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Ph.D. Dissertation of Business Administration

**EXAMINING ANTECEDENTS AND
CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL
IDENTIFICATION AND OCCUPATIONAL
IDENTIFICATION**

조직동일시와 직업동일시의 형성요인 및
결과요인에 관한 연구

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EXAMINING ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND OCCUPATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

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Abstract

As the market changes at a rapid pace, organizations strive not only to survive but also to attain competitiveness in this dynamic environment. To ensure competitiveness, employees' proactive engagement is essential. For employees to be voluntarily engaged and work for organizational betterment, organizational identification (OID) could be adopted to examine the relationship between employees and their employing organizations because it illustrates the dynamics between employing organizations and their members and has been examined by scholars for over 30 years (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bednar et al., 2020; Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards, 2005; He & Brown, 2013; Pratt, 1998; Riketta, 2005). OID includes organizational members' processes of creating meaning and connecting themselves to their affiliated organizations, enhancing their overall attitudes toward and behaviors within organizations. Because OID directly affects employees' satisfaction with, attitudes toward, and behaviors in their work, it has attracted interest in the field of organizational studies (Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards, 2005; Riketta, 2005; He & Brown, 2013; Lee et al., 2015).

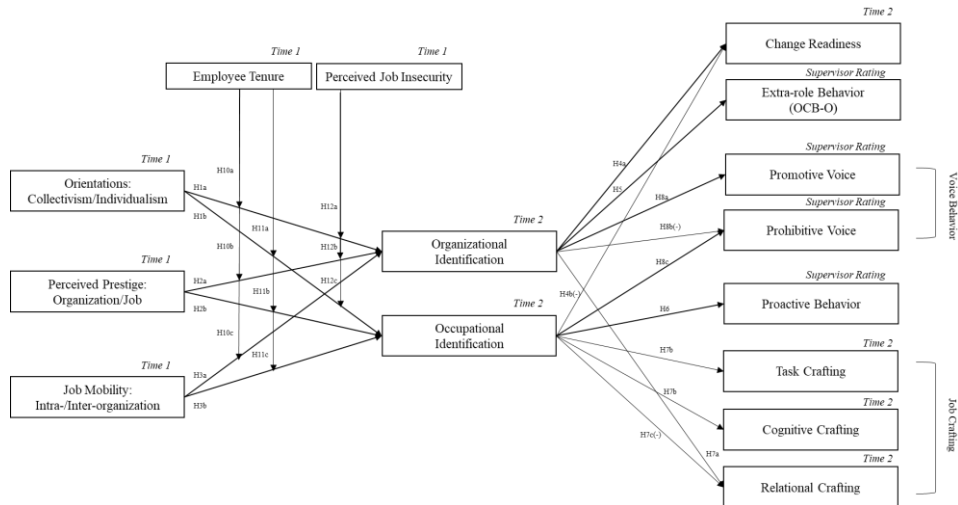
However, recently, it is believed that OID has eroded in organizations and therefore requires assessment (Ashforth, 2020; Lian et al., 2022). To understand OID more fully and examine identification with another target, this study was examined OID and occupational identification (OCID) to compare and differentiate various antecedents and consequences

of OID and OCID and determine the best fit for organizations and employees' attitudes and behaviors. In seeking a holistic understanding of OID and OCID, from their antecedents to their consequences, this study was aimed to determine how organizations can promote OID and encourage employees to develop it; what other types of identification, such as OCID, could encourage employees to exhibit desired organizational outcomes, like OID does; and whether OCID can produce organizational outcomes similar to OID's.

Therefore, this study was aimed to examine the antecedents of OID and OCID, how different factors (such as personal orientations, perceived prestige, and perceived mobility) lead to different types of identification through the perspectives of social identity theory (SIT), and how those identifications lead to various dimensions of organizational outcomes (e.g. change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, job crafting, and voice behavior). Examining different identification paths into different dimensions of organizational outcomes broadens the understanding of OID and OCID antecedents and their consequences. As the current literature lacks an explanation of each identification's promoting factors, especially occupations in organizations, this study was intended to expand the understanding of OID and OCID by examining various paths from antecedents and how OID and OCID may lead to different dimensions of organizational outcomes to provide a sound understanding of OID and OCID in organizations.

This study was adopted the concepts of personal orientation (collectivism and individualism), perceived prestige (organization and job), and job mobility (intraorganization and interorganization) to examine how those factors influence the formation of OID and OCID, and this study was investigated how identification with different targets may lead to different employee attitudes and behaviors, such as change readiness, extra-role and proactive behaviors, job crafting, and voice behaviors in organizations, by putting them into a comprehensive framework and simultaneously testing them empirically. As Figure 1 shows, the research question can be presented using a conceptual framework.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



This study was conducted this study via surveys from employees and their supervisors in organizations in Korea to test hypotheses empirically from the conceptual framework. With the final sample of 300 cases, the analysis was conducted a multilevel path analysis to test and

examine the phenomena empirically.

The results indicate that although an alternative to OID has not been suggested, as hypothesized, collectivism and perceived organizational prestige can lead to OID and individualism and perceived job prestige can lead to OCID. It is interesting to note that collectivism was also significant in predicting OCID. However, neither internal nor external job mobility has significance in OID or OCID. Regarding the consequences, OID significantly affected change readiness, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting and marginally affected extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, and promotive behavior whereas OCID significantly affected three dimensions of job crafting (task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting) and was insignificant in all other constructs. The results indicate that multiple antecedents affect the development of OID and OCID and that although they overlap in some ways, OID and OCID lead to different consequences in organizations. OCID influences job crafting behaviors, but OID impacts organizations in general. When this study was examined direct effects from antecedent to consequences without OID or OCID, the results indicated that mediations such as OID and/or OCID positively affect employees' attitudes and behaviors in organizations, and although OCID benefits organizations, as employees with OCID improved in all three dimensions of job crafting behaviors, it did not enhance other aspects of employees' attitude and behaviors in organizations; therefore, compared to OID, OCID yields similar outputs, but it is focused on job-related areas, not organization-

centered behaviors.

Based on my findings, practitioners should encourage employees to develop OID and OCID by utilizing personal orientations and the organization's and job's perceived prestige. The results indicate that OID has a larger impact, but management could determine its importance based in their need to improve organizational performance. Management could encourage employees by creating an environment that emphasizes the job to increase perceived job prestige and develop OCID, which could be beneficial in job-related areas. This study was aimed to provide a sound understanding of OID and OCID and how they are affected by and affect organizations. The findings could help organizations effectively and efficiently develop employees' identifications and navigate them for the betterment of the workforce.

Keyword: Organizational Identification, Occupational Identification, Social Identity Theory, Employee Behaviors

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Research Question

In a rapidly changing world, organizations must adapt to sustain their competitiveness and lead. To attain market competitiveness, organizations need actively engaging and devoted employees. However, questions arise about how organizations can expect and encourage employees to participate voluntarily and expect them to work proactively toward expected organizational performance.

One of the traditional concepts to examine this phenomenon is organizational identification (OID), which is as an essential theoretical and practical construct because it explains how employees identify themselves and create meaning to relate to their affiliated organizations, and it improves overall attitudes and behaviors within organizations (Blader et al., 2017; Riketta, 2005). Maslow (1954) identified a sense of belonging as a basic human need. In line with this, employees establish relationships with their organizations by considering the congruency between their identities and the organizations'. Empirical studies have shown that when employees strongly identify with their organizations, they tend to exhibit better performance, more organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), greater satisfaction, and lower turnover (Arikoğlu et al., 2019; Bao & Zhong, 2021; Liu et al., 2011; Riketta, 2005; van Dick et al., 2004; van Dick et al., 2008).

Although OID can encourage employees' benevolent behaviors in

organizations, it is no longer prevalent in the current organizational environment. As organizations have diversified in terms of working conditions and employees' preferences, the conventional mechanisms to maintain high OID cannot be expected or guaranteed. Furthermore, in view of the pandemic, organizations face challenges and undergo changes to adjust, and those changes are challenging employees' work-based identities. Ashforth (2020) argued that OID was already eroding pre-pandemic. However, the pandemic accelerated the already weakening OID trend, causing employees' perspectives to shift from the *organizational we* to *me*. When employees identify themselves individually rather than through their affiliated organizations, the identification target shifts. Employees are identifying themselves with their jobs and work rather than their affiliated organizations.

Mael and Ashforth (1992) distinguished OID from professional identification (PID) and occupational identification (OCID). They explained that PID/OCID refers to the definitive self in terms of work the person is doing. Although OID is organization-specific, PID/OCID is not necessarily specific to any particular organization. Furthermore, this shift in employees' perceptions from the *organizational we* to *me* is proof that the target has shifted, based on the perception that employees perceive oneness with their jobs instead of their affiliated organizations.

The prevailing explanation of OID is that the more employees identify with their organizations, the more likely they will take the

perspective and act in the best interest of that organization, which will lead employees to portray desirable attitudes and behaviors for their organizations (Dutton et al., 1994; Mael and Ashforth, 1992). As OID serves vital roles for employees in organizations, it has received considerable attention and has been highlighted as a vital concept to explain the dynamics between employees and organizations (Arikoğlu et al., 2019; Bao & Zhong, 2021; He & Brown, 2013; Lee et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2011; Riketta, 2005; van Dick et al., 2004; van Dick et al., 2008).

However, studies regarding other types of identification, such as PID, OCID, and career identification (CID), have not received considerable attention. Combined, the amount of research on PID, OCID, and CID will still not even be half the amount of the research on OID. Many scholars have stated that this research imbalance is a result of the lack of studies on other identification types, and some have argued that other types of identification, such as OCID, need to be examined to understand more clearly the phenomena in organizations. However, a heavy emphasis on OID remains (Greco et al., 2022; Gümüş et al., 2012; Hassan, 2012).

Regarding the current imbalance in the existing empirical studies regarding OID and other types of identification, the results indicate that except those on OID, empirical studies have been conducted on PID, OCID, and CID. Among those identifications, PID has received more attention than OCID or CID. However, studies on PID have primarily focused on specific professions, such as physicians, lawyers, and accountants. In PID studies,

researchers have emphasized specific qualification for membership and examined the relationships between their job and career satisfaction in relation to their professional values (Hickson & Thomas, 1969; Loi et al., 2004). Because PID focuses on certain occupational groups, researchers have given it more attention than other types of identification and have compared it to OID to understand the differences between PID and OID. Some scholars have argued that OID and PID may lead to different types of behavior in organizations (Hekman et al., 2009, 2016; Russo, 1998).

However, different from PID, researchers have examined OCID as a similar concept to OID by examining the relationship among extra-role behaviors, OCBs, and performance (Kroon & Noorderhaven, 2018) without focusing on comparing or differentiating OCID and OID. Given that OCID includes all occupations in a working environment, different from PID, which requires specific qualifications for membership, OCID may have less distinctive characteristics than PID; however, given that OCID is inclusive to all occupations, it can better explain general organizational settings and their dynamics with employees (Hassan, 2012).

Ashforth (2020) explained that weakened OID caused employees to take an individualized *me* perspective rather than the *organizational we*, so an examination of how employees identify themselves in organizational setting—whether they are more attached to their occupations or employing organizations—is timely. As Vough (2012) explained, “because we live in a complex, multifaceted world, it is not surprising that individuals hold

different attachments to different targets,” that employees “relate their self-concepts to various workplace targets ... in a number of substantive ways” (p. 796).

Although comparative studies of OID and OCID are still lacking, studies that show the differences between them have been published. Dore’s (1973) comparative study of industrial relations between Britain and Japan showed that British workers identify themselves with their work, whereas Japanese workers identify themselves with their employing organizations. Because the terminology of OID has not been established, he discussed “identification with the firm” and “loyalty” to explain the OID and OCID phenomena.

The results of Dore’s (1973) study can be understood via multiple perspectives. One interpretation of the results is that Britain has systems of guilds, which lead employees to identify themselves with their work, whereas employing organizations in Japan serve a partialism and familial role, so workers identify with their firms. Other explanations are the national culture of individualism and collectivism, level of ambition, diligence, and in-group preferences. Another explanation involves the perspectives of Britain’s market-oriented system and Japan’s organization-oriented system. Britain’s market-oriented system can lead its workers to attach themselves to their jobs, whereas Japan’s organization-oriented system allows Japanese workers to be more attached to their employing organizations. Despite interesting interpretations regarding differences

between British and Japanese workers, given that this study primarily focused on national diversity and employment and industrial relations, it highlighted the issues of national culture, employment structure, and management styles, and the findings regarding various identification targets have received less attention.

Researchers have emphasized the importance of OID and examined other identifications, such as PID and OCID, in comparison to OID or as a supplementary concept to address OID and examine identification and its consequences. However, researchers have focused on high and/or low OID and its implications, but they have not compared or examined similarities or differences of antecedents and other types of identification in relation to OID. Therefore, the relationships between OID and other identifications are less clear, and one can argue that the understanding of how OCID differs from OID and its relationship with employees' attitudes and behaviors in organizations is lacking.

If OID declines in organizations, then employees are less likely to define themselves as organizational members (Ashforth, 2020). On the basis of this premise, additional questions arise. How can an organization promote OID? What types of factor encourage the formulation of OID? What other type of identification can encourage members to produce a desired organizational outcome? Will it be sufficient for organizations to work with employees who do and do not have OID? Does OCID lead to organizational outcomes similar to OID?

To find answers for the questions, a different type of identification, namely, OCID, should be examined. On the basis of the literature review, OID requires specific conditions that arise in affiliated organizations and are not transferable; OCID does not require an organizational setting because it transcends any given organization for which individual employees work (Ashforth et al., 2008). The two identifications may seem similar because they deal with employees' identification, but OCID deals with fundamentally different perspectives. OID focuses on employees' identification at a collective level (i.e., organization), whereas OCID emphasizes individual employee identification with their occupations at the personal level.

As changes have occurred in working environments and their cultures, which affect employees, organizations are expected to provide employees more autonomy and empowerment. Although this requirement may not be applicable to every organization, in general, organizations now provide employees more flexibility, diversity, and autonomy, and the pandemic has quickened the pace of implementing changes (Ashforth, 2020; Kalleberg, 2001; Langfred & Rockmann, 2016). As situations have changed and OID is no longer a customary concept for employees in organizations to become voluntarily engaged and actively participate, understanding how employees view oneness with their work and how those views affect organizational success is vital. Examining two identification types can lead to a better understanding of whether OID and OCID are mutually

complementary or exclusive of the optimization of employees' performances in organizations.

Therefore, this study aims to examine the antecedents of OID and OCID, how different factors lead to different types of identification through the perspectives of social identity theory (SIT), and how those identifications lead to different dimensions of organizational outcomes. Examining different identification paths into different dimensions of organizational outcomes broadens the understanding of different OID and OCID antecedents and their consequences. As the current literature lacks an explanation of each identification's promoting factors, especially in general occupations (excluding professions such as physicians and attorneys), this study intends to expand the understanding of OID and OCID by examining various paths from antecedents and how OID and OCID may lead to different dimensions of organizational outcomes to provide a sound understanding of OID and OCID in organizations.

1.2. Overview of Chapters

This study is organized in three sections: research question, literature review, and empirical study. To examine comprehensively the extent to which the formation and effect on OID in organizations depend on working conditions, PIS, and organizational and market performance, this study is organized as follows.

Chapter 1 presents the study's research question, and Chapter 2

provides the theoretical background and literature review. On the basis of the literature review, this study identifies limitations and suggestions for future studies in the OID field by proposing the study's purpose. Chapter 3 introduces the development of the study's hypotheses. Chapter 4 discusses data collection, sample, measures used, and data analysis methods. Chapter 5 explains the empirical study results. In the following chapters, the discussion (Chapter 6) and conclusion (Chapter 7) present the overall findings and implications, theoretical and practical implications and limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2. Theoretical Background

2.1. OID and OCID

2.1.1. Definitions of OID

OID provides an understanding of how organizational members view themselves according to their organizational memberships by processing perspectives of how individuals and organizations share congruent values and purposes (Pratt, 1998). SIT offers a better understanding of OID, explaining how individuals form self-conceptions with their affiliated social groups. When individuals identify with a certain social group, they are inclined to behave in ways that align with the group's shared behaviors (Ellemers et al., 1999; Elsbach, 1999). Tajfel and Turner (1986) explained that OID can be understood as individuals who consider organizational

belonging as a part of their self-identification. Thus, OID occurs when individuals congruently integrate their own beliefs with affiliated organizational values.

The restricted definition interprets OID as “the perception of oneness or belongingness to some human aggregate” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). However, the less restricted definition of OID explains it as “the extent to which an organizational member defines himself/herself with reference to his/her organizational membership” (He & Brown, 2013, p. 12). Although there exist different views in understanding OID, the literature agrees that OID is a type of social identification that occurs when employees and their organizations share congruent values (Dutton et al., 1994).

Previously, OID was considered a portrayal of how individuals perceive unity between themselves and their organizations. However, researchers have recently begun to consider OID as “simultaneously occurring and interrelated dynamic processes” through which employees reassess and revise their relationships with their organizations (Brown, 2017, p. 296). Furthermore, OID develops through bottom-up interactions with employees who have pluralistic views, as well as through top-down identification strategies (Besharov, 2014).

The importance of OID has been emphasized in the literature, as it serves as a predictor of certain factors in organizational settings and various job-related attitudes and behaviors, such as satisfaction, turnover intention, and OCB (Liu et al., 2011; van Dick et al., 2004; van Dick et al., 2008). In

the literature, OID is positively associated with employees' motivation to perform well and surpass expectations; thus, employees with high OID not only share organizational goals and values but also see leaders as embodying the same values and goals as employees (Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). Furthermore, research indicates that employees with high OID fulfill expectations of the organizational norm. Thus, when the organizational norm emphasizes innovation, high OID is positively related to employees with creativity. In service industries, which emphasize being customer-friendly, OID has been found to relate to employees with customer orientation (Cohen-Meitar et al., 2009). In addition to these specific areas, strong OID generally affects organizations, and researchers have explained that high OID can encourage employees to support one another and help them cope with stress and overcome setbacks, which can enhance their satisfaction and overall wellbeing (van Dick & Haslam, 2012).

2.1.2. Definitions of OCID

OCID began to receive attention in recent years compared with OID (Kroon & Noorderhaven, 2018; Miscenko & Day, 2016; Ramarajan, 2014). Although it has been recognized as more prevalent, the literature remains sparse in comparison with OID, and studies have sporadically adopted terminologies of PID, OCID, and CID, which are used interchangeably; moreover, the concept has been used interchangeably in the literature, which

has been noted by scholars (Hassan, 2012; Lee et al., 2000; Kroon & Noorderhaven, 2018).

Occupation is defined as “an identifiable and specific line of work that an individual engages in to earn a living (e.g., nurse, banker, and clerk) at a given point in time” (Lee et al., 2000, p. 800). OCID refers to the level of congruence of employees’ attachment to their occupations, meaning how individuals define themselves with the characteristics of their work (Gandhi, 1992; Hassan, 2012; Wallace, 1995). Similar to OID, OCID can be explained via SIT, that is, how individual employees identify themselves with their occupation by incorporating their occupational characteristics into their own identity. Mael and Ashforth (1992) explained OCID as “the extent to which one defines him- or herself in terms of the work he or she does and the prototypical characteristics ascribed to individuals who do that work” (p. 106).

When discussing OCID, whether OCID can be developed before being employed with a particular organization is interesting to consider. That is, OCID can be developed during the processes of education and training. Therefore, as OCID is created before joining organizations, it can remain when employees leave the organization and it transcends any given organization at which employees work afterward (i.e., organization is not an essential factor for employees to develop OCID).

Although relatively few empirical studies exist compared with OID, existing empirical findings of OCID indicate that it serves an essential role

in organizational settings. Organizations are not a required factor in developing OCID; however, employees having a strong OCID results in their job attitudes and satisfaction, as well as organizational commitment (OC; Loi et al., 2004). Furthermore, in the merger process of organizational change, OCID has a positive effect on employees' willingness to cooperate in the integration process (Kroon & Noorderhaven, 2018).

Empirical findings have indicated that OID and OCID relate to employees' working attitudes and behaviors, turnover intention, and commitment; however, its relationship is not explained well. Nevertheless, some studies have argued otherwise. Özkoç (2016) explained that OCID is not as good as OID when employees are dealing with work alienation, because although OID reduces employees' tendency for work alienation, employees' OCID does not affect their tendency for work alienation in organizations. Johnson et al. (2006) argued that owners in veterinary medicine indicate more OID, whereas veterinarians in non-veterinary medicine organizations (i.e., government-owned non-veterinarian organizations) identify more strongly with their occupation than with their organizations. By identifying with occupation instead of status in organizations, individuals may develop identification with different targets. Earlier studies have argued that OID and OCID may be in conflict; however, recent findings have indicated that OCID can foster OID or that OID and OCID relate positively (Bamber & Iyer, 2002; Hekman et al., 2009; van Dick et al., 2004).

2.2. OID-related Constructs

Despite its popularity as a subject of research and its recognition as a critical concept in understanding the underlying dynamics between employees and organizations, the OID concept has yet to achieve a singular definition. Thus, there is an ongoing debate regarding conceptual overlaps and crossovers with related constructs, such as OC, work engagement, and person–organization (P–O) fit (Edwards, 2005).

2.2.1. OC and OID

OC is one of the most debated constructs that overlaps conceptually with OID. Despite similar characteristics between OC and OID, there exist distinctive differences (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Herrbach, 2006; Pratt, 1998). Edwards (2005) noted that OC and OID are often described using the same terms, such as involvement and loyalty. However, OC emphasizes a positive attitude toward organizations, whereas OID reflects employees' self-definition (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Pratt (1998) explained that the two concepts differ because OID depicts the relationship between employees and organizations in terms of individual employees' self-concepts, whereas OC does not. OID requires a cognitive reflection process by employees to incorporate organizational values into their self-concepts and puts strong emphasis on self-definition. Conversely, OC depends on behavior toward

organizations rather than reflection about it. Allen and Meyer (1990) defined three dimensions of OC (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance) that illustrate how employees assess organizational value when deciding whether to stay. In other words, affective commitment refers to the emotional link employees have with their organizations, which makes them want to stay at the organization, whereas normative commitment refers to the moral obligation employees feel to remain at organizations. Different from the two dimensions, continuance commitment reflects employees' perceptions of the costs to leave organizations. These dimensions illustrate the focus of OC on evaluating the value of investing in attachment to organizations.

Tajfel and Turner (1986) argued that SIT, especially self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987), does not allow OID to be fixed. Instead, OID can be flexible and is affected by group salience or interactions with others. By contrast, OC is an attitude that is relatively stable once it is established (Gautam et al., 2004; Pratt, 2001; Wagner & Ward, 1993). Moreover, studies have indicated that despite similarities between OC and OID, OID is related only to the affective commitment dimension of OC (Carmeli et al., 2006; Dávila & García; 2012; Riketta, 2005).

Although OC and OID are similar concepts, their approaches and focuses are different. OC is a broader concept, focusing more on exchange-based value, and is more closely predictive of employees' attitudes toward the job. However, OID requires individuals to share the same identity with the affiliated organization. Furthermore, OID is self-definitional in nature

and leads employees to be motivated and pursue organizational interests and show collectiveness with more organization-specific reasons; whereas OC can be formulated without organization-specific reasons (Edward, 2005; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Empirical findings have also indicated that the concepts are not redundant (Mael & Tetrick, 1992; Riketta, 2005).

2.2.2. Work Engagement and OID

Although research examining the direct link between work engagement and OID is lacking, few empirical studies have examined the link between work engagement and OID, conceptual similarities have suggested potential conceptual crossovers, and some empirical studies have supported potential links between work engagement and OID (Dutton et al., 1994; Reade, 2001; Tyler & Blader, 2001).

Karanika-Murray et al. (2015) explained that employees with strong and positive bonds to their organizations tend to have a high level of engagement in their work; thus, those employees are more energized, dedicated, and satisfied with the work. When employees are engaged with their work, they have a state of mind with vigorous dedication and absorption; those positive feelings lead to a more passionate attitude, which has been proven to associate positively with employee engagement and OID (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Srivastava & Singh. 2020). This finding echoes previous studies that have found that employees with higher OID tend to demonstrate higher engagement with their work (Ashforth & Mael, 1989;

van Dick et al., 2006). Xanthopoulou et al. (2008) indicated that when employees are engaged in their work, they exhibit more efforts on their work; conversely, unengaged employees show low level of willingness to be committed to their work. On the basis of those findings, engaged employees are more willing to accept organizational goals and are thus more involved in achieving those goals as a consequence, which can be seen as similarities to the phenomenon of OID—that is, employees with stronger OID tend to exhibit better performance, OCBs, and work attitudes.

