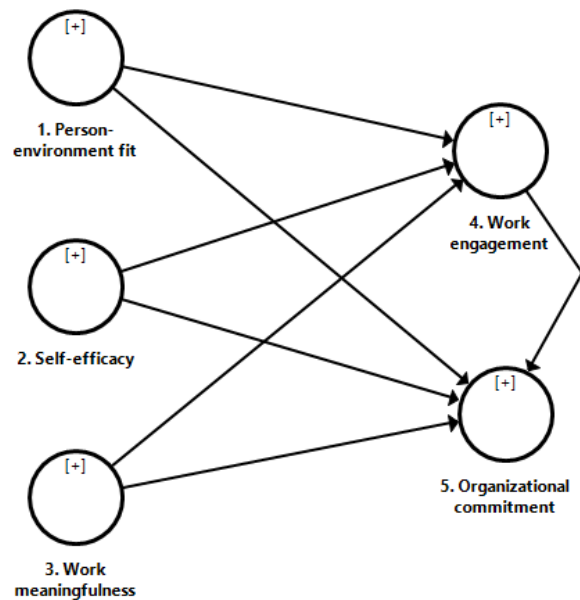


Figure 1. The proposed research model

3. Methodology

In order to confirm or reject hypotheses in the research model, authors used the mixed research method which combines qualitative method and quantitative method. Qualitative method is used to build the research model and adjust items. Quantitative method is used to assess the hypotheses in the research model.

Authors referred to previous studies to build items. First of all, six items of “Person-environment fit” came from the research of Cable & DeRue (2002) and of Cable & Judge

(1996). Secondly, the research of Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) provided 15 items of “Self-efficacy”. Moreover, authors referenced the research of Steger et al. (2012) about 10 items of “Work meaningfulness” Besides, three items of “Work engagement” came from the study of Radic et al. (2020). Finally, the research of Ellinger et al. (2013) offered five items of “Organizational commitment”.

The survey included two stages: (1) initial survey; (2) official survey. In the earlier stage, authors sent the questionnaires to 40 people in order to check the reliability and validity of items before to make official survey. All items have outer loading value greater than 0.400, therefore, all items can be used for the official survey. According to Cohen (1992), if there are 4 independent variables in the research model and the expected p-value of 5%, the minimum sample size should be 113 respondents. 114 questionnaires were collected in the official survey. Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyze collected data with the software of SmartPLS version 3.2.8 thanks to its advantages such as being convenient for small sample size and being suitable for high order constructs.

4. Results

4.1. Respondents' information

The convenient method is used to collect questionnaires. Thanks to relationship with friends and relatives, authors sent the link of online survey to lecturers who work for public universities in Hochiminh City. There were 114 collected questionnaires. The ratio of female respondents is 61% while the ratio of opposite gender is only 39%. Most respondents are in the

age band from 30 to 50 (accounted for 89%). Three quarters of respondents (75%) work as lecturer more than 10 years. Slightly over a half of respondents teach in the field of economics (51%) while the second largest group (30%) is lecturers who offer course in the field of human society.

4.2. Research's result

There are three reflective-formative second order constructs: “Person-environment fit”; “Self-efficacy” and “Work meaningfulness” in the research model. Therefore, the analysis of data includes three steps: (1) Verifying the relationships between second order constructs and their first order constructs; (2) Verifying the relationships between other constructs and their items; (3) Verifying the hypothesis in the research model.

Evaluating the relationship between the second order constructs and their first order constructs

It is important to recognize that “Person-environment fit”; “Self-efficacy” and “Work meaningfulness” are reflective-formative higher-order constructs. Therefore, the assessment of the relationship between the second order construct and its first order constructs includes two steps:

Assessing the indicator reliability, the internal consistency, the convergent validity and discriminant validity of first order constructs.

The following table illustrates the results of evaluating the indicator reliability, the internal consistency, the convergent validity, and discriminant validity of first order constructs.

Table 1. Variables' information

Variables	CR	AVE
1A. Person-organization fit	0.957	0.881
3 items: 1A1, 1A2, 1A3	Outer loading values: 0.944, 0.928, 0.943	
1B. Person-job fit	0.848	0.655
3 items: 1B1, 1B2, 1B3	Outer loading values: 0.897, 0.630, 0.873	

Variables	CR	AVE
2A. Efficacy for instructional strategies	0.930	0.727
5 items: 2A1, 2A2, 2A3, 2A4, 2A5	Outer loading values: 0.745, 0.874, 0.859, 0.878, 0.899	
2B. Efficacy for classroom management	0.933	0.737
5 items: 2B1, 2B2, 2B3, 2B4, 2B5	Outer loading values: 0.871, 0.891, 0.883, 0.849, 0.795	
2C. Efficacy for student engagement	0.923	0.705
5 items: 2C1, 2C2, 2C3, 2C4, 2C5	Outer loading values: 0.829, 0.854, 0.855, 0.820, 0.841	
3A. Positive meaning	0.945	0.811
4 items: 3A1, 3A2, 3A3, 3A4	Outer loading values: 0.903, 0.949, 0.907, 0.839	
3B. Meaning making through work	0.960	0.923
2 items: 3B2, 3B3	Outer loading values: 0.960, 0.961	
3C. Greater good motivations	0.931	0.819
3 items: 3C1, 3C2, 3C3	Outer loading values: 0.899, 0.885, 0.931	
4. Work engagement	0.913	0.839
2 items: 4.2, 4.3	Outer loading: 0.915, 0.918	
5. Organizational commitment	0.958	0.819
5 items: 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5	Outer loading values: 0.924, 0.946, 0.880, 0.928, 0.843	

Note: Two items (3B1; 4.1) was removed from the research model.

The outer loading value is used to assess the item reliability. Thanks to advices of Bagozzi et al. (1991), authors kept items which have the value of outer loading greater than 0.7, and removed items which have value of outer loading lower than 0.4. However, the range of outer loading is from 0.4 to 0.7, indicator should be omitted only if the value of the composite reliability (CR) or the value of average variance extracted (AVE) is improved when the omission is opted (Hair et al., 2017).

The composite reliability (CR) value is used to assess the internal consistency. All eight first-order constructs have CR value greater than 0.7. Therefore, it is clear that all first-order constructs reached the internal consistency (Hair et al., 2017).

The value of Average variance extracted (AVE) is criteria to evaluate the convergent validity. All AVE value are higher than 0.5, thus, all first-order constructs achieve the convergent validity (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 2. Fornell-Larcker value information

	1A	1B	2A	2B	2C	3A	3B	3C	4	5
1A	0.938									
1B	0.252	0.809								
2A			0.852							
2B			0.825	0.859						
2C			0.824	0.838	0.840					
3A						0.900				
3B						0.822	0.961			
3C						0.702	0.769	0.905		
4									0.916	
5									0.685	0.905

The Fornell-Larcker value is used to confirm the discriminant validity of first-order constructs. The Fornell-Larcker value in diagonal cell is greatest which means that the discriminant validity of all first order constructs is confirmed (Hair et al., 2017) (see in the Table 2).

Assessing the convergent validity, the collinearity issues, the significant and relevance of the formative indicators of the second order constructs (Person-environment fit; Self-efficacy; Work meaningfulness)

With p-value of 5%, the maximum of value of redundancy of “Person-environment fit”; “Self-efficacy” and “Work meaningfulness” are 0.714; 0.842, and 0.874 (respectively), which is above the recommended threshold of 0.70, thus providing support for the formative construct’s convergent validity (Aguirre-Urreta & Mikko

Rönkkö, 2018; Hair et al., 2017). Thanks to all VIF values lower than 5, all three second-order constructs do not have collinearity issue (see in Table 3). All p values are less than 5% and outer loading value between first-order constructs and second-order constructs higher than 0.500, therefore, all eight first-order constructs have the significance and relevance (see in Table 3).

Verifying the relationships between other constructs and their items

In this stage, authors assess the relationships between “Work engagement”; “Organizational commitment” and their items. Thanks to the value of outer loading, CR, and AVE in the Table 1, the value of Fornell-Larcker in the Table 2, it is clear that all items are suitable for their constructs (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 3. Outerloading value, VIF value and R² values

	Outerloading and P-value				VIF value					R ² value
	1	2	3	P-value	1	2	3	4	5	
1A	0.914			0%	1.068					
1B	0.623			0%	1.068					
2A		0.896		0%		3.846				
2B		0.911		0%		4.143				
2C		0.983		0%		4.123				
3A			0.889	0%				3.199		
3B			0.815	0%				3.975		
3C			0.946	0%				2.545		
1								1.862	2.033	
2								2.234	2.235	
3								2.191	3.026	
4									2.526	60%
5										63%

Verifying the hypothesis in the research model

Firstly, authors assess the collinearity issues between independent variables and dependent variables. *Secondly*, based on the p-value, authors decide to accept or deny hypotheses in the research model. Then, thanks to R² value, authors verify the fit of research model of

estimation. Finally, the f² value is used to check the importance of independent variables (Hair et al., 2017).

All inner VIF value between independent variables and dependent variables in the Table 3 are less than 5 which mean the model does not have collinearity issues (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 4. Hypothesis, coefficient values and f^2 values

Hypothesis	Coefficient	P Values	Conclusion	f^2	Level of effect
H1: 1 -> 4	0.260	0%	Accepted	0.092	Small
H2: 1 -> 5	0.417	0%	Accepted	0.231	Medium
H3: 2 -> 4	0.017	85%	Rejected	0.000	No effect
H4: 2 -> 5	-0.171	17%	Rejected	0.035	Small
H5: 3 -> 4	0.575	0%	Accepted	0.381	Large
H6: 3 -> 5	0.374	0%	Accepted	0.125	Medium
H7: 4 -> 5	0.242	3%	Accepted	0.063	Small

With p-value greater than 5%, it could say hypothesis H3 and H4 are rejected. That mean “Self-efficacy” does not influence on “Work engagement” and on “Organizational commitment”. In contrast, other five hypothesis are accepted thanks to p-value less than 5%. Both “Person-environment fit” and “Work meaningfulness” have positive influences on “Work engagement” but thanks to coefficient value in the Table 4 (0.575 in compared with 0.260), it can conclude that “Work meaningfulness” has stronger influences than “Person-environment fit” on “Work engagement”. Similarly, it is essential to understand that “Person-environment fit” has greater impacts on “Organizational commitment” than “Work meaningfulness” (see the coefficient value of 0.417 and 0.374, respectively in the Table 4).