The phenomenon and analysis of work engagement and OID illustrate similarities; however, fundamental defection of engagement leads to different directions. Kahn (1990) defined engagement as when “people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.” On the basis of Kahn’s (1990) seminal study, there exist diverse arguments and approaches to defining engagement. Schaufeli et al.’s (2002) definition of engagement, “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption,” is considered an emergent characterization for research (Gözükara & Şimsek, 2016), in which the concept of work engagement captures how employees experience, feel, and behave at their work.

Karanika-Murray et al. (2015) reported a lack of studies on the direct link between engagement and OID, despite the nuanced possibilities of links in the existing studies. In their research, they examined OID and the three dimensions of work engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption.

The results indicated that work engagement, including all three dimensions, is positively correlated with OID. They further explained that employees who have stronger OID are highly engaged with their work, which ultimately has a mediating effect on ensuring better job satisfaction. The connotations of work engagement and OID can be viewed as similar because these constructs often deal with similar contexts in organizations, such as work attitudes and behaviors, satisfaction, and performance. Despite the conceptual similarities, definitions, and empirical findings indicating that work engagement is more focused on employees' attitudes at work, OID is focused on employees' identities with their organizations. That is, OID indicates how employees deal with the relationship toward their affiliated organization, whereas work engagement is how employees behave with regard to their work at the organization. Therefore, the two constructs are more sequential than comparable.

2.2.3. P–O Fit and OID

P–O fit might seem to be intertwined with OID, yet it has its differences. P–O fit deals with a similar concept in analyzing dynamics between employees and organizations when comparing it with OID. P–O fit explains the match between employees and affiliated organizations, with value and goal congruence, using either complementary or supplementary fit perspectives (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). P–O fit studies have addressed issues regarding personality, goals, skills, and abilities, and the focus is on

how individual organizational members perceive how their values fit with those of affiliated organizations (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). P–O fit is a critical component to understanding organizational dynamics because it directly affects satisfaction, wellbeing, self-esteem, and the sense of belonging to organizations, which can be viewed as similar to social identification and is based on the sense of belonging to an organization as a social group. Given that P–O fit represents compatibility between employees and organizations, it can be understood as how an organization “supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar” to those of employees, or employees’ characteristics “‘make whole’ the [organization] or add to it what is missing” (Kristof, 1996, p. 3).

The P–O fit concept explains that organizational members will be encouraged to engage more in various organizational matters when they fulfill their needs for relatedness and that fostering higher relatedness will be easier when their values are in accordance with organizational values (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Sultanova & Chechina, 2016). With higher relatedness, organizational members might have stronger relationships with the organization, which will encourage them to make positive contributions, such as a higher level of commitment and performance (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Risman et al., 2016). Empirical findings have indicated that when there exists a high P–O fit, organizations can enhance changes and their implementation (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Kim et al., 2013). Thus, a higher P–O fit implies that congruence exists between organizational members and

the organization (or organizational identities), which can cause members to have positive attitudes (more commitment) and become more likely to accept organizational expectations and exert desirable attitudes and behaviors. Given that OID is generally viewed as how organizational members resonate with organizational characteristics, P–O fit might seem to duplicate the concept of OID. Despite the conceptual similarity between P–O fit and OID, which is based on a strong emphasis regarding matching the values of organizational members and organizations, the focus on the research frame differentiates the two concepts. That is, OID studies have emphasized the processes (mediation and moderation) in the research framework. However, P–O fit studies have often emphasized the antecedents, which indicates that the existing research has primarily focused on how P–O fit generates the effect and subsequently examines the degree of P–O fit and its effect on organizational processes. Therefore, P–O fit can be understood as the general concept of leveling organizational members with shared organizational characteristics and values.

Pratt (1998) explained that based on the similarities of the two concepts, P–O fit is a broader concept than OID and can be differentiated more by their approaches to analyzing the individual–organizational relationship. As OID focuses on the issues of how individuals can explain their identities via their organizations, P–O fit emphasizes the more instrumental aspect of the relationship between individuals and organizations by assessing “whether or not an individual would provide

some gain or advantage to an organization, or vice versa” (Pratt, 1998, p. 179).

In empirical studies, high P–O fit is regarded as one of the strongest predictors of OID (Demir et al., 2015; Dutton et al. 1994). Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) explained that in terms of the relationship among commitments, OID, P–O fit, and job satisfaction, a significant relationship is found between P–O fit and OID.

2.3. OCID-related Constructs

As explained, existing research lacks in addressing OCID, PID, and CID when compared with OID. Hassan (2012) explained that even in the small portion of studies on this topic, researchers have interchangeably used the terms OCID, PID, and CID. Thus, this section introduces how OCID-related constructs have been examined in previous empirical studies.

2.3.1. PID

PID is one of the most popularly examined constructs among OCID, PID, and CID. However, meta-analytic studies on OID have very recently included PID for the first time, which indicates how limited the literature is on other types of identification (Greco et al., 2021). PID refers to how individuals connect their identity with their professions, often according to specific requirements for membership (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Hickson & Thomas, 1969). Although the process is similar to OCID, such that PID can

be arguably a subset of OCID, PID is differentiated by being exclusive to those who fulfill specific qualification for its membership. That is, during training and education before becoming professionals, individuals may establish identification with their jobs in the process of becoming professionals, and individuals' connections to their professions may begin before they become professionals. For example, if an employee has a profession as a physician, he/she may begin to identify with his/her job during medical school. Thus, individuals who have PID may have stronger ties to their jobs than individuals with other types of identification. PID accounts for how individuals hold memberships in their jobs, usually through specific licenses. When individuals meet the requirements, such as certifications, they are considered professionals and behave accordingly. Kuhn's (1960) study is one of the earliest studies covering how individuals may demonstrate differences according to their PIDs. Existing studies have utilized different approaches to understand the concept; one such approach involves comparing PID with OID. That is, empirical studies have compared how employees form certain types of identification more strongly than other types. For example, Apker and Fox (2002) compared registered nurses' (RNs') OIDs and PIDs to their hospital as an organization and to nursing as an occupation, respectively, and the results indicated that RNs have stronger PID than OID. The results also showed their perception of the change process in organizations and the influence of this process on their nursing jobs and on patient care as RNs rather than hospital employees. Russo

(1998) posited that identification is not a zero-sum concept, where either OID or CID absolutely wins, and journalists exert higher CID. However, the fact that both types of identification were high warns that potential conflicts between OID and CID need be closely monitored.

Another approach is to compare PID to OID. That is, rather than comparing to OID, the empirical testing includes only PID—examining relationships among constructs that are also reviewed regarding OID. Correia and Almeida (2020) examined the relationship between PID and burnout among physicians and nurses, revealing a meaningful relationship; however, the negative relationship shown between burnout and OID is already prevalent in existing empirical studies. Existing studies have often simply replaced the concept of OID with CID in empirical testing or are bound to the dynamics of specific occupations, such as physicians and nurses and their dynamics only.

2.3.2. CID

Similar to OCID and PID, CID represents individuals' connectedness to their career. Egold and van Dick (2015) explained that individuals with stronger CID show attachment and helping behaviors at work and a lack of attitude toward their colleagues; their preferences and focus are not on their organizations or colleagues but rather on their jobs and their occupational commitments.

Among OCID, CID, and PID, CID has received the least attention in

empirical studies. However, CID has been discussed since the 1970s, when Hayano (1977) examined professional poker players and collected two-year period of their work to examine their CID. Erdner and Guy (1990) found that individuals who reported higher-than-average CID had later-than-average intended retirement ages, which can be interpreted as signifying that high CID reflects strong commitment to work. Although PID and OCID have been addressed, the amount of empirical research on CID is lacking and will require further studies to prove the differences among constructs.

2.4. Purpose of the Study

OID has been established well for the past 30 years and has been examined in various contexts. Thus, considering OID and OCID in the context of current organizational settings is timely, as employees in organizations may react to different identification targets. Hence, this study aims to examine employee dynamics in organizations, and their attitudes and behaviors may be answered by not only OID but also OCID.

A review of the selected journal articles from the period of 2011–2020 (e.g., *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, and *Group and Organization Management*) identified 86 articles that utilized OID measurement tools to examine and understand OID and its influence in organizational settings. Under the same condition, only nine articles discussed and measured OCID and PID. As

aforementioned, empirical analyses have been heavily focused on OID, that is, existing studies have emphasized on OID to explain employee dynamics in organizations. The difference between the number of articles covering OID and OCID illustrates that necessity for an examination of the imbalance in focus to level the playing field. Dore (1973) recognized that depending on the employees' backgrounds, employees might establish identification with different targets almost 50 years ago. However, comprehensive study regarding such issues has not been conducted yet. Therefore, the present study delves into examining the OCID in organizational settings and how OCID can be used to understand employee dynamics in organizations in comparison with OID.

On the basis of the results of the literature review, to examine OID and OCID, this study aims to examine different aspects of antecedents to OID and OCID, such as individuals' orientations (e.g., collectivism or individualism); perceived prestige on organizations or jobs; and job mobility, whether intraorganization or interorganization. By examining different dimensions of antecedents in developing OID and OCID, the study also analyzes how those different types of identification affect organizational outcomes, such as change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, job crafting, and voice behavior.

By examining the diverse options available to organizations, this study proposes a comprehensive model of antecedents and corollaries of OID and OCID and investigates them theoretically and empirically. Hence,

this study has three purposes, which are described below.

First, as previously mentioned, Ashforth (2020) argued that OID has been eroded recently and that the pandemic has accelerated its pace in eroding OID. When OID no longer bonds employees to their affiliated organizations, the employees' attitudes and behaviors cannot be predicted, which can cause employees to not act or behave in the organizations' interests. However, different identification targets can exist for employees, which can serve as a complementary or replaceable function in organizations. In that case, when individuals with OCID identify themselves with their work, they might exert a different attitude or behavior compared with those with OID, which can explain the current phenomena in organizations.

Second, by examining two types of identification simultaneously (i.e., OID and OCID), this study delves into different paths of developing identifications. Existing studies have often focused on the same antecedents rather than comparing different influences in empirical testing. However, to the best of the authors' knowledge, no studies have compared different antecedents and its paths to identification targets. Thus, by examining differences in antecedents, studies can expand the understanding of why some individuals have stronger OID and others have stronger OCID.

Third, by differentiating the identifications, this study explains how OID and OCID lead to organizational outcomes differently. Existing studies have often mentioned that both identifications effectively explain

commitment, satisfaction, and performance; however, they do not clearly point out which identifications explain such consequences. However, this study presents the strengths of each identification as consequences; thus, it provides a contextual idea on what conditions organizations should focus to encourage employees to develop OID or OCID.

Chapter 3. Hypothesis Development

3.1. Conceptual Framework

To attain organizational competitiveness, an organization must be flexible, willing to accept challenges, and able to overcome difficulties. To perform such actions effectively, an organization must have employees who are willing to be involved, rather than employees who are divided and conflicted. Empirical findings have indicated that when employees have a high OID, they tend to exhibit better performance, more OCB, greater satisfaction, and lower turnover as those employees become more committed that they display higher performance at work (Arıkoğlu et al., 2019; Bao & Zhong, 2021; Liu et al., 2011; Riketta, 2005; van Dick et al., 2004; van Dick et al., 2008; Zhang & Wang, 2021).

On the basis of the prevailing premise that more engaged employees perform better at work, this study aims to examine the different types of employee identification at work by investigating aspects of antecedents and outcomes of OID and OCID, such as employees'

orientations (collectivism and individualism), perceived prestige (organization and job), job mobility (intraorganization and interorganization), change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, job crafting, and voice behavior.

Hall et al. (1970), who conducted one of the earliest OID studies, explained the need to examine the link between personal factors and OID. Existing studies have also analyzed personal factors and their effects in forming identifications at work (Hall et al., 1970; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Wiesenfeld et al., 2001). Extending ideas from those research, this study aims to examine employees' personal factors and analyze how OID and OCID are affected by those personal factors.

Earlier studies have indicated that personal preferences function differently in forming identifications. Dore (1973) indicated that British and Japanese employees establish identifications differently depending on their national culture (collectivism and individualism); that is, when employees have a stronger collectivism orientation, they have OID, and those who prefer individualism have OCID. Similarly, employees with perceived organizational prestige establish OID, whereas employees with perceived job prestige have OCID. Dutton et al. (1994) and Smiths (2001) explained that perceived external prestige (PEP), such as public image of organizations and job, may influence employees in forming identifications. For example, regarding the employer and the job as respected can positively affect forming identifications; that is, employees with perceived

organizational prestige establish OID, whereas employees with perceived job prestige have OCID.

Furthermore, job mobility refers to how employees' are being marketable/employable (Tepper, 2000). Thus, when employees perceive high job mobility within organizations, they are more inclined to value their affiliations. Conversely, when employees perceive high job mobility outside of the organizations, they might be willing to form identification with another organizations or be more attached to their occupation. Thus, this study predicts that employees who perceive job mobility opportunities within their organizations form OID and seek opportunities in their organizations. By contrast, when employees believe that job mobility opportunities do not exist in their affiliated organizations, they may detach from their organizations and attach to their job, thereby seeking chances externally.

Furthermore, this study examines whether the moderating effects of the conditions of employees' tenure in an organization and of their job in proportion to their entire careers moderate the relationship among antecedents (i.e., employees' orientations for collectivism and individualism, perceived organizational and job prestige, and intraorganizational and interorganizational job mobility), OID, and OCID.

For the perspectives for the consequences of identifications, this study argues that having different forms of identification (i.e., OID and OCID) will lead to different outcomes in organizations. That is, OID may

not be a panacea with OCID as a mere subordinate concept; rather, it may promote different outcomes. As identification is defined as how employees perceive oneness to the target, which will result in experiences of the target's successes or failures as one's own (Gioia et al., 2000). When employees identify with affiliation, they will exert such actions toward what is beneficial to the organization; conversely, when employees identify with their occupations, they can be more focused on their job-related actions rather than pursue benevolent actions for the organization. In other words, once OID is formed, employees may display organizational-focused attitudes and behaviors, that is, employees' desirable attitudes by organizations, such as greater change readiness and extra-role behaviors in organizations (Drzensky et al., 2012; Hameed et al., 2013; Marstand et al., 2021; Newman et al., 2016; van Knippenberg et al., 2006); by contrast, OCID makes employees exert work-related behaviors; although those behaviors can be beneficial to organizational outcomes, their attitudes and behaviors are more focused on work-related issues, such as proactive and job crafting behaviors (Burris et al., 2017; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Following existing research and empirical findings, this study adopts the concepts of personal orientation (collectivism and individualism), perceived prestige (organization and job), and job mobility (intraorganization and interorganization) to examine how those factors influence in forming OID and OCID. It also investigates how either type of identification may function differently for employees' attitudes and

culture emphasize *we*, whereas those in individualistic culture emphasize *I*. When people emphasize *we*, they value the concepts of collective identity, dependency, and solidarity; conversely, those who value *I* focus on autonomy and independency (Hui & Triandis, 1986).

The basic premises of culture differences can be directly applied in explaining OID and OCID. That is, as Ashforth (2020) explained, OID refers to employees' perspectives of *organizational we*, and OCID is how employees identify themselves with their job rather than the collective identity of the organization as a whole.

Orientations of collectivism and individualism may differently serve when developing identification, as Dore (1973) emphasized that employees have different identification targets due to their cultural differences. On the basis of Hofstede's (1980) value dimensions, Baker et al. (2009) explained how value dimensions influence OID development. For instance, collectivistic orientation prefers value collective goals and interdependency; whereas individual orientation values individual goals rather than group or organization goals, and emphasizes independence not interdependence. Collectivistic culture values socializations, relationships, and stronger senses of belonging. As SIT explains, individuals identify with certain groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel, 1978); thus, individuals with collectivistic orientations will associate with OID as their value system and will thus identify with their organizations as employees. Thus, empirical findings indicate that when employees have

collectivistic culture, they develop more OID. Similar to these arguments, Lee et al.'s (2015) meta-analytic study indicated that a collectivistic culture is beneficial in developing OID and that individualistic culture is not salient in developing OID. In line with this, this study implies that employees' preferences for collectivistic orientation are beneficial for developing OID because collectivistic orientation encourages individual employees to value social relationships, interdependence, and working toward collective goals. Thus, this study posits Hypothesis 1a as follows:

Hypothesis 1a. Employees with collectivistic orientation develop OID.

Given that the value system of collectivists is more compatible with OID in the perspective of SIT, studies have discussed the relationship between collectivism and OID; however, studies examining the relationship between individualism and OCID is lacking. However, on the basis of SIT, different from collectivism, which perceives identity as a part of a larger group, people with individualism identify themselves as a separate entity from collectivist membership; rather, they focus on their personal goals and values (Jetten et al., 2002). Argument exists that employees with collectivistic orientation develop OID and will exert significant attitudes and behavior in organizations as they are more perceptive to collective goals and values (Lee et al., 2015). However, this statement can be presumptuous to conclude. That is, perhaps employees with collectivistic orientation might

engage more at work with collective goals, whereas individualistic orientations may function differently compared with collectivism. Individualism does not imply less preferable traits of employees that every employee should be align with collectivism; rather, their value systems are different, such that, they might function differently at various organizational settings. In occupational science, occupation is defined as “a characteristic of individual” (Dickie et al., 2006, p. 84), which indicates that individuals have a sole control on their decision on having occupations and how to perform their occupation at work. That is, individualistic employees can have initiatives on their job with their convictions and can perform their work without reservations, which can be beneficial to organizations.

Different from employees with collectivistic orientations, employees with individualism will likely prioritize their independence and personal interests and seek self-fulfillment instead of collective goals (Hofstede, 2001; Jackson et al., 2006). Thus, they will establish OCID. Therefore, their attitudes and behaviors are based on their independent goals and interests before organizational objectives.

Following SIT’s logic and definition of occupation, this study argues that employees with individualistic orientations will identify themselves with their occupation and develop OCID due to their values on individual autonomy, independency, unique traits, and personal goals, not the employing organization. Thus, this study proposes the following:

Hypothesis 1b. Employees with individualistic orientation develop

OCID.

3.2.2. Perceived Organizational Prestige and Perceived Job Prestige

The perceived reputation of organizations is known as PEP (Smidts et al., 2001), and those public perceptions of an organization's distinctiveness can be considered in terms of organizational image and reputation (Hasan & Hussain, 2015). It refers to employees' consideration of how the public thinks of their organization. As SIT explains, individuals identify with certain groups. Scholars have echoed this argument by explaining that PEP can augment employees' desired social identities (Carmeli et al., 2006; Dutton & Dukerich, 1991; Dutton et al., 1994; Smidts et al., 2001). That is, when employees consider their statuses or reputations essential, they are more willing to identify with the employing organization because of employing the organizations' PEP. A higher level of PEP implies more attachment to their affiliations.

Working at organizations with high PEP can allow employees to consider themselves in a good position, which can increase their satisfaction and encourage their positive attitudes and behaviors (Rodrigo et al., 2019). Employees' sensitivities to how they think outsiders view their organizations affect OID, because employees consider prestigious organizational reputation as a personal status. Thus, employees who consider their organizations as successful have a stronger OID (Fuller et al., 2006). Following this logic, the distinction between individuals and affiliated

organizations become blur, such that individuals can imply that the public's PEP of an organization directly address their social status.

Existing studies support this argument. In their empirical analysis, Smidts et al. (2001) indicated a positive relationship between PEP and OID. Dukerich et al. (2002) explained that a constructed external image and OID strength are positively related; that is, the higher the PEP is, the stronger the OID will be. Carmeli et al. (2006) showed that when employees recognize PEP, they bask in the organization's reflected glory and values, and form greater OID. When employees acknowledge that their organization has a good reputation among outsiders and value its prestigious status, they are more likely to form a positive attitude toward the organization; moreover, a positive effect of establishing OID exists. Carmeli (2005) explained that employees are concerned with the way their organizations are represented in public. In addition, representing organizations well enhances employees' self-worth in relation to their affiliations. On the basis of these findings, this study predicts that with greater PEP, employees are likely to form stronger OID.

Hypothesis 2a. When employees have perceived organizational prestige, they develop OID.

Following the same logic of PEP and OID, a job's perceived prestige will lead to OCID development. Perceived prestige functions as a measure of social respect of the affiliations; SIT scholars have explained

that perceived prestige sets a tone for social identifications (Hiller et al., 2014). This notion is applicable not only to organizations and OID but also to occupations and OCID. As higher PEP can lead to higher OID, a higher perceived prestige of the occupation can result in higher OCID.

Fuller et al. (2006) explained that employees are sensitive to organizational reputation because they consider prestigious organizational reputation as a personal status, which results in stronger OID. Similarly, perceived job prestige results in stronger OCID because employees consider their jobs more prestigious, which reflects their personal statuses. Bamber and Iyer (2002) explained that when auditors recognize that their occupation has a higher level of prestige, their level of identification increases. Given that OCID refers to how individuals feel congruence to their occupations, when they recognize that their occupation is respected by the public, they can consider themselves as being respected the same as their occupation. Therefore, this study posits that a higher level of perceived job prestige leads to employees identifying themselves with their occupations.

Hypothesis 2b. When employees have a strong perceived job prestige, they develop OCID.

3.2.3. Perceived Intraorganizational and Interorganizational Job Mobility

A broader definition of job mobility refers to employees' perception of their own employability in the market (Tepper, 2000). In this

study, to examine the difference, job mobility is divided into two categories: intraorganization and interorganization. Intraorganizational job mobility (*hereafter*, internal job mobility) refers to internal mobility, such as promotion or career development; conversely, interorganizational mobility (*hereafter*, external job mobility) refers to external changes, for which employees change their employers to seek opportunities outside of their current organizations (Beehr & Taber, 1993; Pearce & Randel, 2004; Shah, 2000).

Perceived internal mobility includes completely voluntary actions. Thus, when employees view that current organizations offer satisfactory education and development opportunities and that with personal effort, they can be promoted or apply for wanted positions within the organizations, they seek promotional opportunities within their current organizations.

To the best of the authors' knowledge, no empirical research has examined the direct relationship between internal/external job mobility and OID. Existing studies have explained that when there exists a stronger OID, turnover decreases, and employees have longer tenures (De Moura et al., 2009; van Dick et al., 2004). Empirical findings have also indicated that there exists a positive relationship between affective commitment and internal job mobility (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000). In the same vein, when employees feel that they are being treated with equity, their OID is enhanced. In view of SIT, when employees recognize potential opportunities for the promotions within the

organizations, their recognition of organization membership can be augmented because they will identify with the group, thereby employing organization that will provide them opportunities for career advancement. Thus, believing that there exist fair opportunities for internal mobility will positively relate to the development of employees' OID. Therefore, when employees consider that their career opportunities are found internally, they will develop OID and exert more efforts into making internal job mobility a reality. Thus, this study posits the following:

Hypothesis 3a. When employees perceive their job mobility within the organizations, they develop OID.

Although no empirical studies have examined the relationship between external job mobility and OID and/or OCID, other applicable concepts can be used to understand and predict the relationships. On the basis of SIT, Hallier (2009) explained that "individual mobility beliefs become predominant is for members of a lower status group to perceive differential opportunities to join to a higher status group" (p.859).

SIT explains that when individuals are not satisfied with the group they belong to, they will likely leave the group when they have alternative employment opportunities (Tepper, 2000). That is, employees can recognize perceived external mobility when they view that their current organization does not offer sufficient chances in development or promotion opportunities. Then, employees need to seek outside of their organization for their next

career paths.

In Pearlman's (2018) study of voluntary external mobility, she introduced Barron's (2003) proposition on how employees recognize their worth of their occupation for their skills and ability in negotiations, which can imply their skillfulness to themselves and to their potential employers. Similarly, when employees perceive their career opportunities outside of their current employers, their identification target will be the occupation because it will be the key factor to seek opportunities outside of the organization.