In the research model applying PLS-SEM, researchers use the value of R^2 to assess the ability of prediction of research model. It is agreed by most researchers that the predictive level of the research model being substantial, moderate or weak is subsequent to the R^2 value of 75%, 50%, 25% respectively (Hair et al., 2017). The value of R^2 can increase if there are more independent variables in research model. The two R^2 value in this research model is 60% and 63% which means the level of prediction in this research model is moderate. However, it is essential to recognize that there are only three influenced independent variables (“Person-environment fit”; “Work meaningfulness”; “Work engagement”) while the impacts of “Self-efficacy” are rejected.

Researchers use f^2 value to comment the importance of independent variables in the research model. The value of f^2 such as 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 respectively reflect small, medium, and large effects of an independent construct with a dependent construct (Cohen, 1988). The independent variable “Work meaningfulness” has large effect on “Work engagement” when its f^2 value is 0.381 (greater than 0.35) (see the Table 4).

4.3. Discussions

The accepted hypothesis H1 consolidates the research of Ugwu and Onyishi (2020) about the positive impacts of person-environment fit on work engagement of employees. It is essential to understand that both this research and Ugwu and Onyishi (2020) research were conducted in developing countries (Vietnam and Nigeria) and in public sector (universities/ hospitals). Both this research and Dhurup (2019) research confirmed the significant influences of person-environment fit on organizational commitment. However, the coefficient value in this research is 0.417 (see the Table 5) while in Dhurup (2019) research, the coefficient value is lower (only 0.240). This difference could be explained as the respondents of this research are lecturers at universities while the respondents of Dhurup (2019) research are amateur sport coaches. The hypothesis H5 is accepted. Therefore, the result of this research is consistent with the result of Steger et al. (2012) research. In 2020, Lavy and Naama-Ghanayim conducted a research about the influences of work meaningfulness on organizational commitment of teachers in Israel

and the coefficient value is 0.420. Similarly, this research has coefficient value of 0.374.

In this study, authors supposed that self-efficacy has positive impacts on work engagement and on organizational commitment, and prior study confirmed those hypothesis eg. (Granziera & Perera, 2019). Unfortunately, both hypothesis H3 and H4 are rejected due to the high value of p-value. If we ignore the p-value and just look at the coefficient value, we will find that the impact of self-efficacy on work engagement is small (coefficient value = 0.017) while self-efficacy has negative influence on organizational commitment (coefficient value = -0.171). According to experts in education, Vietnamese lecturers might suffer lots of pressures, therefore, when they believe that they have better abilities, they might pursuit their career in new sectors or at new universities.

5. Conclusion and recommendations

5.1. Theoretical implications

The research has certain theoretical contributions. Firstly, the research results consolidate the predictions of JD-R theory and SCCT by clarifying the influences of person-environment fit and work meaningfulness on work engagement and organizational commitment. It is essential to understand that job resources will significantly motivate employees. Furthermore, the analysis of independent variables as high-order constructs help research model to achieve the parsimony.

5.2. Practical contributions

The result of research confirmed the significant and positive impacts of independent variables: (1) person-environment fit; (2) work meaningfulness on dependent variables: (1) work engagement; (2) organizational commitment.

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Hence, in order to increase the engagement of lecturers with work and lecturers' commitment with universities, leaders should improve lecturers' perception of person-environment fit and of the meaning of work.

Firstly, universities should carefully select candidates for position of lecturer. Giving lectures is a specific job. Managers need to list down exactly necessary qualities and characteristics for potential candidates. Moreover, universities should clearly identify their brand, their reputation to help candidates determine the fit between universities and candidates.

Secondly, leaders should offer more meaning of work for lecturers. For example, diversifying jobs is also a good solution. Universities can require lecturers to teach new subjects. Managers might share social meaning of teaching with young lecturers.

Finally, the competition in the current educational environment forces universities to invest in improving the capacity of lecturers. However, when lecturers are more qualified, they are more likely to leave the organization. Therefore, the university needs to have a policy to retain best lecturers.

5.3. Limitations and further research

This research has certain contributions; however, it still has some limits to be improved. *Firstly*, the number of collected questionnaires is quite small. *Secondly*, further research can gather information from lecturers who work at private universities in order to compare and contrast results in two systems of universities. Furthermore, the research can be extended to other regions in Vietnam to generalize better the results.

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