Therefore, in those cases when employees seek career opportunities outside of their current organization, they will form attachment to their occupation, not the organization, because their occupation needs to be marketable for seeking opportunities. Thus, when employees consider that their careers must be sought outside of their organization, they form attachment to their occupation and refine their personal professional skill sets to become available for external chances.

Hypothesis 3b. When employees perceive their job mobility outside of the current organizations, they develop OCID.

3.2.4. Change Readiness

Organizational Identification (OID) has been recognized as a positive motivator for employees in organizations— meta-analytic studies have proven its promotion of desirable organizational behaviors, including

job satisfaction, helping behavior, and low turnover intentions at work (Riketta, 2005; Riketta & van Dick, 2005). However, the relationship between organizational change and OID is contradictory in nature. Research is often conducted under merger and acquisition conditions, analyzing relationships between pre and post-merger OID (Blake & Mouton, 1985). Though there have been some studies on successful post-merger transformations, there also exist issues of resistances such as us-versus-them and favoritism toward the change process (Drzensky & van Dick, 2013). Employees potentially feel as though their work-based identities are threatened explain these phenomena; thus, they resist (van Dijk & van Dick, 2009).

Other contexts have yielded mixed interpretations. Some studies indicated that employees with higher OID tend to resist organizational change because it could confuse their self-concepts (Blake & Mouton, 1985; Drzensky & van Dick, 2013; Jetten et al., 2002; van Dijk & van Dick, 2009). Other studies argued that employees with high OID tended to anticipate changes because they aligned organizational benefits with their individual interests (Dutton et al., 1994). Miller et al. (1994) explained that when proper information was provided, employees' OID had a positive relationship with their openness to change. Madsen et al. (2005) also found the same positive relationship between OID and readiness for change. Similarly, according to van Knippenberg et al. (2006), employees with higher OID valued the change process, while those with low OID focused

on outcomes only.

Although Hameed et al. (2013) likewise uncovered a positive relationship between OID and readiness for change, studies have also indicated a negative relationship between OID and organizational change. Strong OID has been found to predict resistance to change, as well as negative attitudes and reactions to it (Jetten et al., 2002; van Dick et al., 2006). Considering that some studies indicated that OID could decrease during the change process (Drzensky & van Dick, 2013), it could be argued that OID could affect organizational change processes both positively or negatively. Drzensky et al. (2012) explains that even if they found positive effect between change readiness and OID, based on their moderating effect analysis, they could not generally conclude that the relationship between change readiness and OID is positive. Rather, it could be differently displayed depending on other factors at hand in these situations.

Both arguments and their bases are reasonable and plausible. However, this study differentiates the intention, which is the perception of the need for change and acknowledgement of it from actual organizational change. Literature indicates that successful organizational change requires three steps: readiness, adoption, and institutionalization (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Holt et al., 2007). Arguments on the relationship between OID and resistance to change may apply in the processes of adoption and institutionalization when an organization realizes and actualizes change and takes tangible steps; hence, its initial phase (i.e., change readiness) could be

different from its actualization. Change readiness refers to the perception of employees' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions based on their understanding of the need or effectiveness of organizational change. Ultimately, this study argues that OID is a positive predictor for change readiness.

Hypothesis 4a. OID is positively related to change readiness.

Since the relationship between organizational change and OID is contradictory in nature, this study has defined change readiness as employees' intention of organizational change, which is considered as the initial phase of the entire organizational change processes. This study also argues OID would be positively related to employees' intention of organizational change since employees with OID view themselves with organizations congruently that when they think that organizational change could be beneficial for the organization, they would agree with the needs for the change.

Although there are no studies which examine the relationship between change readiness or organizational change and OCID, based on the empirical studies which do examine the relationship between change readiness and OID, it can be predicted that OCID may function differently when facing organizational change. As Dent and Goldberg (1999) argued, when there is resistance against change, it does not mean that people are against all changes. Rather, they fear potential consequences such as losing their social and financial status, or losing their comfort zones, which are

directly related to autonomy and independence when developing OCID. Furthermore, van Dijk and van Dick (2009) explained that this resistance against change “stems from an employee’s belief or concern that the change has or will have a negative impact on their personal and/or their colleagues’ experience of work” (p.144), which is less related to their employing organization, and instead directly applies to their occupations. For social identity theory (SIT), it refers to how people’s self-concepts are based on their membership in social groups, and can be interpreted as how individuals’ self-concepts are based on their occupations and how organizational change could threaten it, given their status of occupation at work. Thus, it can be predicted that individuals with OCID would resist organizational change, with OCID being a negative predictor for change readiness.

Hypothesis 4b. OCID is negatively related to change readiness.

3.2.5. Extra-role Behavior

Extra-role behavior is a key concept that occurs with OCID in literature (Riketta, 2005; van Dick et al., 2005; van Dick, 2006 van Dick et al, 2008). It refers to employees’ voluntary actions to support organizational performance without receiving direct compensations. Such actions include helping coworkers, accepting temporary orders, keeping work environment uncluttered, suggesting productive statements, sublating conflict, and securing organizational resources (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988).

When employees identify themselves with their organizations, they exert extra-role behaviors by voluntarily helping and exhibiting actions that are not described in their job descriptions or requirements. It could be seen as directed toward the organization for its betterment as a whole, rather than for personal rewards or recognition (Marstand et al., 2021).

When employees have strong OID, they cognitively and emotionally attach to organizations, thus translating it into their behavior (Hatch & Schultz, 2000). Empirical findings indicate that employees with OID establish positive attitudes toward beneficial behaviors in organizations. According to SIT, when employees identify with organizations, they tend to illustrate extra-role behaviors by cooperating with coworkers and exerting positive attitude to achieve organizational goals, viewing themselves in line with their affiliations. This study therefore argues that employees who identify with organizations willingly aid colleagues and show helping behavior. Thus, OID guides employees to become good organizational citizens, and when employees have OID along with a strong sense of membership, they act as members of organizations and exhibit their attitudes and behaviors to meet organizational expectations.

Hypothesis 5. OID positively relates to extra-role behavior.

3.2.6. Proactive Behavior

Proactive behavior refers to “a process whereby individuals recognize potential problems or opportunities in their work environment and

self-initiate change to bring about a better future work situation” (Parker & Collins, 2010 p. 636). This definition also adopts the concept of personal initiative, which refers to individuals’ behavioral patterns related to active workplace participation, such as going beyond their role requirements. This study defines proactive behavior as employees’ active and participatory attitudes toward organizational matters and their levels of willingness to engage in work. Speier and Frese’s (1997) longitudinal study on personal initiative indicated that self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between control and complexity at work and concurrent initiative.

However, supervisors and organizations do not always welcome employees’ proactive behaviors— supervisors often consider proactive behaviors as a threat or distraction. Grant and Ashford (2008) explained, there was no clear guidelines to evaluate when proactive behaviors were seen as either constructive or destructive. Thus, it could be expected that when employees identify with organizations, they might not freely show proactive behaviors because colleagues might see these as threats or distractions. Unlike OID, when employees identify themselves with their occupations, they establish their self-concept with their jobs. Following SIT, when employees congruently view themselves with their occupations, they tend to display proactive behaviors by actively participating and engaging in workplace participation. Going beyond their role requirements, employees with OCID may thereby induce more self-efficacy, which could in turn increase employees’ proactive behaviors. Therefore, the study also posits:

Hypothesis 6. OCID positively relates to proactive behavior.

3.2.7. Task Crafting, Cognitive Crafting, and Relational Crafting

Job crafting could be considered as employees' active engagement in altering conventional job descriptions such as being creative and making physical and cognitive changes at their work. This further emphasizes that by exhibiting job crafting behavior, employees could "alter their identity or the meaning of the work" to better fit employees (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 188). Thus, employees take initiative and are flexible with approaches in jobs coinciding with their skill sets, customizing the process and conducting their work through personal alterations (Kilica et al., 2020). Employees could tailor their work to enhance their personal fit with their occupations (Slemp et al., 2015). Job crafting is therefore considered as an essential process for employees to positively construct organizational performance by tailoring their work to better suit themselves (Wrzesniewski et al., 2013).

Few empirical studies examine the relationship of job crafting and OCID in direct, mediating, and moderating effects between them. The studies mostly argue that OCID and job crafting exhibit both a positive and significant relationship (Bacaksiz et al., 2017; Killic et al., 2020; Romeo et al., 2021; Sameer et al., 2021; Walk & Peterson, 2022).

Job crafting is categorized into three dimensions: task, cognitive, and relational crafting (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Task crafting refers

to employees' allocation of work tasks over the amount of tasks and how employees develop work processes. Cognitive crafting is how employees' approach their jobs and perceive their work tasks. Lastly, relational crating refers to how employees modify interpersonal interactions with others in the workplace.

Empirical studies have indicated the insignificant findings of task crafting and OID despite expectations, and the mediating effect of organizational identification was unsupported, and the path between task crafting and OID was also insignificant (Hur et al., 2017). Hur et al. (2017) explained that "job-related outcomes tend to be more strongly affected by proximal than distal antecedents" thus further explaining how OID could have "transformed into employees' attitude toward work" (p. 451).

Following this argument, it could be posited that if identifying with an organization is considered as a distal target for employees, identifying with occupation could conversely be more proximal, especially when examining relationship of the job crafting (which is an occupation-specific related concept). Paralleling SIT, employees who identify themselves with occupation they will exert job crafting behaviors, as they feel a higher sense of belonging to their occupation, and would show tendencies to perform better at their given roles.

This study therefore argues that OCID exhibits a positively relationship with job crafting for both task and cognitive crafting dimensions. With job crafting being a particular type of employee proactive

behavior where they allocate to personally optimize their needs and preferences, the term better explains employees' personal level attachments to work, rather than their desires to follow cohesive organizational culture. However, in Dore's (1973) comparative studies of Britain and Japan, he emphasized that in the latter, where employees identify themselves with employing organizations, established relational contract could be assumed that employees value organizational goals. Employees who identify themselves with organizations could show more attachment to the organizations, and put more value on shared goals and interdependency within organizations, thus could more willingly exert relational crafting when comparing to OCID. Therefore, the study also posits that:

Hypothesis 7a. OID is positively related to relational crafting.

Hypothesis 7b. OCID positively relates to task crafting and cognitive crafting

Hypothesis 7c. OCID negatively relates to relational crafting.

3.2.7. Promotive Voice and Prohibitive Voice

Voice behavior is based on Hirschman's (1970) exit-voice-loyalty (EVL) theory, where he discusses how individuals choose to act in situations involving dissatisfaction—they may decide to take a voice option to express their opinions and new ideas, or could alternatively choose an exit option, such as a voluntary turnover by leaving the organization when the first option fails. Loyalty is an opposite option of exit and voice, where

employees maintain attachment to their organization despite their dissatisfaction and/or disagreement with it (Hirschman, 1970). The concept is considered one of the extra-role behaviors of employees, as it allows them to provide constructive opinions to improve their current situations (van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

Liang et al. (2012) compared two categories of voice behavior: promotive and prohibitive. When employees provide their opinions to improve their organizations, they are using a promotive voice, and occurs when employees point out concerns regarding incidents, practices, or behaviors that are harmful to their organizations. Although the employees' intention in both types of voicing is to improve their organizations, echoing Hirschman's EVL theory, each type serves organizations differently. The promotive voice entails positive efforts, such as providing new ideas to improve the status quo that clearly reveals good intentions. In contrast, employees use prohibitive voices to point out problems, but are not required to provide solutions to them (Liang et al., 2012). With both types, employees intend to improve or help their organization and is considered as "going the extra mile" to move beyond the status quo. The literature includes empirical studies on the relationship between voice and OID, with some researchers specifically examining promotive and prohibitive voice and OID (Arain et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2015; Knoll & van Dick, 2013). Although generally, voice and OID is understood as having a positive relationship, with OID both directly and indirectly influencing voice

behavior, there are mixed results which indicated a U-shaped curvilinear relationship with voice behavior (Shahjehan et al., 2020; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008).

Despite this, researchers have made no empirical findings comparing voice to OCID. This study supports the previous findings that OID may positively affect voice behavior, since promotive behavior is more future-oriented and provides new ideas for organizations to move forward. Therefore, it could be expected that OID could influence more promotive voice behavior. However, OCID could also have a larger effect on the prohibitive voice, as employees use it to point out issues due to problems they detect in their organizations as they fulfill their roles. As Svendsen et al. (2020) explain, prohibitive voice usage and expressing concerns to prevent potential issues could require higher risk-taking employees to speak up, as findings indicated that those who express dissatisfaction through the prohibitive voice could experience disadvantages at work through low performance appraisals and risk-taking promotion opportunities (Lin & Johnson, 2015).

Hence, it can be predicted that employees who identify themselves with their affiliations could be intimidated to express prohibitive voice when compared to employees with OCID. It can therefore be argued that when employees have stronger OID, they actively engage in the processes of extra-role behavior, thereby providing new ideas for improving organizations. Meanwhile, employees who have stronger OCID have a

larger influence by using prohibitive voice, thereby concentrating on and pointing out problems. It is thereby posited that:

Hypothesis 8a. OID is positively related to promotive voice.

Hypothesis 8b. OID is negatively related to prohibitive voice.

Hypothesis 8c. OCID is positively related to prohibitive voice.

3.3. Moderating Effects

3.3.1. Employee Organizational Tenure and Employee Job Tenure

When examining the relationship between antecedents (e.g., orientations, perceived prestige, and job mobility) and OID and OCID, the conditions of employees' organizational tenure moderate the relationship between the antecedents (i.e., employees' orientations, perceived prestige, and job mobility). Since net value of employee tenure could not fully reflect on employees' commitment to the organization and their occupations, this study adopts employees' organizational tenure as a proportion of organizational tenure to their entire career, and likewise calculate employees' job tenure as proportion of job tenure to their entire career (i.e., the length employees work for an organization, or the job in proportion to their entire careers). Using the proportion of tenure duration, better understands employees' commitment to their current organizations.

Though there are mixed results regarding employee tenure that some argued that regardless employee tenure, OID was nevertheless unaffected (Barker & Tompkins, 1994; Bartel et al., 2012; Bullis & Bach,

1989). However, it is widely understood that existing studies utilize employees' tenure when examining OID because the amount of tenure indicates the length and the depth employees are exposed to organizational practices or culture, such as the socialization process, when developing OID (Schrodt, 2002).

Although some empirical studies discuss the moderating effect of organizational tenure when examining professional identification, where longer-tenured employees have a positive moderating effect in the relationship between professional identification and job satisfaction (Loi et al., 2004), none discuss job tenure and OCID. However, a similar concept has been tackled in this study, by calculating employees' organizational tenure and employees' job tenure (i.e., the length employees work for an organization, or the job in proportion to their entire careers) and examining how those affect the relationship between OID and OCID and employees' orientations, perceived organization and job prestige, and job mobility.

If employees have worked for long periods for an organization in proportion to their entire careers, it could strengthen employees' OID development because they have more time invested to increase OID levels. Likewise, when employees have worked for long periods for the job in proportion to their entire careers, it could strengthen employees' OCID development because they are more committed for a longer time period to allow the attachment of their personal identity to occupational identity. Longer work period for an organization or a job may not be the sole reason

for developing OID or OCID. Nevertheless, duration could positively fortify the relationship between antecedents and OID and OCID, thus positively influencing employees as well.

Hypothesis 10. Longer employee tenure with an organization in proportion to their entire career strengthens the relationship between (a) collectivistic orientation and OID, (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID, and (c) internal job mobility and OID.

Hypothesis 11. Longer employee tenure with a job in proportion to their entire career strengthens the relationship between (a) individualistic orientation and OCID, (b) perceived job prestige and OCID, and (c) external job mobility and OCID.

3.3.2. Perceived Job Insecurity

Job insecurity is recognized as a stressor in the work environment, and harms employees' attitudes and behaviors (Wang et al., 2015, Piccoli et al., 2017). As van Dick et al. (2006) explained, when employees have job security, it bolsters the identification process with their affiliated organizations. However, when they recognize job insecurity, the situation can be flipped in completely opposite directions. Following SIT, when employees identify themselves with their employing organization, they tend to be more committed to their affiliations (Baruch & Cohen, 2007). Extending its logic, when employees recognize job insecurity, they might disengage themselves from their affiliations.

Though Piccoli et al. (2017) explained that despite the well-known negative consequences between job insecurity and employee performance, a careful examination of behavioral response to job insecurity is still needed. Their study empirically found a significant negative relationship between job insecurity and OID. It can be understood that when employees cast doubts about their organizational tenure, they react negatively to OID, resulting in a less effective and/or productive attitude and behavior in the organization. Callea et al.'s (2016) empirical findings likewise indicated that employees who recognize job insecurity also indicate reduced OID, which echoes previous findings on how perceived job insecurity reduces OID (Ngo et al., 2013).

Employees with a collectivist orientation perceive interdependency with their colleagues who value organizational interests (Jackson et al., 2006). Thus, it could be predicted that when employees have a collectivist orientation, they would establish OID. However, when those employees perceive job insecurity, because the feeling of being outcasted from their organizations could have a greater effect on them. Additionally, Carmeli (2005) explained that employees are concerned with the way their organizations are represented in the public, and when these are seen with respect, employees could develop stronger OID as they consider their organization's status as their own personal reputation. However, when they perceive job insecurity, they might fear that they lose social status as a reflected glory of their organization as well.

Furthermore, existing studies have found a positive relationship between affective commitment and internal job moves (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001; Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000). When employees view that they have opportunities to receive promotions or career advancement opportunities in the organizations, they will be more committed to their organizations by establishing OID. When employees perceive job insecurity while seeing potential internal career advancement, it could devastate them for losing both their current job and potential career advancement opportunities. Thus, in this study, job insecurity moderates employees' collectivistic orientation, perceived organizational prestige, and internal job mobility and OID, and examines how perceived job insecurity hinders developing OID.

Hypothesis 12. When employees perceive job insecurity, it would weaken the relationship between (a) collectivistic orientation and OID, (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID, and (c) internal job mobility and OID.

Chapter 4. Methods

4.1. Data Collection Procedure

This study involved data collection from organizations in Korea to empirically test the hypotheses from the conceptual framework. The target organizations were middle-market enterprises on electronics, chemicals, and

healthcare. Those of similar organizational sizes were selected to minimize potential size-based variations in data. To achieve better external validity, the data was collected from three organizations involved in home appliances, chemical product manufacturing, and general hospital services.

With consent from the organizations' management, questionnaires were distributed to employees and their supervisors. Surveys were collected in two waves with a minimum interval of four weeks to examine the hypothesized causal relationships and alleviate common method bias. Data was collected from individual employees and their supervisors to overcome single-source bias. Surveying was conducted via both written and web-based forms, given the ongoing pandemic. Surveys were distributed to participants twice at four-week intervals and were coded by identification codes according to the first and second surveys and those from employees and their supervisors. To secure confidentiality, all participants received separate envelopes; once they finished the questionnaires, they could seal these envelopes, which encouraged participants to be candid with their answers. In the web-based surveys, personalized survey links were provided to employees and supervisors' work e-mail accounts to strictly protect their answers.

4.2. Sample

The first survey received responses from 529 employees, while the second survey received 412 (response rate of employees=79.38%), and 388

supervisor surveys returned. Thus, the total number of employees' first and second surveys, as well as the supervisor surveys, comprised 363 surveys. After applying screening methods to exclude careless responses, four surveys were excluded from the final sample, including answers with repeated measures and surveys without consent for utilization of data. Additionally, the online surveys were examined to ensure that employees took a minimum of two minutes to respond, which was calculated as the minimum amount of time to read all questions.

Excluding four surveys, the final sample included data from 359 employees. The sample included various job groups such as sales and marketing (16.7%), planning and finance (10.6%), production (13.4%), research and development (24.8%), customer service (1.4%), nursing (16.4%), nurse aides (0.8%), medical technicians (5.3%), administration (6.7%), safety (0.8%), and others (3.1%). The sample consisted of 198 male and 161 female respondents with an average age of 35.04 years ($SD=7.77$), average overall tenure of 9.59 years ($SD=7.06$), average organizational tenure of 6.87 years ($SD=6.49$), and average job tenure of 7.09 years ($SD=5.98$). Regarding educational backgrounds, 19 had high-school diplomas but no higher education (5.3%), 64 held associate degrees (17.8%), 240 held bachelor's degrees (66.9%), and 36 held graduate degrees (10%). Regarding employee levels, 178 were entry-level employees (49.6%), 171 were middle managers (47.63%), and 10 were managers (2.79%). For the employment types, 340 had permanent positions (94.71%) and 19 had

irregular/contract-based positions (5.29%).

4.2.1. Adjusting Samples for Further Clarification of the Analysis

When conducting the analysis with a final sample of 359, a clear pattern emerged— the samples from the general hospital indicated completely different statistical results in comparison to other organizations. The majority of samples from the hospitals were nurses. With nursing being an occupation involving professional licenses, existing studies have examined nurses' professional pride, turnover intention, burnout, and job satisfaction, and concluded that it might not be suitable to include them in samples of regular office settings for statistical analysis given their sheer difference from other job groups. Thus, after conducting the statistical analyses from the initial final sample, I proposed another analysis without the nurse group.

In comparing hospital samples to that of other organizations regarding OID and OCID, the results of a t-test indicated that differences between groups were statistically significant, $t(261) = 2.03, p = .04$ and $t(241) = 3.43, p = .000$. However, when excluding nurses from the sample, the t-test indicated that $t(202) = .74, p = .46$ and $t(182) = 1.82, p = .07$. Thus, the t-test indicated that differences between groups were statistically insignificant.

Excluding nurses, the adjusted sample included 300 with various background and demographic information, such as sales and marketing

(20%), planning and finance (12.7%), production (16 %), research (29.7%), customer service (1.7%), nurse aides (1%), medical technician (6.3%), administration (8%), safety (1%), and others (3.7%). It included 198 male and 102 female respondents with an average age of 34.95 years ($SD=7.82$), average tenure of 9.56 years ($SD=7.22$), average organizational tenure of 7.03 years ($SD=6.67$), and average job tenure of 6.97 years ($SD=6.07$). Regarding educational backgrounds, 19 had high-school diplomas but no higher education (6.3%), 39 held associate degrees (1%), 208 held bachelor's degrees (69.3%), and 34 held graduate degrees (11.3%). Regarding employee levels, 130 were entry-level employees (43.33%), 161 were middle managers (53.67%) and 9 were managers (3%). For the employment types, 287 had permanent positions (95.67%) and 13 had irregular/contract-based positions (4.33%).

4.3. Ethical Considerations

Ethical guidelines were followed with approval by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) with data collection procedures and survey questionnaires reviewed and approved (No. 2204/003-018). Following the IRB's procedural guidelines, a separate page of information regarding the purpose of the study was provided prior to answering survey questions. Participants were notified that participation in the study was on a completely voluntary basis and information would remain strictly confidential and would therefore be undisclosed to, seen, used, or obtained by any person or

entity except the researchers. Supervisors and HR departments were informed that employees and organizations who participated in the study would remain anonymous in the subsequent publications of the results. Most importantly, every participant was informed that responses to the survey would be terminated even if they submitted complete answers, and all the surveys with consent for research analysis would be accessible to only the researcher. Additionally, they were informed that personal information would be completely destroyed once the data had been organized for analysis.

4.4. Measures

Data was collected from employees and their supervisors. Employees were asked to provide perspectives regarding their organizations, jobs, and personal orientations. Supervisors were asked to rate employees' attitude and behaviors. All variables were assessed with multi-item measures rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Each scale item was translated from English to Korean using back-translation procedures to ensure semantic equivalence (Brislin, 1986).

Organizational Identification. OID was measured with 6 items based on work by Mael and Ashforth (1992). An sample item is "When I talk about [organization], I usually speak of 'we' and not 'they'" ($\alpha=.876$).

Occupational Identification. OCID was measured by rephrased items equivalent to Mael and Ashforth's (1992) OID scale. The items were

adjusted to change “organization” to “occupation” to form the OCID measure. This approach to measuring OCID has been used in studies by Bamber and Iyer (2002), Lui et al. (2003), Heckman et al. (2009), Sluss and Thompson (2012), and Kroon and Noorderhaven (2018). As Kroon and Noorderhaven noted, the scale has a Cronbach’s alpha of .85, thus demonstrating stable reliability ($\alpha=.864$).

Collectivism and Individualism. Collectivism and individualism were measured using the 8-item collectivism and 8-item individualism scale from Triandis and Gelfand (1998). A sample item for collectivism is “I feel good when I cooperate with others,” and a sample item for individualism is “I’d rather depend on myself than others” ($\alpha=.806$ and $\alpha=.773$).

Perceived Organizational and Job Prestige. Perceived organizational prestige was measured using 5 items from Mael and Ashforth’s (1992) perceived organizational prestige scale. A sample item is “People in my community think highly of [organization].” Perceived job prestige was measured using 5 items from Mael and Ashforth’s (1992) scale rephrased to fit the context. A sample item is “People in my community think highly of [occupation]” ($\alpha=.912$ and $\alpha=.929$).

Intra- and Interorganizational Job Mobility. Prince’s (2003) 5-item mobility opportunity scale was used to measure intraorganizational mobility. A sample item is “Within the next two years, I will have a chance to move to... a higher grade job within the same job family.”

Interorganizational mobility was measured by adopting the 3-item scale of

perceived alternative job opportunities by Prince and Mueller (1986). A sample item is “It would not be easy to find acceptable alternative employment” ($\alpha=.846$ and $\alpha=.906$).

Change Readiness. Armenakis et al.’s (2007) 24-item scale for Organizational Change Recipients’ Belief was adopted to measure change readiness. The scale has 5 dimensions: Discrepancy, Appropriateness, Efficacy, Valence, and Principal Support. A sample item is “This change will benefit me” ($\alpha=.850$).

Extra-role Behavior. Organizational subscale items of Lee and Allen’s (2002) OCB scale was used to measured employees’ extra-role behavior. Supervisors provided responses on their direct reports. The scale items’ referents were changed to address the staff. A sample item is “This employee expresses loyalty toward the organization” ($\alpha=.923$).

Proactive Behavior. Frese et al.’s (1997) 7-item measure was adopted to measure proactive behavior. Supervisors provided ratings for their direct reports. The scale items’ referents were changed from “I” to “this employee.” A sample item is “This employee actively attacks problems in [organization]” ($\alpha=.930$).

Job Crafting. Selmp and Vella-Brodrick’s (2013) 15-item Job Crafting Questionnaire was utilized to measure job crafting. The measure embraces three sub-dimensions: task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting. A sample item is “Introduce a new approach to improve your work” ($\alpha=.892$, $\alpha=.872$, and $\alpha=.847$).

Promotive and Prohibitive Voices. Voice behavior was assessed using a 10-item scale developed by Liang et al. (2012). The scale consists of 5-items measuring promotive voice and 5 items measuring prohibitive voice. Sample items are “Raise suggestions to improve the unit’s working procedure” for promotive voice and “Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management” for prohibitive voice ($\alpha=.777$ and $\alpha=.914$).

Job Insecurity. Employees’ perceived job insecurity was measured by adopting Vander Elst et al.’s (2014) 4-item measure. A sample item is “Chances are, I will soon lose my job” ($\alpha=.841$).

Employee Tenure. Employees’ tenure was computed as the years of the employees’ tenure at the organization over the total years the employee has worked.

Control Variables. In this study, personal demographic information has been controlled for the analysis, which includes employees’ gender, age, education, job position, and affiliated companies. As this study is intended to examine relationships among employees’ personal orientation, perspectives, and attitudes and behaviors in organizations, the analysis was controlled for demographic factors to prevent potential hindrance and provide unbiased relationships.

Chapter 5. Results

5.1. Preliminary Analysis

To verify the empirical distinctiveness of the main study variables reported by employees and their supervisors, I conducted exploratory factor (EFA) and multilevel confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). The six sets of EFAs were conducted by using rotation with a maximum likelihood extraction method. The six sets of EFAs were collectivism and individualism; perceived organizational and job prestige; OID and OCID; task, cognitive, and relational crafting as reported by employees; and promotive and prohibitive voices as reported by supervisors. As shown in Tables 1-7, the results of the rotated factor matrix of the EFA indicated that it meets the expected structure for all EFA analyses, excluding OCID and promotive voice. The results of EFA indicated that the first item of OCID and the fourth item of prohibitive voice were inappropriately loaded. Therefore, a decision was made to exclude the items that are not properly loaded. After adjusting the constructs based on the results of EFAs, other measures were used to capture each construct as the survey was designed.

Table 1. *Exploratory Factor Analysis on Collectivism and Individualism*

Variable	Collectivism	Individualism
If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.	.66	.07
The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.	.74	.10
To me, pleasure is spending time with others.	.85	.04
I feel good when I cooperate with others.	.86	.04

Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	.26	.12
It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	.34	.18
Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	.41	.13
It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	.38	-.05
I'd rather depend on myself than others.	.02	.36
I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.	.07	.47
I often do "my own thing."	-.04	.42
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.	-.07	.35
It is important that I do my job better than others.	.07	.71
Winning is everything.	.04	.77
Competition is the law of nature.	.11	.65
When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.	.20	.52
Eigenvalue	3.26	2.26

Table 2. *Exploratory Factor Analysis on Perceived Organizational Prestige and Perceived Job Prestige*

Variable	Perceived Organizational prestige	Perceived Job Prestige
People in my community think highly of (name of organization).	.20	.53
It is considered prestigious in the religious community to be an alumnus of (name of organization).	.21	.74
(Name of organizations) is considered one of the best (conference organizations).	.19	.85
People from other (conference organizations) look down at (name of organizations).	.23	.87
Alumni of all (conference schools) would be proud to have their children work for (name of school).	.16	.70
(Name of school) does not have a good reputation in my community.	.18	.79
A person seeking to advance his career in (related field) should downplay his association with (name of organizations).	.38	.63
When other (conference organizations) are recruiting new candidates, they would not want candidates from (name of school).	.37	.68

People in my community think highly of (name of job).	.57	.27
It is considered prestigious in the religious community to be an alumnus of (name of job).	.89	.17
(Name of job) is considered one of the best (related jobs).	.90	.18
People from other (related jobs) look down at (name of job).	.78	.22
Alumni of all (related jobs) would be proud to have their children have (name of job).	.76	.25
(Name of job) does not have a good reputation in my community.	.81	.24
A person seeking to advance his career in (related field) should downplay his association with (name of job).	.80	.22
When other (jobs) are recruiting new candidates, they would not want students from (name of job).	.56	.22
Eigenvalue	7.59	2.30

Table 3. *Exploratory Factor Analysis on OID and OCID*

Variable	Organizational Identification	Occupational Identification
When someone criticize [name of organization], it feels like a personal insult.	.73	.22
I am very interested in what others think about [name of organization].	.45	.22
When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	.67	.18
This organization's successes are my successes.	.73	.38
When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	.78	.39
If a story in the media criticized the organization, I would feel embarrassed.	.74	.28
When someone criticize [name of job], it feels like a personal insult.	.46	.41
I am very interested in what others think about [name of job].	.28	.51
When I talk about this job, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	.31	.63
This job's successes are my successes.	.25	.82
When someone praises this job, it feels like a personal compliment.	.28	.82
If a story in the media criticized the job, I would feel embarrassed.	.44	.56
Eigenvalue	5.68	.89

Table 4. Exploratory Factor Analysis on OID and OCID (Adjusted)

Variable	Organizational Identification	Occupational Identification
I am very interested in what others think about [name of organization].	.42	.24
When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	.64	.17
This organization's successes are my successes.	.78	.35
When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	.83	.35
If a story in the media criticized the organization, I would feel embarrassed.	.71	.28
I am very interested in what others think about [name of job].	.27	.51
When I talk about this job, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	.31	.63
This job's successes are my successes.	.27	.82
When someone praises this job, it feels like a personal compliment.	.32	.80
If a story in the media criticized the job, I would feel embarrassed.	.43	.55
Eigenvalue	4.82	.77

Table 5. Exploratory Factor Analysis on Promotive Voice and Prohibitive Voice

Variable	Promotive Voice	Prohibitive Voice
Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.	.08	.83
Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.	.06	.86
Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.	.23	.68
Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.	.24	.16
Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.	.41	.55
Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.	.52	.19
Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting options exist.	.51	.19
Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.	.83	.10
Dare to point out problems when they appear in	.81	.12

the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.		
Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.	.83	.12
Eigenvalue	5.68	.89

Table 6. *Exploratory Factor Analysis on Promotive Voice and Prohibitive Voice (Adjusted)*

Variable	Promotive Voice	Prohibitive Voice
Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.	.80	.11
Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.	.80	.11
Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.	.73	.19
Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.	.72	.24
Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.	.06	.71
Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting options exist.	.06	.70
Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.	.32	.64
Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.	.32	.63
Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.	.36	.61
Eigenvalue	6.41	.37

Table 7. *Exploratory Factor Analysis on Task, Cognitive, and Relational Crafting*

Variable	Task Crafting	Cognitive Crafting	Relational Crafting
Introduce new approaches to improve your work.	.72	.24	.02
Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work.	.71	.18	.11
Introduce new work tasks that you think better suit your skills or interests.	.85	.23	.13
Choose to take on additional tasks at work.	.61	.23	.26
Give preference to work tasks that suit your skills or interests.	.83	.26	.24

Think about how your job gives your life purpose.	.33	.66	.11
Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organization.	.28	.52	.30
Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community.	.20	.49	.29
Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life.	.24	.85	.22
Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being.	.24	.86	.18
Make an effort to get to know people well at work.	.15	.31	.52
Organize or attend work related social functions.	.15	.21	.75
Organize special events in the workplace.	.14	.14	.71
Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially).	.23	.19	.74
Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests.	.14	.30	.64
Eigenvalue	6.23	1.34	1.37

I conducted multilevel CFAs with 17 variables as reported by employees and supervisors. Given that the number of items measured for each construct exceeds the total sample size of 300, CFA analysis was inappropriate. Thus, CFAs were conducted with item parceling, and I conducted multilevel CFAs using the Mplus 8.3 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). The results confirmed a good fit ($\chi^2(367) = 550.547$, $p = .000$, CFI = .962, TLI = .948, RMSEA = .041). Alternative CFAs were also conducted by combining personal orientations—collectivism and individualism; perceived organizational and job prestige; internal and external job mobilities; task, cognitive, and relational crafting; and change readiness (all CFIs <.90 and TLI <.90). Given the empirical confirmations

from EFA and CFA, I proceeded with the hypothesis testing of the research framework.

5.2. Descriptive Statistics

I examined the descriptive statistics and correlations among variables. Gender, age, company, and job positions exhibit significant correlations with the variables of the research questions. Thus, those were controlled to examine the causal relationship on the basis of research frameworks without any potential biases. Table 8 provides descriptive statistics for the variables used.

Although the sample size of 30 refers to having a normal distribution of the data, its concept only applies when the data are collected on the bases of random sampling. Considering that the data collection for this study has been conducted non-randomly, conducting the tests for the normal distribution is necessary before proceeding with further data analysis.

As skewness refers to the asymmetry of distributed data, when the skew value of a normal distribution is zero, it implies symmetric distribution. Meanwhile, kurtosis indicates the peakedness of a distribution. West et al. (1995) proposed a reference of substantial departure from normality as an absolute skew value > 2 . By contrast, a substantial departure from normality reference is an absolute kurtosis value > 7 (Kim, 2013).

Table 8. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1. Gender (1= Female)	.34	.47	1																								
2. Age	34.95	7.82	-.36**	1																							
3. Education	2.86	.69	-.28**	.02	1																						
4. Job Position	1.60	.55	-.36**	.62**	.24**	1																					
5. Company #1	.42	.49	-.22**	.38**	.10	.29**	1																				
6. Company #2	.42	.49	.02	-.36**	.14*	-.09	-.72**	1																			
7. Collectivism	5.32	.86	-.19**	.26**	.04	.23**	.15**	-.13*	1																		
8. Individualism	4.35	.84	-.26**	.07	.10	.14*	.16**	-.07	.15**	1																	
9. Perceived Organizational Prestige	4.36	.98	-.04	.02	.03	.03	-.15*	.17**	.24**	.16**	1																
10. Perceived Job Prestige	4.29	1.00	-.08	.05	.13*	.12*	.05	-.01	.21**	.24**	.52**	1															
11. Perceived Internal Mobility	2.98	1.18	-.13*	.00	.11	.08	-.02	.19**	.06	.30**	.26**	.26**	1														
12. Perceived External Mobility	4.27	1.18	-.11	-.22**	.02	-.11	-.02	-.04	.03	.31**	-.11*	.05	.15**	1													
13. Organizational Tenure (Organizational ÷ Total Tenure)	.76	.32	.01	-.08	.00	-.05	-.31**	.28**	-.04	-.11	-.06	-.10	.01	-.17**	1												
14. Job Tenure (Job ÷ Total Tenure)	.78	.32	.02	-.22**	-.02	-.14*	-.10	.12*	-.13*	-.05	-.12*	-.04	-.14*	.03	.32**	1											
15. Perceived Job Insecurity	2.81	1.13	.02	.18**	-.07	-.01	.07	-.10	-.11	.10	-.15*	-.31**	-.02	-.17**	.06	-.03	1										
16. Organizational Identification	4.63	1.14	-.14*	.27**	.08	.19**	-.08	.12*	.34**	.11*	.34**	.22**	.11	-.08	.03	-.07	-.15*	1									
17. Occupational Identification	4.50	1.13	-.09	.21**	-.01	.10	.10	-.14*	.26**	.19**	.24**	.31**	.15**	.00	-.04	.01	-.13*	.65**	1								
18. Change Readiness	4.68	.61	-.20**	.21**	.14*	.18**	.03	.06	.22**	.25**	.08	.16**	.06	.08	.00	-.02	-.07	.41**	.33**	1							
19. Extra-role Behavior	4.77	.86	-.18**	.24**	.07	.26**	.15*	-.06	.14*	.00	-.12*	-.05	.02	-.03	.06	.00	-.05	.19**	.07	.14*	1						
20. Proactive Behavior	4.91	.93	-.18**	.18**	.07	.22**	.11	.01	.08	.02	-.18**	-.05	.02	.05	.09	.05	-.10	.15*	.04	.13*	.81**	1					
21. Task Crafting	4.73	.97	-.20**	.19**	.07	.15*	.10	-.03	.21**	.29**	.02	.11	.16**	.25**	-.04	.00	-.07	.33**	.44**	.44**	.13*	.15*	1				
22. Cognitive Crafting	4.69	1.04	-.18**	.20**	.00	.17**	.09	-.05	.30**	.22**	.23**	.29**	.11	.07	-.04	-.03	-.11	.55**	.58**	.53**	.09	.05	.56**	1			
23. Relational Crafting	4.66	1.02	-.05	.20**	-.03	.14*	.05	-.07	.31**	.13*	.10	.10	.04	.12*	-.07	-.05	-.10	.42**	.42**	.45**	.11	.07	.42**	.53**	1		
24. Promotive Voice	4.37	1.07	-.20**	.22**	.04	.23**	.21**	-.13*	.10	.03	-.24**	-.12*	.00	.08	-.01	-.03	-.05	.10	.04	.09	.75**	.80**	.15*	.07	.11	1	
25. Prohibitive Voice	4.52	1.01	-.18**	.33**	.04	.32**	.25**	-.17**	.16**	.01	-.16**	-.02	-.04	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.01	.10	.05	.12*	.66**	.67**	.15*	.07	.15*	.62**	1

Note: $N = 300$. [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

When sample sizes are smaller than 50, if absolute z-scores for either skewness or kurtosis are larger than 1.96, then, the null hypothesis is rejected and the distribution of the sample is concluded to be non-normal; however, when samples are medium-sized—that is, greater than 50 and smaller than 300—then, the null hypothesis at an absolute z-value over 3.29 is rejected, and the distribution of the sample is concluded to be non-normal. When samples are larger than 300, the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis are considered without evaluating the z-values. This finding indicates that either an absolute skew value larger than 2 or an absolute kurtosis larger than 7 may be used as reference values for determining substantial non-normality (Kim, 2013; West et al., 1995).

As shown in Table 9, in evaluating the absolute z-value of skewness and kurtosis, collectivism, task crafting, and relational crafting fail to expect normal distribution as the z-values exceed 3.29. OCID fulfills the Z-value of skewness, but the Z-value for kurtosis is 3.476, which is greater than 3.29. However, when conducting the Shapiro-Wilk's test, only individualism and organizational change pass (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). However, as in Kline's

Table 9. *Skewness, Kurtosis, and the Results of Shapiro-Wilk Test*

	Skewness	SE Skewness	Z Skewness	Kurtosis	SE Kurtosis	Z Kurtosis	Shapiro-Wilk's test		
							Statistics	df	P-value
Collectivism	-.49	.14	-3.46	.22	.28	.77	.98	300	.00
Individualism	-.03	.14	-.21	.22	.28	.77	.99	300	.26
Perceived Organizational Prestige	-.18	.14	-1.29	.25	.28	.90	.99	300	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	.07	.14	.52	.14	.28	.51	.97	300	.00
Internal Job Mobility	.28	.14	1.97	-.31	.28	-1.12	.98	300	.00
External Job Mobility	.08	.14	.58	-.11	.28	-.39	.96	300	.00
Job Insecurity	.44	.14	3.14	-.19	.28	-.66	.98	300	.00
OID	-.56	.14	-3.98	.29	.28	1.05	.98	300	.00
OCID	-.44	.14	-3.10	.98	.28	3.48	.98	300	.00
Change Readiness	-.05	.14	-.38	.39	.28	1.39	.99	300	.33
Extra-Role Behavior	.05	.14	.39	-.29	.28	-1.04	.98	300	.00
Proactive Behavior	-.06	.14	-.44	-.33	.28	-1.18	.99	300	.01
Task Crafting	1.04	.14	7.36	7.20	.28	25.66	.93	300	.00
Cognitive Crafting	.01	.14	.04	.23	.28	.82	.98	300	.00
Relational Crafting	-.47	.14	-3.37	1	.28	3.56	.98	300	.00
Promotive Voice	-.37	.14	-2.63	.40	.28	1.43	.98	300	.00
Prohibitive Voice	-.41	.14	-2.89	.71	.28	2.54	.98	300	.00

Note: $N = 300$. [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

(2011) study, skewness and the kurtosis index were used to identify the normality of the data. The study explains that when outcomes indicate skewness and a kurtosis index between 3 and 10, the normality of the data distribution could be estimated as acceptable. As shown in Table 8, based on Kline's (2011) explanations, only task crafting exceeds the kurtosis index. Thus, a majority of data could be argued to follow the normal distribution. In addition, a visual inspection of the histograms and normal Q-Q plots showed that the constructs relatively had a normal distribution as the graph is approximately bell-shaped and data were roughly distributed in a straight diagonal line.

5.3. Multilevel Analytic Procedures

Data consisted of a hierarchical structure in which employees were nested in their supervisors. Data were standardized to enhance their accuracy before conducting statistical analysis. Given the multilevel structure of the data, multilevel path analysis was conducted to fully grasp the interactions and direct and indirect effects of antecedents (collectivism, individualism, perceived organizational and job prestige, and internal and external mobilities), thus predicting employee's attitudes and behaviors (change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, voice behavior, and job crafting). Additionally, given that PROCESS in SPSS cannot test a nested model, Mplus 8.3 program needs to be used to

examine the moderated mediation effect of (a) how employee tenure moderates the mediated relationship between personal orientations, perceived prestige, and potential mobility and OID as well as OCID and (b) how perceived job insecurity tenure moderates the mediated relationship between personal orientations, perceived prestige, and potential mobility and OID, as well as OCID, by utilizing confidence intervals (CIs) through a bootstrap-sampling procedure to estimate the indirect relationships (Mackinnon et al., 2004).

5.4. Hypothesis Testing

5.4.1. Study 1: Original Model

For hypothesis testing, both models of full mediation and partial mediation were conducted to compare which model explains the best framework. The full mediation model indicated a less desirable model fit ($\chi^2(83) = 287.02$, $p = .000$, CFI = .89, TLI = .71, RMSEA = .09) than the partial mediation model, which indicated a better model fit ($\chi^2(31) = 73.09$, $p = .000$, CFI = .98, TLI = .84, RMSEA = .07).

Table 10. Multilevel Path Analysis

Variable	Outcome variable:									
	Model 1: OID	Model 2: OCID	Model 3: Change Readiness	Model 4: Extra-role Behavior	Model 5: Proactive Behavior	Model 6: Task Crafting	Model 7: Cognitive Crafting	Model 8: Relational Crafting	Model 9: Promotive Behavior	Model 10: Prohibitive Behavior
<u>Level 1. Individual Level</u>										
Gender (Female=1)			-.15	-.29*	-.30	-.05	-.10	.11	-.38**	-.012
Age			.01	.00	.00	.02†	.00	.00	.00	.02
Education			.05	-.03	-.07	-.00	-.09	-.12	-.05	-.08
Job Positions			-.06	.26*	.19	-.06	.07	.09	.24†	.26
OID			.31**	.15†	.15†	.09	.33**	.28**	.13†	.07
OCID			.09	-.06	-.05	.36**	.30**	.21*	-.05	-.05
Collectivism	.28***	.19**	.05	.03	.03	.05	.05	.15	.04	.08
Individualism	.05	.11*	.16*	-.02	-.02	.12*	.05	.01	-.02	-.02
Perceived Organizational Prestige	.23**	.05	-.13	-.11†	-.20**	-.13*	-.02	-.05	-.20**	-.16*
Perceived Job Prestige	.04	.21**	.09	-.01	.03	-.03	.11*	-.03	-.03	.05
Internal Job Mobility	.01	.05	-.06	.03	.01	.06	-.02	-.02	.03	-.06
External Job Mobility	-.08	-.05	.06	-.05	.03	.23***	.08	.16	.04	.01
<u>Level 2. Organization Level</u>										
Organization #1 (Home Appliances)			.14	.24	.32	.23	.14	.21	.29	.39*
Organization #2 (Chemical Products)			.34	.11	.37	.34	.11	.01	.04	.20

Note: Standardized regression coefficients are reported. $N = 300$. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

A. Main Effects

In hypotheses 1a and 1b, I proposed that employees' personal orientations distinctly influence the forming of identification types; that is, employees with collectivistic orientation develop OID, whereas those with individualistic characteristics develop OCID. Results indicated that collectivism indicates a significant positive relationship with OID ($\beta = .28$, $p = .000$), whereas individualism was statistically insignificant ($\beta = .05$, *n.s.*). For OCID, both collectivism and individualism were statistically significant. Individualism illustrates a significant positive relationship with OCID ($\beta = .11$, $p = .038$) and collectivism a significant positive relationship with OCID ($\beta = .19$, $p = .004$). Thus, these findings support both hypotheses 1a and 1b.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted that employees develop OID when they have perceived organizational prestige, whereas they develop OCID when they have perceived job prestige. The result is in accordance with the hypotheses. When employees have perceived organizational prestige, it has a significant positive influence on OID ($\beta = .23$, $p = .001$), whereas it has a significant positive influence on developing OCID when employees have perceived job prestige ($\beta = .21$, $p = .002$). Therefore, both Hypotheses 2a and 2b are supported.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b projected that internal and external mobilities distinctly affect the development of OID and OCID. Despite the prediction that internal job mobility would influence OID and that external mobility

could influence having OCID, the results indicated that it has no statistically significant influence; even the statistical coefficient indicates that both internal and external job mobilities result in negative values ($\beta = .01$, *n.s.* and $\beta = -.05$, *n.s.*). Although it is statistically insignificant, the causal direction could be assumed that when employees perceived potential job mobility opportunities, they might be negatively influenced on forming either type of identification. Thus, neither hypothesis 3a nor 3b is supported.

Hypothesis 4a projected that OID is positively related to change readiness. Hypothesis 4b predicted that OCID is negatively related to change readiness. The results confirm that OID has a significant positive effect on change readiness ($\beta = .31$, $p = .008$). Thus, hypothesis 4a is supported. However, the results indicate that the relationship between OCID and change readiness is statistically insignificant ($\beta = .09$, *n.s.*); therefore, hypothesis 4b is rejected.

Similarly, hypothesis 5 also assumed that only OID is positively related to employees' extra-role behavior in organizations. Results confirm hypothesis 5, in that only OID is marginal but positively related to extra-role behavior ($\beta = .15$, $p = .066$). Thus, hypothesis 5 is supported.

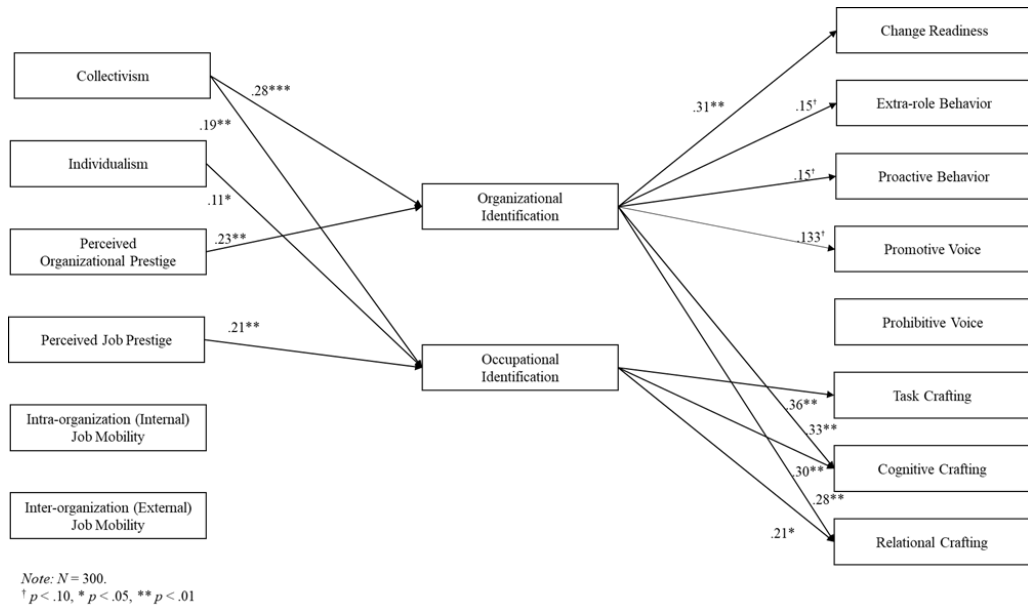
Hypothesis 6 predicted that OCID would positively influence employees' proactive behaviors in organizations. However, the statistical analysis indicated no significant relationship between OCID and proactive behavior ($\beta = -.05$, *n.s.*). By contrast, OID has a marginally positive significance on proactive behavior ($\beta = .15$, $p = .075$). Thus, hypothesis 6 is

rejected.

Hypothesis 7a posits that OID is positively related to relational crafting, whereas hypothesis 7b predicted that OCID would be positively related to task crafting and cognitive crafting, and hypothesis 7c predicted that OCID is negatively related to relational crafting. The results indicated that OID is positively related to cognitive and relational crafting ($\beta = .33, p = .001$; $\beta = .28, p = .002$), whereas OCID has significant positive relationships with all three dimensions of job crafting: task, cognitive, and relational ($\beta = .36, p = .001$; $\beta = .30, p = .001$; $\beta = .21, p = .048$). Thus, hypotheses 7a and 7b are supported, whereas 7c is rejected.

Hypothesis 8a posits that OID is positively related to promotive voice. Hypothesis 8b predicted that OID is negatively related to prohibitive voice, whereas hypothesis 8c proposed that OCID is positively related to prohibitive voice. However, the analysis indicates that promotive voice only has a marginally positive significant relationship with OID ($\beta = .13, p = .091$), OCID and that each dimension of voice behavior is insignificant ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$; $\beta = -.05, n.s.$). Thus, hypothesis 8a is partially supported, whereas hypotheses 8b and 8c are rejected.

Figure 2. Path Analytic Model



B. Moderating Effects

The first stage of the model was statistically utilized to test the moderation (employees' organizational tenure, job tenure, and job insecurity) between independent variables (collectivism, individualism, perceived organizational prestige, perceived job prestige, internal job mobility, and external job mobility) to OID and OCID. However, the model fit of hypothesis 10 indicated a reasonable fit than the model of the main effects ($\chi^2(34) = 72.833, p = .001, CFI = .847, TLI = .722, RMSEA = .062$). However, given that it is a portion of the overall research model, the control variables were ensured to stay the same as the main effect model for consistency.

Hypothesis 9 posits that longer employee tenures with organizations in proportion to their entire career would strengthen the relationship between (a) collectivistic orientation and OID, (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID, and (c) internal mobility and OID. The analysis indicated that all three interaction terms between collectivistic orientation and employee tenure with OID ($\beta = .078$, $p = n.s.$), between employee tenure and perceived organizational prestige ($\beta = .022$, $n.s.$), and employee tenure internal job mobility were insignificant to the relationship with OID ($\beta = .065$, $n.s.$). Therefore, hypothesis 9a, 9b, and 9c are rejected.

The model fit for hypothesis 10 was less desirable than the main effect ($\chi^2(34) = 95.622$, $p = .000$, CFI = .768, TLI = .578, RMSEA = .078); however, as mentioned, to ensure consistency within the model, it was conducted despite the poor model fit. Hypothesis 10 projected that longer employee tenure with a job in proportion to their entire career strengthens the relationship between (a) individualistic orientation and OCID, (b) perceived job prestige and OCID, and (c) external mobility and OCID. The results indicated that employee job tenure in proportion to their entire career does not moderate the relationship between (a) individualistic orientation and OCID ($\beta = -.013$, $n.s.$) and (c) external mobility and OCID ($\beta = -.026$, $n.s.$); however, it moderates the relationship between (b) perceived job prestige and OCID ($\beta = .122$, $p = .031$). Therefore, 10b is supported, whereas 10a and 10c are rejected.

The model fit for hypothesis 11 was worse than the main effect (χ^2

(34) = 189.574, $p = .000$, CFI = .559, TLI = .195, RMSEA = .124); however, as mentioned, it was carried out for the analysis despite the poor fit to maintain the same condition of the main effects model. Hypothesis 12 posits that when employees perceive job insecurity, the relationship is weakened between (a) collectivistic orientation and OID, (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID, and (c) internal job mobility and OID. Results indicated that (a) collectivistic orientation and OID ($\beta = .020$, *n.s.*), (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID ($\beta = .059$, $p = n.s.$), (c) internal job mobility and OID ($\beta = -.012$, *n.s.*) were insignificant.

Although hypothesis 11b has partial supports, all three models of moderating effects do not present a good model fit. Therefore, hypotheses 9, 10, and 11 are not supported.

C. Indirect Effects

First of all, indirect effect testing for mediation was conducted. As shown in Table 11, collectivism was mediated through OID to change readiness (indirect effect = .09, SE= .04, 95% CI [.01, .16]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE= .04, 95% CI [.02, .16]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE= .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]); whereas perceived organizational prestige was mediated by OID to change readiness (indirect effect = .07, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .13]) as well as cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .07, SE= .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .06, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .12]). Individualism

was mediated by OCID to task crafting (indirect effect = .04, SE= .02, 95% CI [.00, .08]), and cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .03, SE= .02, 95% CI [.00, .06]), and collectivism was mediated by OCID to task crafting (indirect effect = .07, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .14]) and cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .06, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .11]). Additionally, perceived job prestige was mediated by OCID to task crafting (indirect effect = .07, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .14]) and cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .06, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .11]).

Table 11. *Mediation Analysis of the Indirect Effects of Collectivism and Individualism, Perceived Organizational and Job Prestige, and Perceived Internal and External Mobility on Change Readiness, Extra-role Behavior, Proactive Behavior, Task Crafting, Cognitive Crafting, Relational Crafting, Promotive and Prohibitive Voice*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Indirect effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Collectivism	OID	Change Readiness	.09	.04	.01	.16
	OCID	Change Readiness	.02	.03	-.03	.07
Individualism	OID	Change Readiness	.02	.02	-.02	.05
	OCID	Change Readiness	.01	.02	-.02	.04
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Change Readiness	.07	.03	.01	.13
	OCID	Change Readiness	.01	.01	-.01	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Change Readiness	.01	.03	-.04	.06
	OCID	Change Readiness	.02	.03	-.04	.08
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Change Readiness	.00	.02	-.03	.04
	OCID	Change Readiness	.00	.01	-.01	.02

External Job Mobility	OID	Change Readiness	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
	OCID	Change Readiness	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
Collectivism	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.04	.03	-.01	.09
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.04	.01
Individualism	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.01	.01	-.01	.03
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.03	.02	-.01	.07
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.01	.01	-.02	.03
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.04	.02
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
External Job Mobility	OID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.03	.01
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Collectivism	OID	Proactive Behavior	.04	.03	-.01	.09
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.01	-.04	.02
Individualism	OID	Proactive Behavior	.01	.01	-.01	.03
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Proactive Behavior	.03	.02	-.01	.08
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Proactive Behavior	.01	.01	-.02	.03
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.02	-.04	.02

Internal Job Mobility	OID	Proactive Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	.00	.00	-.01	.01
External Job Mobility	OID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.01	-.03	.01
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
<hr/>						
Collectivism	OID	Task Crafting	.02	.03	-.04	.09
	OCID	Task Crafting	.07	.03	.01	.13
Individualism	OID	Task Crafting	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Task Crafting	.04	.02	.00	.08
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Task Crafting	.02	.03	-.03	.07
	OCID	Task Crafting	.02	.02	-.03	.07
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Task Crafting	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Task Crafting	.07	.03	.01	.14
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Task Crafting	.00	.01	-.01	.01
	OCID	Task Crafting	.02	.02	-.02	.06
External Job Mobility	OID	Task Crafting	-.01	.01	-.03	.01
	OCID	Task Crafting	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
<hr/>						
Collectivism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.09	.04	.02	.16
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.06	.03	.01	.11
Individualism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.02	.02	-.02	.06
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.03	.02	.00	.06
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.07	.03	.02	.13
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.02	.02	-.03	.06

Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.01	.03	-.04	.06
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.06	.03	.01	.11
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.00	.02	-.03	.04
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.01	.02	-.02	.05
External Job Mobility	OID	Cognitive Crafting	-.03	.02	-.07	.01
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	-.02	.02	-.05	.02
<hr/>						
Collectivism	OID	Relational Crafting	.08	.03	.02	.13
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.04	.03	-.01	.09
Individualism	OID	Relational Crafting	.02	.02	-.02	.05
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.02	.02	-.01	.05
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Relational Crafting	.06	.03	.01	.12
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.01	.02	-.02	.04
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Relational Crafting	.01	.02	-.04	.06
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.04	.03	-.01	.09
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Relational Crafting	.00	.02	-.03	.03
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.01	.01	-.01	.03
External Job Mobility	OID	Relational Crafting	-.02	.02	-.06	.01
	OCID	Relational Crafting	-.01	.01	-.04	.01
<hr/>						
Collectivism	OID	Promotive Voice	.04	.02	-.01	.08
	OCID	Promotive Voice	-.01	.01	-.04	.02
Individualism	OID	Promotive Voice	.01	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Promotive Voice	-.01	.01	-.02	.01

Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Promotive Voice	.03	.02	-.01	.07
	OCID	Promotive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Promotive Voice	.01	.01	-.02	.03
	OCID	Promotive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Promotive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Promotive Voice	.00	.00	-.01	.01
External Job Mobility	OID	Promotive Voice	-.01	.01	-.03	.01
	OCID	Promotive Voice	.00	.00	-.01	.01
Collectivism	OID	Prohibitive Voice	.02	.02	-.03	.07
	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	-.01	.01	-.04	.02
Individualism	OID	Prohibitive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.01
	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Prohibitive Voice	.02	.02	-.02	.05
	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Prohibitive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Prohibitive Voice	.00	.00	-.01	.01
	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.01
External Job Mobility	OID	Prohibitive Voice	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	.00	.01	-.01	.01

Note: $N = 300$. $p < .05$ in bold.

Conventionally, when moderation is rejected, moderated mediation was not considered. However, Hayes (2015) explained that when

moderation is insignificant at $p < .05$, the index of moderated mediation remained significant at $p < .05$. Calantone et al. (2017) recommended to proceed even if moderating effect is insignificant, as indirect effect can be moderated by providing Hayes' (2015) index of moderated mediation that was significant although the estimated coefficient of moderating effect was insignificant. Similarly, Osei et al.'s (2018) study also showed similar analysis when insignificant moderation was revealed; the analysis was still conducted analysis to reveal a significant moderated mediation effect in their empirical testing. Thus, in this study, I continued to examine the moderated mediation analysis. The moderated mediation model was tested to calculate the indirect effect estimates with 95% CI (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). To maintain consistency within the model, the procedure was conducted in the same manner by having the same control variables (gender, age, education, position, and company).

The moderator of employee organizational tenure indicated a less desirable model fit ($\chi^2 (156) = 386.53$, $p = .000$, $CFI = .87$, $TLI = .75$, $RMSEA = .07$). As shown in Table 12, the results indicated that employee organizational tenure moderates (a) the mediating relationship of collectivism and OID in predicting change readiness where medium (mean) level (indirect effect = .08, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [.01, .16]) and low (one standard deviation below) levels (indirect effect = .09, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [.02, .17]) of employee tenure have a significant indirect effect, and (b) the mediating relationship of collectivism and OID in predicting cognitive

crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE = .05, 95% CI [.00, .18]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .17]; indirect effect = .11, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .18]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .15]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .15]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .16]) at all three levels. Moreover, the results indicate that high and medium levels of employee organizational tenure moderates the mediating relationship of perceived organizational prestige and OID in predicting change readiness (indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .14]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .12]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .17]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .14]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .15]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .15]). As shown in Figures 3-8, the Johnson-Neyman technique was utilized to visually examine statistically significant interactions.

Figure 3. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

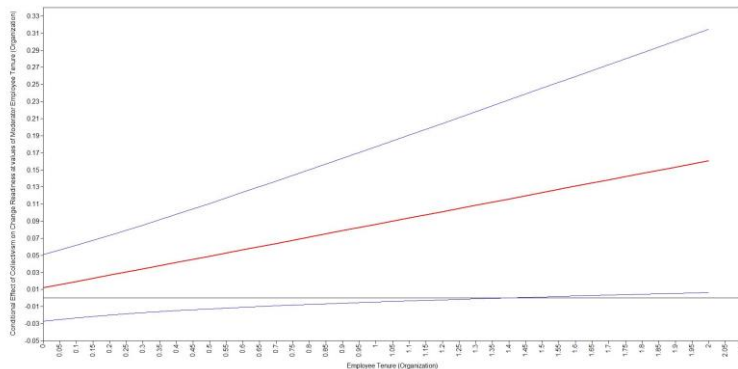


Table 12. *Conditional Indirect Effect Estimates of Moderated Mediation Analysis of Employee Tenure (Organization)*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Moderator	Moderator Level	Indirect Effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Collectivism	OID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.08	.04	-.01	.16
				Medium	.08	.04	.01	.16
				Low	.09	.04	.02	.17
Collectivism	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.03	.02	-.02	.08
				Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.08
				Low	.04	.03	-.01	.09
Collectivism	OID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.02	.02	-.02	.07
				Medium	.03	.02	-.02	.07
				Low	.03	.03	-.03	.08
Collectivism	OID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.01	.03	-.05	.07
				Medium	.01	.03	-.06	.08
				Low	.01	.04	-.06	.09
Collectivism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.09	.05	.00	.18
				Medium	.10	.04	.02	.17
				Low	.11	.04	.03	.18
Collectivism	OID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.08	.04	.01	.15
				Medium	.09	.03	.03	.15
				Low	.09	.03	.03	.16
Collectivism	OID	Promotive Voice	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.02	.02	-.02	.06
				Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.06
				Low	.02	.02	-.03	.07
Collectivism	OID	Prohibitive Voice	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.01	.02	-.03	.05
				Medium	.01	.02	-.03	.06
				Low	.02	.02	-.03	.06
Perceived Organizational	OID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.08	.03	.02	.14
				Medium	.07	.03	.01	.12

Prestige				Low	.05	.04	-.02	.12
Perceived				High	.03	.02	-.01	.08
Organizational	OID	Extra-Role	Employee Tenure	Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.06
Prestige		Behavior	(Organization)	Low	.02	.02	-.01	.05
Perceived				High	.03	.03	-.02	.07
Organizational	OID	Proactive	Employee Tenure	Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.06
Prestige		Behavior	(Organization)	Low	.02	.02	-.01	.05
Perceived				High	.01	.03	-.05	.08
Organizational	OID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure	Medium	.01	.03	-.04	.06
Prestige			(Organization)	Low	.01	.02	-.03	.05
Perceived				High	.10	.04	.03	.17
Organizational	OID	Cognitive	Employee Tenure	Medium	.08	.03	.02	.14
Prestige		Crafting	(Organization)	Low	.06	.04	-.02	.14
Perceived				High	.09	.03	.03	.15
Organizational	OID	Relational	Employee Tenure	Medium	.07	.03	.02	.12
Prestige		Crafting	(Organization)	Low	.05	.04	-.02	.12
Perceived				High	.02	.02	-.02	.06
Organizational	OID	Promotive	Employee Tenure	Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.05
Prestige		Voice	(Organization)	Low	.01	.01	-.02	.04
Perceived				High	.01	.02	-.03	.06
Organizational	OID	Prohibitive	Employee Tenure	Medium	.01	.02	-.02	.05
Prestige		Voice	(Organization)	Low	.01	.01	-.02	.03
				High	.02	.02	-.03	.06
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Change	Employee Tenure	Medium	.00	.02	-.03	.03
		Readiness	(organization)	Low	-.01	.02	-.05	.03
				High	.01	.01	-.01	.03
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Extra-Role	Employee Tenure	Medium	.00	.01	-.01	.01
		Behavior	(organization)	Low	.00	.01	-.02	.01
				High	.01	.01	-.01	.02
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Proactive	Employee Tenure	Medium	.00	.01	-.01	.01
		Behavior	(organization)	Low	.00	.01	-.01	.01

Internal Job Mobility	OID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (organization)	High	.00	.01	-.01	.02
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.00	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (organization)	High	.02	.03	-.03	.07
				Medium	.01	.02	-.03	.04
				Low	-.01	.02	-.05	.04
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (organization)	Low	.02	.02	-.03	.06
				High	.00	.02	-.03	.03
				Medium	-.01	.02	-.05	.03
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Promotive Voice	Employee Tenure (organization)	Low	.00	.01	-.01	.02
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Prohibitive Voice	Employee Tenure (organization)	High	.00	.01	-.01	.01
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.00	-.01	.01

Note: $N = 300$. $p < .05$ in bold.

Figure 4. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Cognitive Crafting At Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

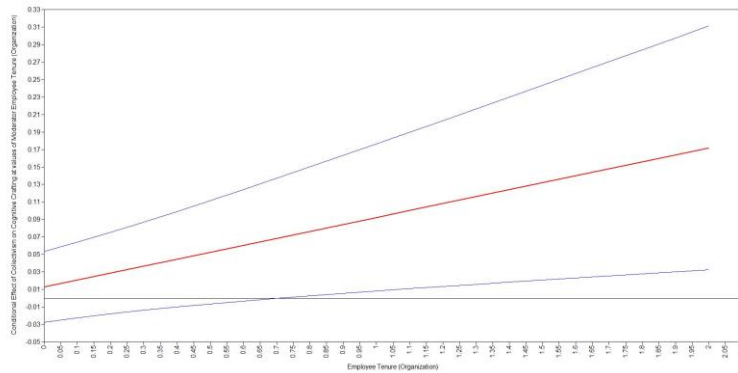


Figure 5. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

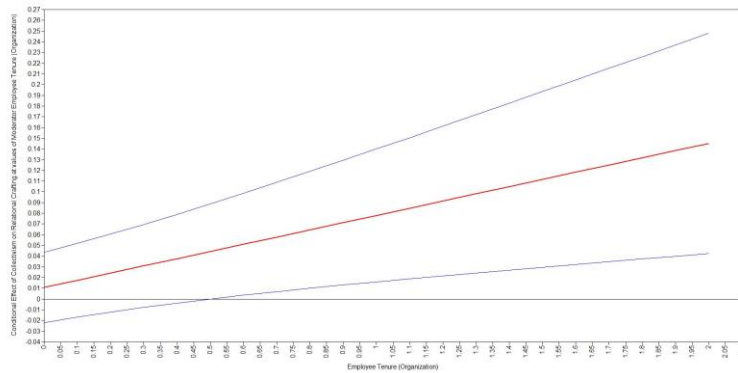


Figure 6. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organization Prestige on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

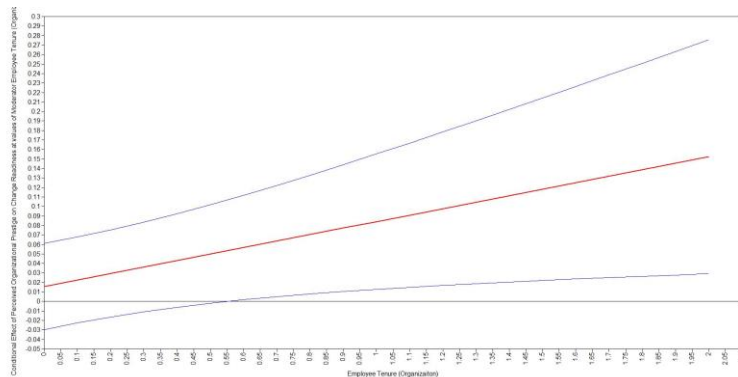


Figure 7. Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)

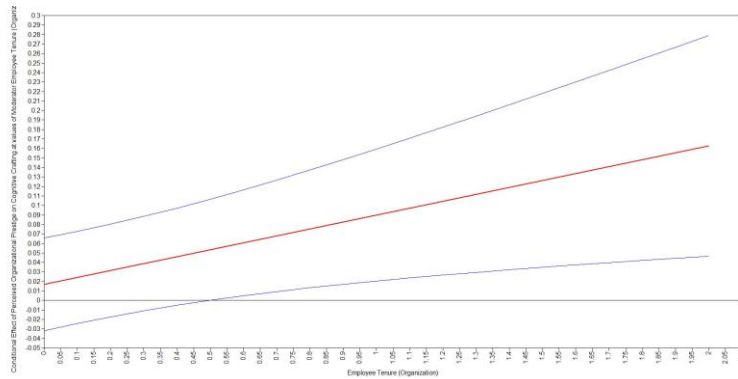
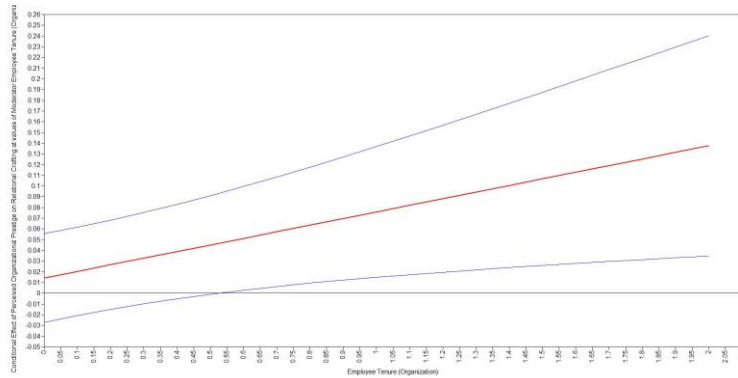


Figure 8. Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)



For the moderator of employee job tenure, moderated mediation presented a model fit of $\chi^2 (156) = 422.82, p = .000, CFI = .85, TLI = .72, RMSEA = .08$. As shown in Table 13, the analysis indicated that moderated mediation exists in the relationship between individualism and OCID in predicting the task crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .17]; indirect effect = .11, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .18]; indirect effect = .12, SE = .05, 95% CI [.02, .21]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .15]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI

[.04, .15]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .17]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .05, SE = .02, 95% CI [.01, .10]; indirect effect = .06, SE = .02, 95% CI [.01, .10]; indirect effect = .06, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .12]) wherein the moderator of employee job tenure at all three levels were significant.

Additionally, employee job tenure moderated the mediating relationship between perceived job prestige and task crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .16]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .15]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .05, SE = .02, 95% CI [.00, .09]; indirect effect = .04, SE = .02, 95% CI [.00, .09]) when the moderator level was medium and low.

And, employee job tenure moderated the mediating relationship between perceived job prestige and cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.00, .15]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI

Table 13. *Conditional Indirect Effect Estimates of Moderated Mediation Analysis of Employee Tenure (Job)*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Moderator	Moderator Level	Indirect Effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Individualism	OCID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				Medium	.03	.03	-.02	.09
				Low	.04	.03	-.02	.10
Individualism	OCID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.02	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
				Low	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
Individualism	OCID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
				Low	-.02	.02	-.06	.03
Individualism	OCID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.09	.04	.02	.17
				Medium	.11	.04	.03	.18
				Low	.12	.05	.02	.21
Individualism	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.08	.03	.02	.15
				Medium	.09	.03	.04	.15
				Low	.10	.04	.03	.17
Individualism	OCID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.05	.02	.01	.10
				Medium	.06	.02	.01	.10
				Low	.06	.03	.01	.12
Individualism	OCID	Promotive Voice	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
				Low	-.02	.02	-.06	.03
Individualism	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.02	.02	-.05	.02

				Low	-.02	.02	-.06	.03
				High	.03	.02	-.02	.08
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	.03	.02	-.02	.07
				Low	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				High	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	-.01	.01	-.04	.01
				Low	-.01	.01	-.04	.01
				High	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				Low	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				High	.08	.05	-.01	.18
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	.08	.04	.01	.16
				Low	.08	.04	.01	.15
				High	.08	.04	.00	.15
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	.07	.03	.01	.14
				Low	.07	.03	.01	.14
				High	.05	.03	-.01	.10
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	.05	.02	.00	.09
				Low	.04	.02	.00	.09
				High	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Promotive Voice	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				Low	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				High	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				Low	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				High	.01	.01	-.01	.03
External Job Mobility	OCID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Job)	Medium	.00	.01	-.01	.01
				Low	-.01	.01	-.03	.01

External Job Mobility	OCID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.02
External Job Mobility	OCID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.00	.01	-.02	.01
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.01
External Job Mobility	OCID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				Medium	.00	.02	-.04	.04
				Low	-.03	.03	-.08	.03
External Job Mobility	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.02	.02	-.02	.07
				Medium	.00	.02	-.03	.04
				Low	-.02	.03	-.07	.03
External Job Mobility	OCID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.02	.02	-.01	.04
				Medium	.00	.01	-.02	.02
				Low	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
External Job Mobility	OCID	Promotive Voice	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.00	.01	-.02	.01
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.02
External Job Mobility	OCID	Prohibitive Voice	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.00	.01	-.02	.01
				Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.02

Note: $N = 300$. $p < .05$ in bold.

[.01, .14]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .14]) at all three levels. As shown in Figures 9-11, the Johnson-Neyman technique was utilized to visually examine statistically significant interactions.

Figure 9. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Job Prestige on Task Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Job)*

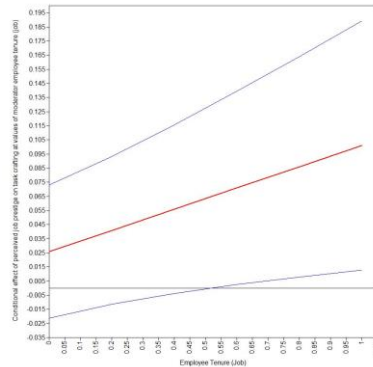


Figure 10. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Job Prestige on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Job)*

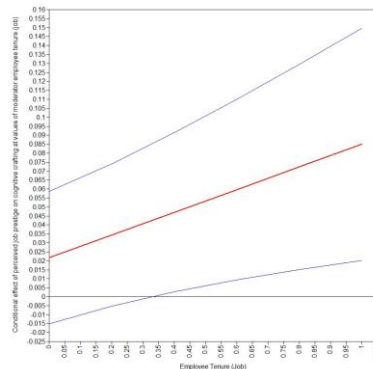
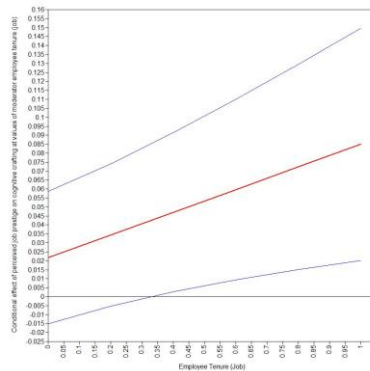


Figure 11. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Job)*



Finally, the moderator of perceived job insecurity exhibited a poor model fit ($\chi^2 (156) = 585.04, p = .000, CFI = .78, TLI = .58, RMSEA = .10$). As shown in Table 14, it exhibited a similar pattern with employee organizational tenure: perceived job insecurity moderates the mediating relationship between collectivism and OID in predicating change readiness (indirect effect = .07, SE = .04, 95% CI [.00, .14]; direct effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .16]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .05, 95% CI [.00, .19]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .16]; direct effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .18]; indirect effect = .12, SE = .05, 95% CI [.02, .22]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .15]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .19]) at all three moderator levels. Similarly, perceived organizational prestige was mediated by OID in predicting change readiness (indirect effect = .09, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .16]; indirect effect = .06, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .11]) and cognitive

crafting (indirect effect = .011, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .20]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .17]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .02, 95% CI [.02, .11]) with a moderating effect of perceived job insecurity at high and medium levels. The Johnson-Neyman technique was utilized to visually examine statistically significant interactions as shown in Figures 12-17. Although the overall model was insignificant, the conditional indirect effect indicated a stronger effect in those high and medium levels in job insecurity. Although the statistical results indicated significant indirect paths, given that the model fit does not meet the level of goodness-of-fit, the results of indirect paths do not indicate statistical significance.

Figure 12. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

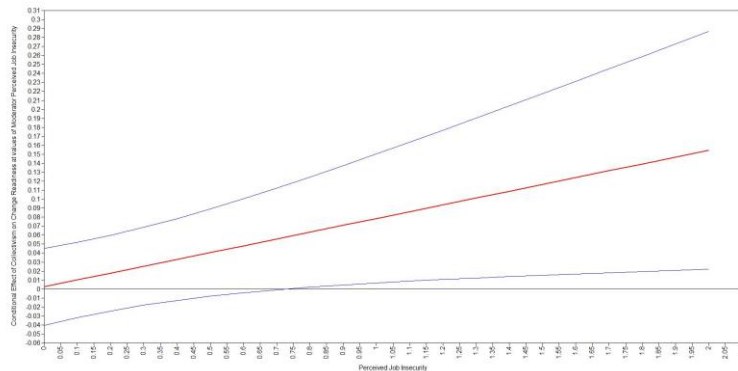


Figure 13. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

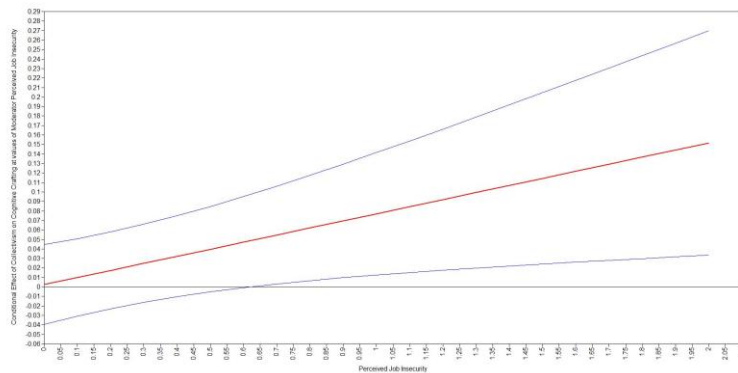


Figure 14. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

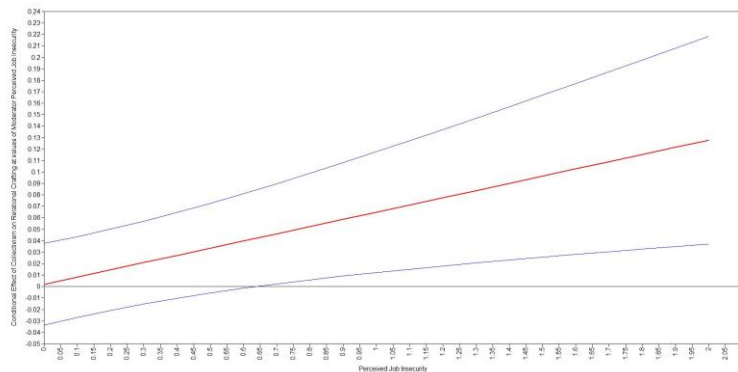


Figure 15. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organizational Prestige on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

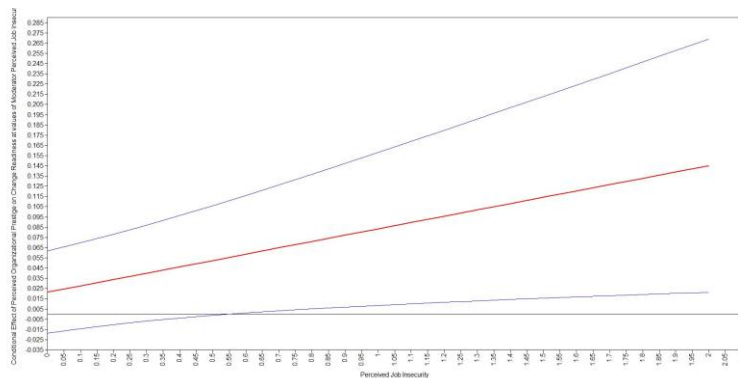


Figure 16. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organizational Prestige on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

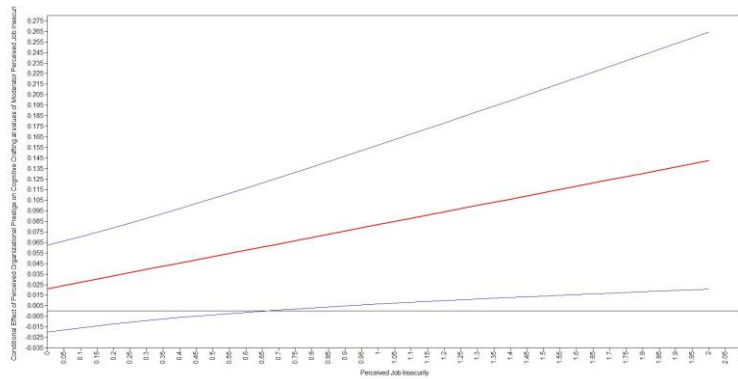


Figure 17. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organizational Prestige on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

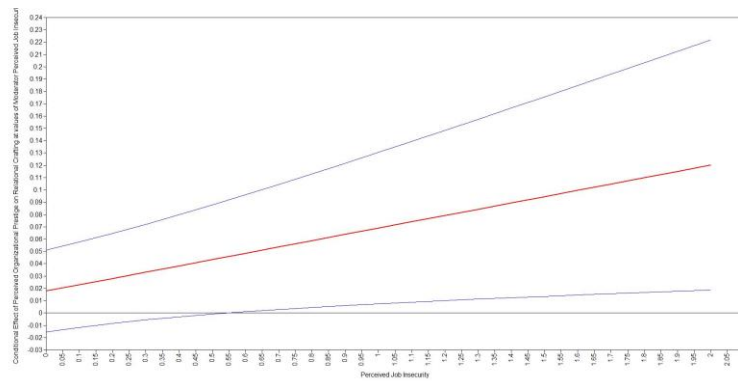


Table 14. *Conditional Indirect Effect Estimates of Moderated Mediation Analysis of Perceived Job Insecurity*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Moderator	Moderator Level	Indirect Effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Collectivism	OID	Change Readiness	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.07	.04	.00	.14
				Medium	.08	.04	.01	.16
				Low	.10	.05	.00	.19
Collectivism	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.03	.02	-.01	.07
				Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.08
				Low	.04	.03	-.02	.09
Collectivism	OID	Proactive Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.02	.02	-.02	.06
				Medium	.03	.02	-.02	.07
				Low	.03	.03	-.03	.08
Collectivism	OID	Task Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.01	.03	-.05	.07
				Medium	.01	.04	-.06	.08
				Low	.02	.04	-.07	.10
Collectivism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.08	.04	.01	.16
				Medium	.10	.04	.02	.18
				Low	.12	.05	.02	.22
Collectivism	OID	Relational Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.08	.03	.02	.13
				Medium	.09	.03	.03	.15
				Low	.10	.04	.02	.19
Collectivism	OID	Promotive Voice	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.02	.02	-.02	.05
				Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.06
				Low	.02	.03	-.03	.07
Collectivism	OID	Prohibitive	Perceived Job	High	.01	.02	-.03	.05

		Voice	Insecurity	Medium	.01	.02	-.03	.06
				Low	.02	.03	-.03	.07
				High	.09	.04	.02	.16
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Change Readiness	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.06	.03	.01	.11
				Low	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				High	.04	.03	-.01	.09
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.02	.02	-.01	.06
				Low	.01	.01	-.01	.03
				High	.03	.03	-.02	.08
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Proactive Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.02	.02	-.01	.05
				Low	.01	.01	-.01	.03
				High	.02	.04	-.06	.09
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Task Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.01	.03	-.04	.06
				Low	.01	.01	-.02	.03
				High	.11	.04	.03	.20
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.07	.03	.02	.13
				Low	.04	.03	-.02	.09
				High	.10	.04	.03	.17
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Relational Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.07	.02	.02	.11
				Low	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				High	.02	.02	-.03	.07
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Promotive Voice	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.01	.02	-.02	.04
				Low	.01	.01	-.01	.02
				High	.02	.02	-.03	.06
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Prohibitive Voice	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.01	.02	-.02	.04
				Low	.01	.01	-.01	.02
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Change	Perceived Job	High	.00	.02	-.04	.04

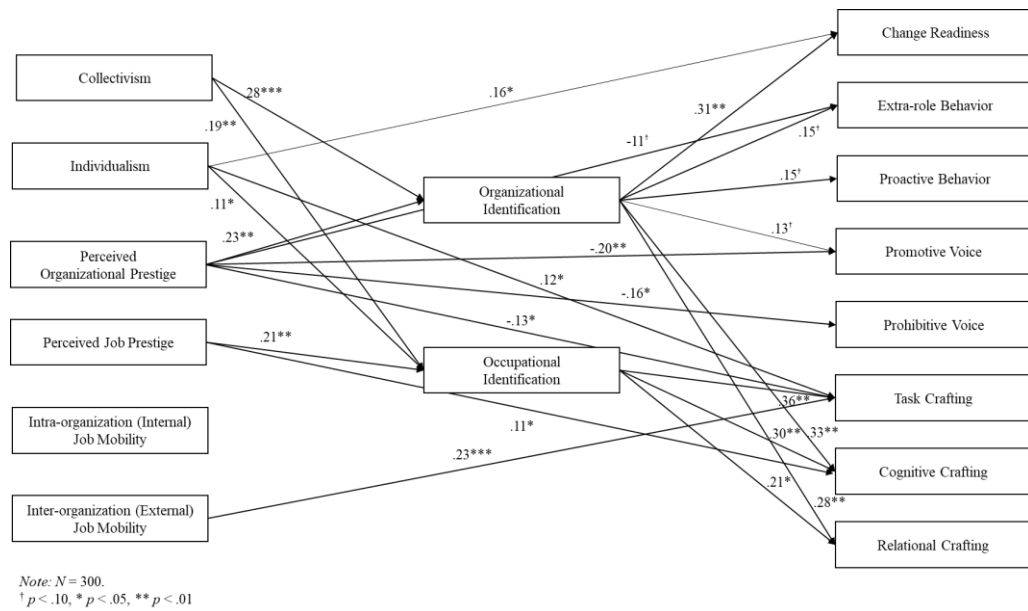
		Readiness	Insecurity	Medium	.00	.02	-.03	.03
				Low	.01	.02	-.04	.05
				High	.00	.01	-.02	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.01	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.02	.02
				High	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Proactive Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.01	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.02
				High	.00	.00	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Task Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.01
				High	.00	.02	-.05	.04
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.02	-.04	.04
				Low	.01	.03	-.05	.06
				High	.00	.02	-.05	.04
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Relational Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.02	-.03	.03
				Low	.01	.02	-.04	.05
				High	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Promotive Voice	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.01	-.01	.01
				High	.00	.00	-.01	.01
Internal Job Mobility	OID	Prohibitive Voice	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.00	.00	-.01	.01
				Low	.00	.00	-.01	.01

Note: $N = 300$. $p < .05$ in bold

D. Direct Paths

Although direct paths were not hypothesized, the direct paths from independent variables (collectivism, individualism, perceived organizational prestige, perceived job prestige, internal job mobility, and external job mobility) to dependent variables (change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, task crafting, cognitive crafting, relational crafting, promotive voice, and prohibitive voice) are calculated (see Figure 18). Interpreting the direct path presents several interesting perspectives. As seen earlier, collectivism has strong influences on both OID and OCID; however, it has no significant direct paths to dependent variables. Individualism also indicated a significant positive influence on change readiness ($\beta = .16$, $p = .027$) and task crafting ($\beta = .12$, $p = .026$). Interestingly, when employees perceive organizational prestige, direct paths from organizational prestige indicate a significant negative path to proactive behavior ($\beta = -.20$, $p = .002$), promotive voice ($\beta = -.20$, $p = .002$) and prohibitive voice ($\beta = -.16$, $p = .016$), and task crafting ($\beta = -.13$, $p = .043$). Conversely, when employees perceive job prestige, they have a positive significant direct path to cognitive crafting ($\beta = .11$, $p = .038$). Finally, as explained, neither internal nor external job mobility was significant in forming OID or OCID. However, external job mobility shows a positive significant direct path to task crafting ($\beta = .23$, $p = .000$).

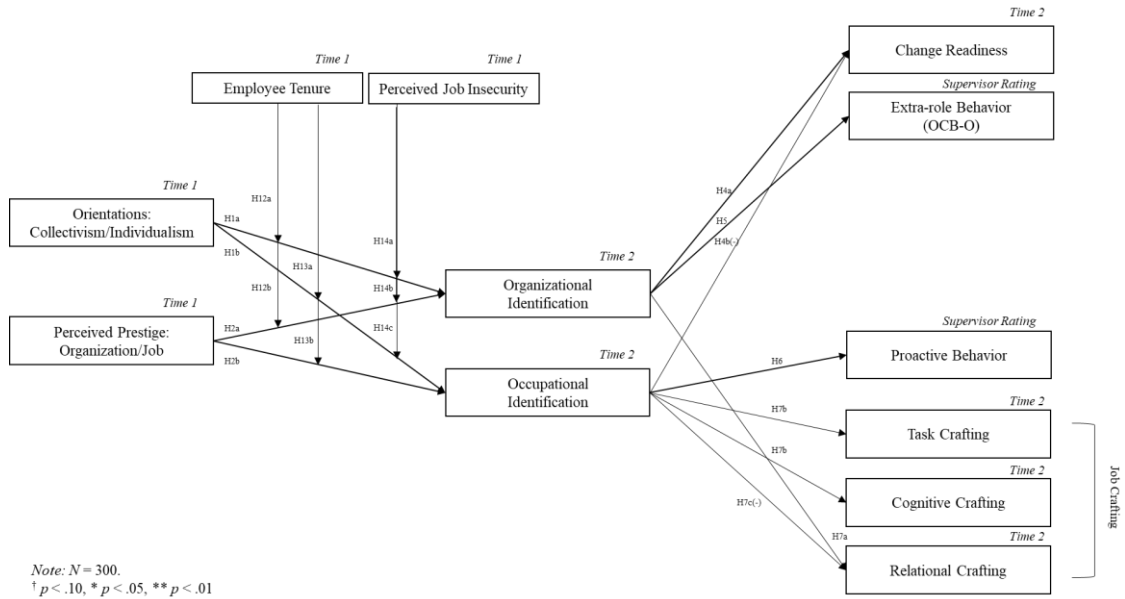
Figure 18. Path Analytic Model including Direct Paths



5.4.2. Study 1-1: Adjusted Model

Some of the results were as expected, whereas others illustrated unexpected outcomes of the analysis. Empirical findings indicated that both internal and external job mobilities and promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors did not illustrate significance in the analysis. Thus, as shown in Figure 19, I decided to conduct additional analysis with an adjusted model by excluding four constructs which did not indicate statistical significance in the original model

Figure 19. Conceptual Framework



Prior to conducting additional analysis, I conducted multilevel CFAs with 13 variables as reported by employees and supervisors. As previously mentioned with the original modal analysis, CFA analysis was inappropriate as the number of items measured for each construct exceeds the total sample size of 300; therefore, CFAs were conducted with item parceling, and I conducted multilevel CFAs using the Mplus 8.3 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). The results confirmed a good fit ($\chi^2(243) = 466.13$, $p = .000$, CFI = .94, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .06). Alternative CFAs were also conducted by combining personal orientations—collectivism and individualism; perceived organizational and job prestige; internal and external job mobilities; task, cognitive, and relational crafting; and change readiness (all CFIs < .90 and TLI < .90).

For hypothesis testing, partial mediation model exhibited the better model fit ($\chi^2 (27) = 67.64, p = .000, CFI = .97, TLI = .83, RMSEA = .07$) when compared with full mediation model ($\chi^2 (51) = 216.31, p = .000, CFI = .87, TLI = .64, RMSEA = .10$). Therefore, the empirical analysis for the adjusted model was conducted as a partial mediation model, which is the same condition as the original model.

A. Main Effects

Hypotheses 1a and 1b predicted that employees' orientations of collectivism and individualism have distinct influences in developing identification types; that is, employees who prefer collectivism develop OID, whereas employees who value individualism develop OCID. Results indicated that collectivism has a significant positive relationship with OID ($\beta = .28, p = .000$), whereas individualism was statistically insignificant with OID ($\beta = .03, n.s.$). For OCID, both collectivism and individualism were statistically significant. Individualism illustrates a significant positive relationship with OCID ($\beta = .10, p = .031$) and collectivism a significant positive relationship with OCID ($\beta = .19, p = .005$). Thus, these findings support both hypotheses 1a and 1b.

In hypotheses 2a and 2b, when employees who recognized perceived prestige of organizations, they are estimated to develop OID; whereas employees would develop OCID when they have perceived prestige of occupations. The result echoes the hypotheses. When employees

recognize perceived organizational prestige, it has a significant positive influence on OID ($\beta = .24, p = .001$), whereas it has a significant positive influence on developing OCID when employees have perceived job prestige ($\beta = .21, p = .001$). Therefore, both Hypotheses 2a and 2b are supported.

In this adjusted model for the analysis, given that internal and external job mobilities have been excluded, hypothesis 3a and 3b are therefore not considered in this additional analysis.

Hypothesis 4a projected that OID is positively affecting the process of change readiness, whereas hypothesis 4b predicted that employees with OCID would show a negative attitude toward change readiness. The results confirm that OID has a significant positive effect on change readiness ($\beta = .31, p = .004$). Therefore, hypothesis 4a is supported. However, the results indicate that the relationship between OCID and change readiness are statistically insignificant ($\beta = .09, n.s.$). Therefore, hypothesis 4b is rejected.

In hypothesis 5, this study assumed that only employees with OID show a positive attitude toward employees' extra-role behavior in organizations. Empirical finding confirms hypothesis 5, in that only OID is marginal but positively related to extra-role behavior ($\beta = .15, p = .073$). Thus, hypothesis 5 is partially supported.

When predicting OID is positively related to extra-role behavior, OCID was predicted to be positively related to proactive behaviors in organizations. However, the statistical analysis indicated no significant relationship between OCID and proactive behavior ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$). By

contrast, OID has a marginally positive significance on proactive behavior ($\beta = .14, p = .098$). As only OID has a marginal and positive impact on proactive behavior and OCID indicated statistical insignificance, hypothesis 6 is rejected.

For the job crafting behaviors, hypothesis 7a expected that employees with OID would show a positive attitude with relational crafting behaviors, whereas hypothesis 7b predicted that employees with OCID would exert positive attitudes to task crafting and cognitive crafting behaviors. Conversely, they would show negative attitudes toward relational crafting behaviors. The results show OID with positive significance with cognitive and relational crafting ($\beta = .33, p = .001; \beta = .27, p = .002$), whereas OCID has significant positive relationships with all three dimensions of job crafting: task, cognitive, and relational ($\beta = .36, p = .002; \beta = .30, p = .001; \beta = .21, p = .007$). Thus, hypotheses 7a and 7b are supported, whereas 7c is rejected.

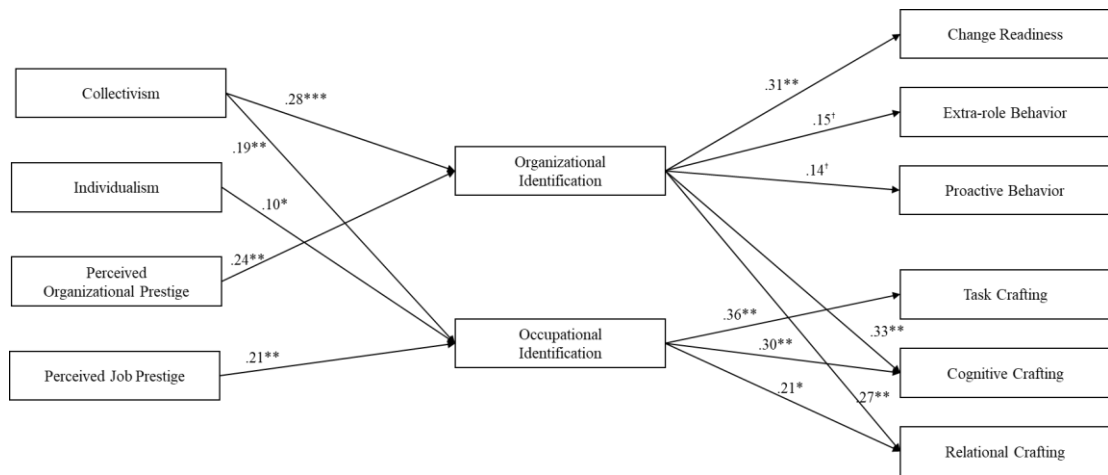
As mentioned, in this adjusted model for additional analyses, voice behaviors (both promotive and prohibitive) have been excluded from the model apart from internal and external job mobilities. Therefore, hypotheses 8a and 8b are not considered in this additional analysis.

Table 15. Multilevel Path Analysis

Variable	Outcome variable:							
	Model 1: OID	Model 2: OCID	Model 3: Change Readiness	Model 4: Extra-role Behavior	Model 5: Proactive Behavior	Model 6: Task Crafting	Model 7: Cognitive Crafting	Model 8: Relational Crafting
<u>Level 1. Individual Level</u>								
Gender (Female=1)			-.12	-.27*	-.29*	-.11	-.10	.11
Age			.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00
Education			.05	-.02	-.06	.01	-.08	-.09
Job Positions			-.06	.26*	.19	-.06	.06	.08
OID			.31**	.15†	.14†	.07	.33**	.27**
OCID			.09	-.06	-.05	.36**	.30**	.21**
Collectivism	.28***	.19**	.06	.03	.04	.07	.06	.17*
Individualism	.03	.10*	.17**	-.03	-.01	.20***	.07	.06
Perceived Organizational Prestige	.24**	.07	-.16*	-.10†	-.21***	-.17**	-.05	-.09
Perceived Job Prestige	.03	.21**	.08	-.01	.03	-.01	.11*	-.03
<u>Level 2. Organization Level</u>								
Organization #1 (Home Appliances)			.10	.25	.30	.15	.10	-.06
Organization #2 (Chemical Products)			.31	.15	.37*	.29†	.08	-.05

Note: Standardized regression coefficients are reported. $N = 300$. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Figure 20. Path Analytic Model



Note: $N = 300$.
† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

B. Moderating Effects

Following the same procedure in the original model, the first stage of the adjusted model was statistically utilized to test the moderation (employees' organizational tenure, job tenure, and job insecurity) between independent variables (collectivism, individualism, perceived organizational prestige, perceived job prestige, and internal and external job mobilities) to OID and OCID.

Hypothesis 9 was tested to discuss the moderating effects of the proportion of employees' organizational tenure in proportion to their entire career. To test the moderating effects, the adjusted model was conducted in the same manner as the main effects analysis. Given that it is a portion of the overall research model, the control variables were ensured to stay the

same as the main effect model for consistency. As explained, in the adjusted model, neither internal nor external job mobility has been included.

Therefore, hypotheses 9c, 10c, and 11c are not considered for the analyses.

The model fit of hypothesis 9 indicated a poor fit than the model of the main effects, especially in the aspect of values of CFI and TLI ($\chi^2 (47) = 104.85$, $p = .000$, CFI = .51, TLI = .37, RMSEA = .06). Hypothesis 9 posits that longer employee tenures with organizations in proportion to their entire career would strengthen the relationship between (a) collectivistic orientation and OID and (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID. The analysis indicated all two interaction terms between collectivistic orientation and employee tenure with OID ($\beta = .05$, $p = n.s.$) and between employee tenure and perceived organizational prestige ($\beta = .06$, $n.s.$). Therefore, hypotheses 9a and 9b are rejected. Notably, given that the model fit itself was poorly exhibited, hypotheses 9a and 9b fail to attain statistical significance at all.

The model fit of hypothesis 10 indicated a good fit than the model of the hypothesis 9, ($\chi^2 (14) = 18.26$, $p = .20$, CFI = .94, TLI = .89, RMSEA = .03). As mentioned, it was conducted despite the poor model fit to ensure consistency within the model. Hypothesis 10 projected that longer employee tenure with a job in proportion to their entire career strengthens the relationship between (a) individualistic orientation and OCID and (b) perceived job prestige and OCID. The results indicated that employee job tenure in proportion to their entire career does not moderate the relationship

between (a) individualistic orientation and OCID ($\beta = -.02, n.s.$) and (b) perceived job prestige and OCID ($\beta = .10, p = n.s.$). Therefore, 10a and 10c are rejected.

The model fit for hypothesis 11 was worse than the main effect ($\chi^2(19) = 91.32, p = .000, CFI = .44, TLI = .06, RMSEA = .11$). As mentioned, it was conducted despite the poor model fit to ensure consistency within the model. Hypothesis 11 posits that when employees perceive job insecurity, the relationship is weakened between (a) collectivistic orientation and OID and (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID. Results indicated that (a) collectivistic orientation and OID ($\beta = -.01, n.s.$), (b) perceived organizational prestige and OID ($\beta = .09, p = n.s.$) were insignificant.

Models of moderating effects do not present a good model fit, except hypothesis 10. However, neither hypothesis 10a nor 10b is supported. Therefore, hypotheses 9, 10, and 11 are not supported.

C. Indirect Effects

To test indirect effect of the adjusted model for mediation was conducted. As shown in Table 16, collectivism was mediated through OID to change readiness (indirect effect = .09, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .16]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .16]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]); whereas perceived organizational prestige was mediated by OID to change readiness (indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .14]) as well as

cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE= .03, 95% CI [.02, .14]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .07, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .12]). Individualism was mediated by OCID to task crafting (indirect effect = .07, SE= .03, 95% CI [.00, .13]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .03, SE= .01, 95% CI [.00, .06]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .02, SE= .01, 95% CI [.00, .04]); and collectivism was mediated by OCID to cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .06, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .11]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .04, SE= .02, 95% CI [.00, .08]).

Additionally, perceived job prestige was mediated by OCID to task crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .14]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .06, SE= .03, 95% CI [.01, .11]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .04, SE= .02, 95% CI [.00, .09]).

Table 16. *Mediation Analysis of the Indirect Effects of Collectivism and Individualism and Perceived Organizational and Job Prestige on Change Readiness, Extra-role Behavior, Proactive Behavior, Task Crafting, Cognitive Crafting, and Relational Crafting*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Indirect effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Collectivism	OID	Change Readiness	.09	.04	.02	.16
	OCID	Change Readiness	.02	.02	-.02	.05
Individualism	OID	Change Readiness	.01	.02	-.02	.04
	OCID	Change Readiness	.01	.01	-.01	.03
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Change Readiness	.08	.03	.01	.14
	OCID	Change Readiness	.01	.01	-.01	.02

Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Change Readiness	.01	.03	-.04	.06
	OCID	Change Readiness	.02	.02	-.02	.06
Collectivism	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.04	.03	-.01	.09
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.04	.01
Individualism	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.01	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.04	.02	-.01	.08
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Extra-role Behavior	.01	.01	-.02	.03
	OCID	Extra-role Behavior	-.01	.01	-.04	.02
Collectivism	OID	Proactive Behavior	.04	.03	-.01	.09
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.01	-.04	.02
Individualism	OID	Proactive Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.01	-.02	.01
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Proactive Behavior	.04	.02	-.01	.08
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	.00	.01	-.01	.01
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Proactive Behavior	.01	.01	-.02	.03
	OCID	Proactive Behavior	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Collectivism	OID	Task Crafting	.02	.03	-.05	.09
	OCID	Task Crafting	.07	.03	.00	.13
Individualism	OID	Task Crafting	.00	.01	-.01	.01
	OCID	Task Crafting	.04	.02	.00	.08

Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Task Crafting	.02	.03	-.04	.07
	OCID	Task Crafting	.03	.02	-.02	.07
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Task Crafting	.00	.01	-.01	.02
	OCID	Task Crafting	.08	.03	.01	.14
Collectivism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.09	.03	.02	.16
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.06	.03	.01	.11
Individualism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.01	.02	-.03	.05
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.03	.01	.00	.06
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.08	.03	.02	.14
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.02	.02	-.02	.06
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Cognitive Crafting	.01	.03	-.04	.06
	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	.06	.03	.01	.11
Collectivism	OID	Relational Crafting	.08	.03	.02	.13
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.04	.02	.00	.08
Individualism	OID	Relational Crafting	.01	.01	-.02	.04
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.02	.01	.00	.04
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Relational Crafting	.07	.03	.01	.12
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.02	.01	-.01	.04
Perceived Job Prestige	OID	Relational Crafting	.01	.02	-.04	.05
	OCID	Relational Crafting	.04	.02	.00	.09

Note: $N = 300$. $p < .05$ in bold.

As mentioned in previous section, conventionally, when moderation

is rejected, moderated mediation was not considered. However, in the recent research stream, based on Hayes's (2015) illustrated that even if moderation is insignificant at $p < .05$, the index of moderated mediation remained significant at $p < .05$, which have been applied to following studies (Calantone et al., 2017; Osei et al., 2018). Therefore, in this study, it also follows the existing research methods that moderated mediation analysis was continued though moderations were found in the analysis. The moderated mediation model was tested to calculate the indirect effect estimates with 95% CI (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). To maintain consistency within the model, the procedure was conducted in the same manner by having the same control variables (gender, age, education, position, and company) of study 1-1 and main effects analysis of study 1-2.

The moderator of employee organizational tenure indicated a less desirable model fit ($\chi^2(95) = 262.46$, $p = .000$, $CFI = .86$, $TLI = .73$, $RMSEA = .08$). As shown in Table 17, the results indicated that employee organizational tenure moderates (a) the mediating relationship of collectivism and OID in predicting change readiness where medium (mean) level (indirect effect = .08, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [.01, .16]) and low (one standard deviation below) levels (indirect effect = .09, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [.01, .17]) of employee tenure have a significant indirect effect, and (b) the mediating relationship of collectivism and OID in predicting cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .09, $SE = .05$, 95% CI [.00, .18]; indirect effect = .10, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [.02, .17]; indirect effect = .11, $SE = .04$, 95% CI

[.04, .18]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .15]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .15]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .16]) at all three levels.

Moreover, the results indicate that high and medium levels of employee organizational tenure moderates the mediating relationship of perceived organizational prestige and OID in predicting change readiness (indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .16]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .13]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .11, SE = .04, 95% CI [.04, .18]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .15]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .10, SE = .03, 95% CI [.04, .16]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]). As shown in Figures 21–26, the Johnson-Neyman technique was utilized to visually examine statistically significant interactions.

Figure 21. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

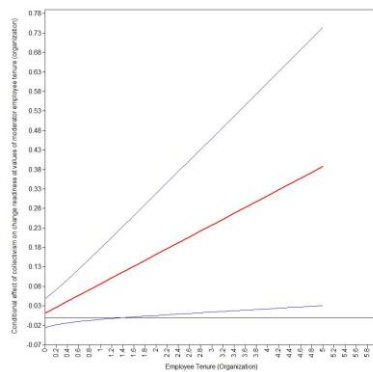


Figure 22. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

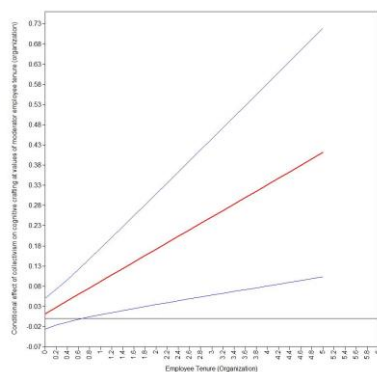


Figure 23. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

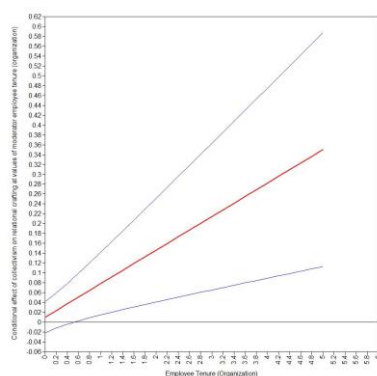


Figure 24. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organization Prestige on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

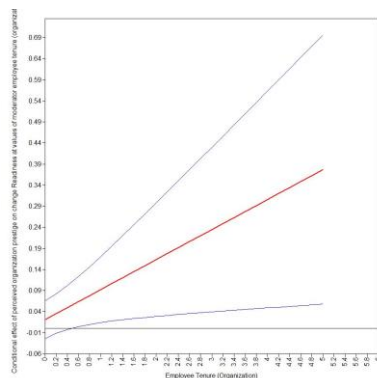


Figure 25. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

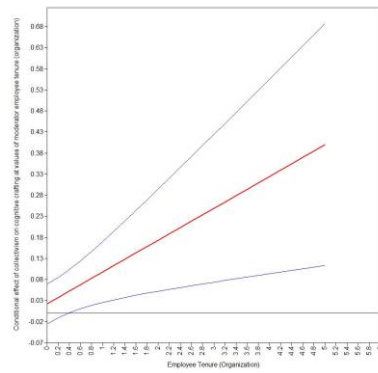


Figure 26. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Organization)*

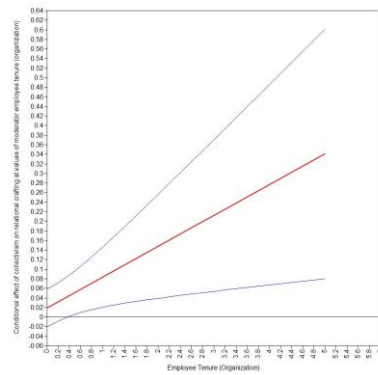


Table 17. *Conditional Indirect Effect Estimates of Moderated Mediation Analysis of Employee Tenure (Organization)*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Moderator	Moderator Level	Indirect Effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Collectivism	OID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.07	.04	-.01	.16
				Medium	.08	.04	.01	.16
				Low	.09	.04	.01	.17
Collectivism	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.03	.02	-.02	.08
				Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.08
				Low	.04	.03	-.01	.09
Collectivism	OID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.02	.02	-.02	.07
				Medium	.02	.03	-.02	.07
				Low	.03	.03	-.03	.08
Collectivism	OID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.01	.03	-.05	.08
				Medium	.01	.04	-.06	.08
				Low	.02	.04	-.06	.09
Collectivism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.09	.05	.00	.18
				Medium	.10	.04	.02	.17
				Low	.11	.04	.04	.18
Collectivism	OID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.08	.04	.01	.15
				Medium	.09	.03	.03	.15
				Low	.10	.04	.03	.16
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.09	.03	.02	.16
				Medium	.07	.03	.01	.13
				Low	.05	.04	-.02	.12
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.04	.03	-.01	.09
				Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.07
				Low	.02	.02	-.01	.05
Perceived Organizational Prestige	OID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.03	.03	-.03	.08
				Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.06
				Low	.02	.01	-.01	.04

Perceived	OID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.02	.04	-.06	.09
Organizational				Medium	.01	.03	-.05	.07
Prestige				Low	.01	.02	-.03	.05
Perceived	OID	Cognitive	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.11	.04	.04	.18
Organizational				Medium	.08	.03	.02	.15
Prestige				Low	.06	.04	-.02	.14
Perceived	OID	Relational	Employee Tenure (Organization)	High	.10	.03	.04	.16
Organizational				Medium	.07	.03	.02	.13
Prestige				Low	.05	.04	-.02	.12

Note: $N = 300$. $p < .05$ in bold

For the moderator of employee job tenure, moderated mediation presented a model fit of $\chi^2(95) = 325.42$, $p = .000$, CFI = .82, TLI = .64, RMSEA = .09. As shown in Table 18, the analysis indicated that moderated mediation exists in the relationship between individualism and OCID in predicting the task crafting (indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .17]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .18]; indirect effect = .11, SE = .05, 95% CI [.02, .20]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .15]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.04, .15]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .16]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .05, SE = .02, 95% CI [.01, .10]; indirect effect = .06, SE = .02, 95% CI [.01, .10]; indirect effect = .06, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .11]) wherein the moderator of employee job tenure at all three levels were significant.

Additionally, employee job tenure moderated the mediating relationship between perceived job prestige and task crafting (indirect effect = .09, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .17]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .16]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .05, SE = .02, 95% CI [.00, .09]; indirect effect = .05, SE = .02, 95% CI [.01, .09]) when the moderator level was medium and low. And, employee job tenure moderated the mediating relationship between perceived job prestige and cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.00, .15]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .14]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI

[.01, .14]) at all three levels. As shown in Figures 27–29, the Johnson-Neyman technique was utilized to visually examine statistically significant interactions.

Figure 27. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Job Prestige on Task Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Job)*

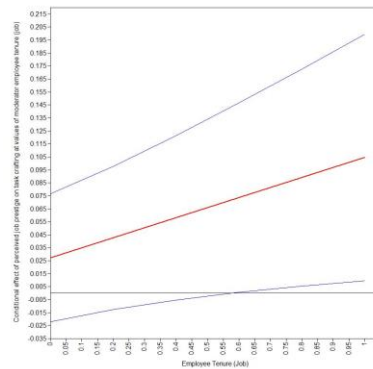


Figure 28. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Job Prestige on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Job)*

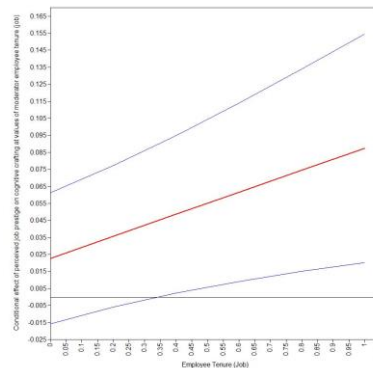
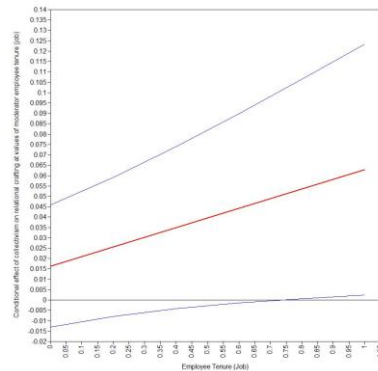


Figure 29. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Employee Tenure (Job)*



Finally, the moderator of perceived job insecurity exhibited a poor model fit ($\chi^2 (95) = 372.49$, $p = .000$, CFI = .78, TLI = .57, RMSEA = .10). As shown in Table 19 it exhibited a similar pattern with employee organizational tenure: perceived job insecurity moderates the mediating relationship between collectivism and OID in predicating change readiness (indirect effect = .07, SE = .04, 95% CI [.00, .14]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .16]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .05, 95% CI [.00, .19]), cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .08, SE = .04, 95% CI [.01, .15]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .17]; indirect effect = .12, SE = .05, 95% CI [.02, .22]), and relational crafting (indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .13]; indirect effect = .09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.03, .15]; indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .19]) at all three moderator levels.

Table 18. *Conditional Indirect Effect Estimates of Moderated Mediation Analysis of Employee Tenure (Job)*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Moderator	Moderator Level	Indirect Effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Individualism	OCID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				Medium	.03	.03	-.02	.09
				Low	.04	.03	-.02	.09
Individualism	OCID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.02	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.02	.02	-.05	.02
				Low	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
Individualism	OCID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.01	.02	-.05	.03
				Low	-.01	.02	-.05	.03
Individualism	OCID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.10	.04	.02	.17
				Medium	.10	.04	.03	.18
				Low	.11	.05	.02	.20
Individualism	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.09	.03	.03	.15
				Medium	.09	.03	.04	.15
				Low	.10	.03	.03	.16
Individualism	OCID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.05	.02	.01	.10
				Medium	.06	.02	.01	.10
				Low	.06	.03	.01	.11
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Change Readiness	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				Medium	.03	.03	-.02	.08
				Low	.03	.03	-.02	.08
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Extra-Role Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.02	.02	-.05	.02
				Medium	-.02	.02	-.04	.02
				Low	-.02	.02	-.04	.02

Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Proactive Behavior	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				Medium	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
				Low	-.01	.02	-.04	.02
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Task Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.09	.05	-.01	.19
				Medium	.09	.04	.01	.17
				Low	.09	.04	.02	.16
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Cognitive Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.08	.04	.00	.15
				Medium	.08	.03	.02	.14
				Low	.08	.03	.01	.14
Perceived Job Prestige	OCID	Relational Crafting	Employee Tenure (Job)	High	.05	.03	-.01	.10
				Medium	.05	.02	.00	.09
				Low	.05	.02	.01	.09

Note: $N = 300$, $p < .05$ in bold

Similarly, perceived organizational prestige was mediated by OID in predicting change readiness (indirect effect = .09, SE = .04, 95% CI [.02, .16]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .12]) and cognitive crafting (indirect effect = .11, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .20]; indirect effect = .08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .15]) and relational crafting (indirect effect = .10, SE = .04, 95% CI [.03, .17]; indirect effect = .07, SE = .03, 95% CI [.02, .12]) with a moderating effect of perceived job insecurity at high and medium levels. As shown in Figures 30–35, the Johnson-Neyman technique was utilized to visually examine statistically significant interactions.

Figure 30. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

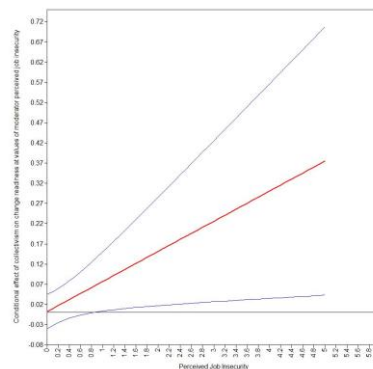


Figure 31. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

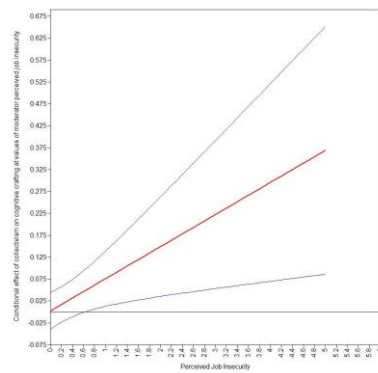


Figure 32. *Conditional Effect of Collectivism on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

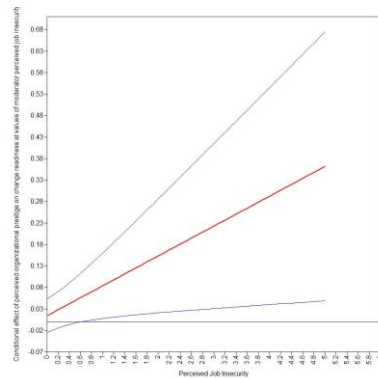


Figure 33. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organizational Prestige on Change Readiness at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

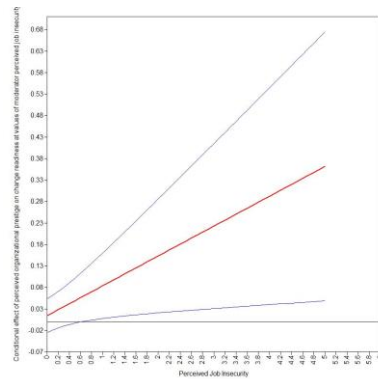


Figure 34. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organizational Prestige on Cognitive Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*

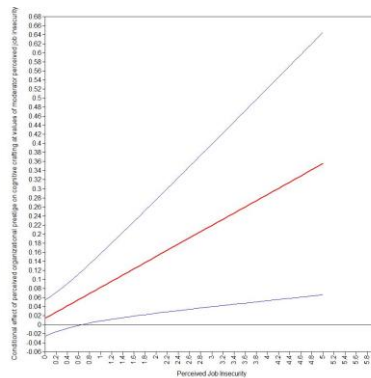
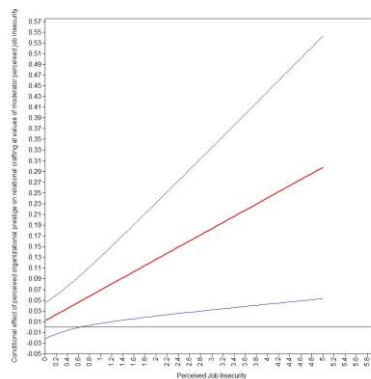


Figure 35. *Conditional Effect of Perceived Organizational Prestige on Relational Crafting at Values of Moderator Perceived Job Insecurity*



Although the overall models were insignificant since none of the model fit of moderated mediation satisfies the model fit indices, the results of indirect effects show similar output compared to study 1-1. Even though the statistical results indicated several significant indirect paths, given that the model fit does not meet the level of goodness-of-fit, the results of indirect paths do not demonstrate statistical significance.

Table 19. *Conditional Indirect Effect Estimates of Moderated Mediation Analysis of Perceived Job Insecurity*

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Moderator	Moderator Level	Indirect Effect	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Collectivism	OID	Change Readiness	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.07	.04	.00	.14
				Medium	.08	.04	.01	.16
				Low	.10	.05	.00	.19
Collectivism	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.03	.02	-.01	.06
				Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.08
				Low	.04	.03	-.02	.09
Collectivism	OID	Proactive Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.02	.02	-.02	.06
				Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.07
				Low	.03	.03	-.03	.08
Collectivism	OID	Task Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.01	.03	-.04	.07
				Medium	.02	.04	-.05	.08
				Low	.02	.04	-.07	.10
Collectivism	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.08	.04	.01	.15
				Medium	.10	.04	.03	.17
				Low	.12	.05	.02	.22
Collectivism	OID	Relational Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.07	.03	.02	.13
				Medium	.09	.03	.03	.15
				Low	.10	.04	.02	.19
Perceived Organizational	OID	Change Readiness	Perceived Job Insecurity	High	.09	.04	.02	.16
				Medium	.07	.03	.01	.12

Prestige				Low	.04	.03	-.02	.10
Perceived				High	.04	.02	-.01	.08
Organizational	OID	Extra-Role Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.03	.02	-.01	.06
Prestige				Low	.02	.01	-.01	.04
				High	.03	.03	-.03	.08
Perceived	OID	Proactive Behavior	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.02	.02	-.02	.05
Organizational				Low	.01	.01	-.01	.03
Prestige				High	.02	.04	-.06	.09
Perceived	OID	Task Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.01	.03	-.04	.07
Organizational				Low	.01	.02	-.03	.04
Prestige				High	.11	.04	.03	.20
Perceived	OID	Cognitive Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.08	.03	.02	.15
Organizational				Low	.05	.03	-.01	.11
Prestige				High	.10	.04	.03	.17
Perceived	OID	Relational Crafting	Perceived Job Insecurity	Medium	.07	.03	.02	.12
Organizational				Low	.04	.03	-.01	.10
Prestige								

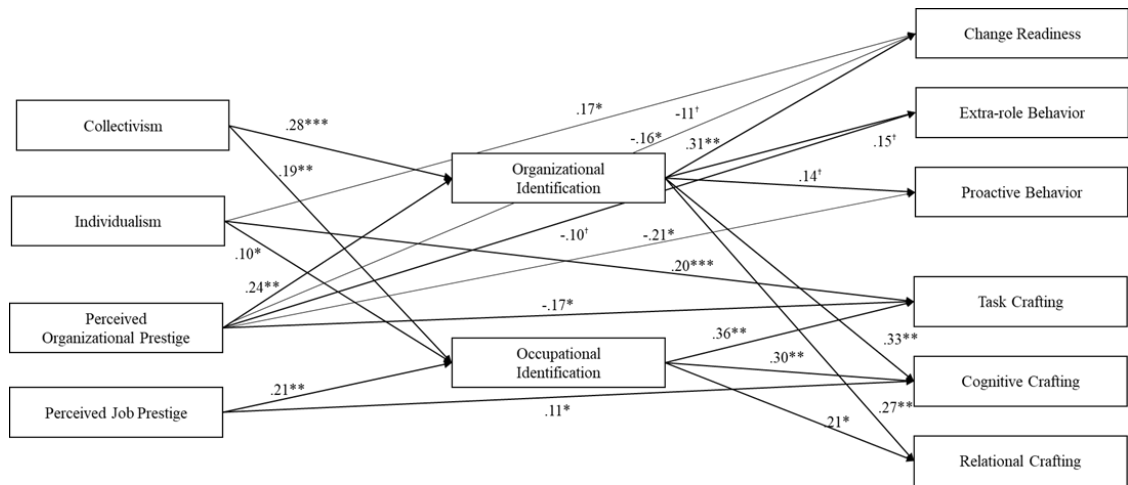
Note: $N = 300$, $p < .05$ in bold

D. Direct Paths

Although direct paths were not hypothesized, when conducting partial mediation statistical analysis, the direct paths from independent variables (collectivism, individualism, perceived organizational prestige, and perceived job prestige) to dependent variables (change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting) are calculated.

Interpreting the direct path presents several interesting perspectives. As seen earlier, collectivism has strong influences on both OID and OCID. However, it has no significant direct paths to dependent variables. At the same time, individualism indicated a significant positive influence on change readiness ($\beta = .17, p = .005$) and task crafting ($\beta = .20, p = .000$). Interestingly, when employees perceive organizational prestige, direct paths from organizational prestige indicate a significant negative path to change readiness ($\beta = -.16, p = .037$), proactive behavior ($\beta = -.21, p = .000$), and task crafting ($\beta = -.17, p = .008$), and marginal negative path to extra-role behavior ($\beta = -.10, p = .072$). Conversely, when employees perceive job prestige, they have a positive significant direct path to cognitive crafting ($\beta = .11, p = .035$).

Figure 36. Path Analytic Model including Direct Paths



Note: $N = 300$.
 $† p < .10$, $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$

E. Comparing Results between Study 1 and Study 1-1

Additional analysis was conducted to test the statistical stability by excluding constructs that are insignificant (internal job mobility, external job mobility, promotive voice and prohibitive voice) from the original model to examine more precise statistical results from the model.

However, when additional analysis was conducted with the adjusted model by removing insignificant constructs (internal job mobility, external job mobility, promotive voice and prohibitive voice) from the original model to prevent potential statistical suppression effects and/or issues of multicollinearity, the results of adjusted model indicated the same. The positive significant and marginally significant results remained the same as the original model although each value of coefficients and p-values slightly

changed, statistical significant remained the same, including the moderating effects were not supported. By comparing the analysis results of the original and adjusted models, the results of empirical testing in the original model can be confirmed.

Chapter 6. Discussion

6.1. Summary of Findings

This study aimed to formulate a framework for simultaneously examining two constructs—OID and OCID—to compare and contrast their antecedents and consequences in organizations.

By examining the paths of OID and OCID, this study was aimed to provide a better understanding of the functions of OID and OCID in organizations and determine whether one concept (OID) could replace or supplement another (OCID). The question arose of whether employees in today's workforce show less OID than employees in the past.

However, an alternative to OID has not been suggested. On the basis of statistical analysis, I sought to determine whether OCID could replace or supplement OID in organizations by examining (1) which factors (antecedents: collectivism, individualism, perceived organizational and job prestige, and perceived internal and external job mobility) are influential in developing either OID or OCID, (2) when each type of identification was developed and how it affected employees' expected attitudes and behaviors

in organizational performance (such as their readiness for organizational change, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, task, cognitive, and relational crafting, and promotive and prohibitive voice behavior), (3) whether it is acceptable for organizations to have employees who do not have OID, and (4) whether OID and OCID yielded similar outputs or illustrated different perspectives in organizations.

Two studies—study 1 (the original model) and study 1-1 (adjusted model that excluded non-significant constructs from the original model)—produced the same results. Therefore, despite some unexpected results and the rejection of some initial predictions, this empirical study tested how the relationships between antecedents affected OID and OCID, which affect employees' attitudes and behaviors in organizations.

The empirical analysis produced the following findings: 1) Different antecedents affect the development of either OID or OCID. Despite having some overlaps, OID and OCID exhibit different consequences in organizations. (2) To answer the initial question regarding whether one concept could replace or supplement another, OID illustrated its influences in broader aspects in organizations than OCID. Although OCID influences job crafting behaviors, OID primarily has broad impacts on organizations. (3) Examining direct effects from the antecedents to consequences without OID or OCID, there was no favorable results. The results indicate that mediations, such as OID and OCID, had positive effects on employees' attitudes and behaviors in organizations. (4) Although OCID

has benefits in organizational settings, with employees who have OCID exerting all three dimensions of job crafting behaviors, such benefits were not illustrated positively in other consequences in organizations. Therefore, OCID has some similar outputs to OID, but they are mostly focused on job-related areas, not organization-centered behaviors.

The results indicate that collectivism significantly affected OID and OCID whereas individualism affected OCID only. Moreover, perceived organizational identification was applicable to OID whereas perceived job prestige affected OCID. Interestingly, the results show that neither internal nor external job mobility affected either type of identification. Despite the initial prediction that OID and OCID would portray different but equally influential attitudes and behaviors in organizations, the results indicate that OID has a larger influence on employees' attitudes and behaviors in organizations because employees with OID displayed a positive attitude toward change readiness, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting, and OID positively influenced their extra-role, proactive, and promotive behaviors. The results also indicate that OCID had a significant influence in all three dimensions of job crafting (task, cognitive, and relational), but this influence was limited to job crafting (task, cognitive, and relational crafting) and did not significantly affect other constructs (change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, and voice behavior). Moreover, the coefficients were negative even in the statistically insignificant results (extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, promotive voice, and prohibitive

voice). Therefore, it could be assumed that despite the statistical insignificance, OCID might not only have a strong impact on employees' extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, and voice behavior but could also be causing those behaviors in organizations. I discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the current analysis and its limitations next, followed by recommendations for future research.

6.2. Antecedents of OID and OCID

Collectivism and Individualism

Researchers have examined the relationship between collectivism and OID. However, a discussion regarding the relationship between collectivism and OCID and between individualism and OCID was lacking. Because the literature on OCID is not extensive and, as Lee et al. (2015) explained, unlike collectivism, individualism may prioritize employees' personal goals over organizational goals, making them less likely to feel connected to their affiliated organizations, OID might have more salient effects on collectivism (Lee et al., 2015, p. 1053).

Through a simultaneous comparison of the paths from collectivism and individualism to OID and OCID, the empirical study showed that individuals' personal orientations influence the development of identifications.

Regarding the hypotheses about the relationship between collectivism and OID and between individualism and OCID, this study's

results support previous empirical findings that collectivism enhances OID and OCID. However, individualism affected OCID but did not significantly affect OID as existing studies have implied. Although researchers have conducted no empirical tests that examine the relationship between individualism and OID and OCID, Dore's (1973) comparative study comparing Britain and Japan explained the relationships between collectivism and OID as well as individualism and OCID. In Dore's (1973) study, he explained that workers in Britain identify themselves with their work whereas Japanese workers identify themselves with their employing firms. One of the reasons that Dore provided for this difference was the different national cultures: Britain has an individualistic value system whereas Japan values collectivism. Given that their national culture emphasizes the importance of individualism, British workers identify themselves with their priority, which is their job, whereas Japanese workers identify themselves with their organizations in accordance with collectivism, which their national culture values.

This study's results echo the idea that employees with collectivism develop OID whereas employees who prefer individualism develop OCID, in accordance with previous research. The only difference that has been recognized was the positive significant relationship between collectivism and OCID, which was not hypothesized and remains unexamined. A possible reason collectivism also enhances OCID is that as data collection was conducted in Korea, where collectivism is a part of the national culture,

employees' orientations were overshadowed by the national culture of collectivism, which impacted the relationship between collectivism and OCID.

Perceived Organizational Prestige and Perceived Job Prestige

In this study, statistical analysis of perceived organizational prestige produced a similar outcome to those from existing studies, which is that the organization's perceived external prestige augments employees' OID (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991; Dutton et al., 1994; Smidts et al., 2001). As Smidts et al. (2001) explained, perceived organizational prestige refers to employees' constructed understanding of how the public views the organization. As March and Simon (1958) discussed, employees exhibit a stronger tendency to identify with their organization when they think that the public highly respects it.

Based on March and Simon's (1958) work, I projected that perceived organizational prestige would influence the development of OID whereas perceived job prestige—employees' constructed understanding of how the public evaluates their occupations—would influence the development of OCID. The empirical findings support the hypothesis that there is a positive significant relationship between perceived job prestige and OCID; the relationship between perceived organizational prestige and OID aligned with existing studies indicating that perceived organizational prestige has a significantly positive effect on OID.

The findings from this study align with Fisher and Wakefield's (1998) study, which showed that individuals self-identify based on perceived prestige, which promotes a better self-image/esteem. That is, when employees recognize that the public respects their organizations, they feel respected as a member by affiliation, which leads them to develop OID. In the same vein, when individuals believe the public respects their jobs and their jobs are successful, they feel proud of themselves for holding such occupations. Therefore, they develop OCID.

Although no study had been conducted to compare directly the paths from perceived organizations' and occupations' prestige to OID and OCID, Hiller et al. (2014) examined the relationship between occupational prestige within a company and OID and PID. They found that perceived occupational prestige's relationships with and OID and PID were both positive, which is inconsistent with this study's results. However, there is a difference: Hiller et al. (2014) measured occupational prestige within the company whereas I measured perceived occupational prestige, which does not limit the employing organizations to be examined. Hiller et al. (2014) found that occupational prestige was positively associated with OID and PID, which explains the different results of this study: even though they measured occupational prestige, Hiller et al. (2014) focused on how perceived intra-organizational occupational prestige influences professional and organizational identification in professional settings. Therefore, the results of this study should be interpreted with the logic of the work of

Fisher and Wakefield (1998) and Smidts et al. (2001)—that the results support the argument that individuals identify themselves with their companies and jobs to develop positive self-concepts and for their betterment; that is, as the results indicate, when their employing organizations are seen as successful and respected, individuals associate themselves with their employing organizations, and when individuals consider their jobs attractive and respected, they strengthen their association with their occupations.

Perceived Organizational Prestige and its Influences on Employees' Attitudes and Behaviors

The empirical analysis revealed an interesting pattern of perceived organizational prestige: the results of both studies (study 1 and study 1-1) show that for employees' attitudes and behaviors, perceived organizational prestige resulted in negative coefficients. That is, when OID mediates perceived organizational prestige, it enhances employees' change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, cognitive crafting, relational crafting, and promotive behaviors; however, when organizational prestige is not mediated by OID and is tested for direct effect on those constructs, it produces negative coefficients for constructs (e.g. change readiness, extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, task crafting, cognitive crafting, relational crafting, promotive voice, and prohibitive voice), as table 9 shows. It is also noteworthy that except for change readiness as well as cognitive and

relational crafting, perceived organizational prestige's negative effects were statistically significant.

The two studies (study 1 and study 1-1) produced the same pattern. On the other hand, perceived job prestige did not show a similar pattern, was not statistically significant, and did not exhibit a pattern of producing negative coefficients for most of the constructs.

The results regarding perceived organizational prestige's direct effects were inconsistent with those of previous studies, which indicates that employees who work for organizations with a positive reputation engage in positive behavior, which enhances their performance (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991; Riordan et al., 1997). For a better interaction between employees and organizations, a positive perception is beneficial. Such favorable perceptions foster comprehension and tolerance of all potential organizational difficulties (Mignonac et al., 2006).

However, Carmeli and Freund (2002) showed that affective commitment, compliance behavior, and job satisfaction were all substantially correlated with PEP, which aligns with Organ and Ryan's (1995) finding that employees with affective commitment exhibit compliance behaviors.

Therefore, the unexpected results regarding perceived organizational prestige's direct effects could be interpreted in two ways. First, following Carmeli and Freund (2002), when employees perceive organizational prestige, they tend to comply with their employing

organizations. Instead of expressing their opinions at work, they follow the given directions; therefore, the negative coefficients of organizational prestige's direct effect do not indicate a negative attitude toward employee behaviors at work. Another explanation could be that perceived organizational prestige requires additional conditions to induce employees' positivity and desired behaviors. Hiller et al. (2014) made a similar finding: perceived occupational prestige within a company had a strong negative direct effect on organizational-professional conflicts. They also recognized that it might require an additional mediator. Studies have shown that perceived external prestige was mediated by job satisfaction and affective commitment in predicting turnover intention, was mediated by organizational identification regarding voice behavior, and mediated organizational commitment (Fuller et al., 2006; Herrbach et al., 2004; Ojedokun et al., 2015); therefore, perceived external prestige could better explain when additional conditions are provided, which requires further examination.

Internal Job Mobility and External Job Mobility

Interestingly, although external job mobility exhibited a significant positive influence on task crafting, neither internal nor external job mobility was confirmed as a source of either type of identification for employees in an organization because the results of neither internal nor external job mobility indicated their significance in developing OID.

I estimated the relationship between internal job mobility and OID based on existing studies, which showed that OID develops over time because when employees spend enough time with their affiliated organizations, they absorb the organization's values and better understand it, leading to stronger OID (Dutton et al., 1994; Hameed, 2013; March & Simon, 1958). Therefore, I hypothesized that perceived internal job mobility would encourage employees to become more engaged with their organizations and that turnover would decrease, increasing employees' tenure in their organizations. However, I found no such relationship and therefore had to reconsider arguments that when employees spend time in organizations, their stress can accumulate and negatively affect the relationship between employees and their OID (Hameed et al., 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2011). As Dutton et al. (1994) explained based on SIT, employees could end up disengaging when experiencing setbacks in their social group (Hirschman, 1970; Kahn, 1990). The relationships between internal job mobility and OID and between external job mobility and OCID were insignificant. Therefore, arguments about whether the relationships have deteriorated or are simply not related are lacking a basis.

However, unlike the paths from both types of mobility that did not affect either type of identification, direct paths exist from external job mobility to task crafting. Therefore, one could argue that job mobility affects employees' behaviors in organizations but does not directly impact OID or OCID. This analysis could be supported based on research on

perceived employability and job crafting (Forrier et al., 2015). This condition occurred because employees put in the effort to learn new skill sets and seek advice and feedback from colleagues and supervisors to maintain their competitiveness for potential employability (Tims et al., 2012). Although it was not one of the hypothesized phenomena in this study, the results support the claims that job crafting efforts are related to employees' perceptions of employability and job mobility.

Considering that mobility does not significantly affect the formation of OID or OCID, job mobility likely portrays the boundary conditions rather than a direct source in developing identifications; Wu et al. (2016) found that perceived job mobility significantly negatively affected OID formation and that in the process of developing OID or OCID, either type of job mobility would more like be a boundary condition rather than a direct effect of identification development.

Employee Organizational and Job Tenure as Boundary Conditions

This study predicted that when employees have longer tenure in their organization in proportion to their entire career, their identification becomes stronger; however, the empirical analysis indicated that neither employees' organizational tenure nor their job tenure has a moderating effect in predicting OID or OCID.

Because employees' identification reduces turnover intention, it was expected that longer employee tenure leads to stronger identification.

Although empirical results contradict this hypothesis, I found similar results in the existing literature. In Hall's (1970) study, which indicated that the correlations between employee tenure and identity were insignificant, although there were positive coefficients, the moderating effects of employees' organizational tenure and job tenure were insignificant in predicting OID. Additionally, Bartel et al. (2012) explained that employees' organizational tenure did not yield significant moderating effects in predicting OID. They concluded that longer organizational tenure does not serve as a buffer for employees in organizations and that how long one has been employed by an organization does not matter in developing OID.

Based on the insignificant effects of employees' organizational and job tenure, Ng and Feldman (2011) found that longer tenure could cause accumulated stress over time, which could cause employees' positive attitude toward their organizations to deteriorate. Therefore, employee tenure does not serve as a moderator in predicting OID.

Employees' organizational and job tenure are not significant moderators in forming OID and OCID, echoing previous works by Bartel et al. (2012) and Ng and Feldman (2011); that is, longer tenure does not boost individuals' identifications – it could be interpreted as quality over quantity: the number of years does not automatically lead to identification; psychological factors matter in identification development.

As an alternative approach to examining employee tenure's effect in predicting OID and OCID, the study by Hameed et al. (2013) could be

utilized, as they argued for tenure's nonlinear effects in predicting that employees with relatively short tenure (less than 10 years) would positively associate prestige with OID; however, when employees have longer tenure, that positive association is weakened. In this study, I calculated employees' tenure in relation to their entire career, which is a different approach than that Hameed et al. (2013) took. However, grouping together employees who frequently change organizations and jobs throughout their career and those who rarely change their organizations and jobs could be helpful in future analysis.

Perceived Job Insecurity as A Boundary Condition

As job insecurity is known to be a stressor for employees (Wang et al., 2015; Piccoli et al., 2017), I hypothesized that based on SIT, employees' OID would deteriorate when they recognize potential job insecurity. However, empirical analysis indicated that moderation is insignificant and does not affect the development of OID. This finding contradicts the results of existing studies showing that job insecurity decreases OID (Callea et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2022).

In the empirical study by Ali et al. (2020), a portion of the results were similar to my findings, with employee-company identification indicating insignificant results in the moderation of effects between job insecurity and employee engagement. Their interpretation was that employees might not leave immediately after recognizing that their job is

vulnerable, but this recognition could cause stress for employees and potentially lead them to disengage from affiliation.

The insignificant moderating effects of perceived job insecurity in this study may stem from the sample because most of the survey participants were full-time, tenured employees. Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015) explained in their study that employees' perception of job insecurity may be subjective and that not every employee is exposed to the same situation. The reaction to perceived job insecurity may differ from the existing research. Sverke and Hellgren (2002) found that the relationship between job insecurity and job-related attitudes was insignificant, as individual employees respond to perceived job insecurity differently.

Additionally, Moshoeu and Geldenhuys (2015) adopted Luthans and Youssef's (2007) study showing that when employees are concerned about the potential threat of losing their jobs, their initial reaction is to work more diligently rather than immediately turning against the organization. The explanation is that employees' initial reaction to the threat would be to work hard to make their employment more secure; however, employees who do so may grow tired, and the accumulation of fear and the threat of losing a job would eventually lead to negative attitudes and behaviors, possibly leading to a process of accumulation rather than an initial reaction. This could be another explanation for why perceived job insecurity does not function as a moderator in this study.

As most of the participants in the survey were full-time employees

who worry less about their tenure, they might have not reacted drastically to potential issues of job insecurity. As Luthans and Youssef (2007) argued, the employees' initial reaction may be not to react directly against the organization but to put their effort into securing their positions; then, as time goes by and the situation does not improve, negative attitudes may surface in the employees.

6.3. Consequences of OID and OCID

Change Readiness

The empirical findings indicate the ambivalence of OID and its influence on change readiness and studies regarding identifications and change readiness (Drzensky & van Dick, 2013; Drzensky et al., 2012; Hameed et al., 2013; He & Brown, 2013); however, the results of this study confirm that OID is positively related to change readiness.

Rousseau (1998) emphasized the importance of employees' attitudes and behavior for organizational change, which could be influenced by employees' level of OID. Miller et al. explained that if information about change were provided, employees with OID would exhibit a positive attitude toward change.

According to multiple studies, strong OID predicts resistance to change, negative attitudes and reactions to it, and the potential to hinder the change process (Drzensky & van Dick, 2013; Jetten et al., 2002; van Dick et al., 2006). However, the results of this study indicate that OID positively

affects change readiness.

The arguments concerning OID's negative effects on change are plausible, but this study examined the relationship between OID and change readiness, focusing on employee intention, rather than actual and/or radical organizational change. The results indicated that the relationship between OID and change readiness was significantly positive, which echoes the finding by Madsen et al. (2055) and van Knippenberg et al. (2006) that employees' OID leads them to become more engaged in change processes and more willing to participate, as they are aligned with their organizations.

In contrast, this study hypothesized that OCID would negatively affect change readiness because employees with OCID are more likely to associate their work with their occupation rather than with their employing organizations; therefore, they would be hesitant to cooperate in organizational change. However, the results do not support that hypothesis.

Because this was the first attempt to test the relationship between OCID and change readiness empirically, no previous empirical studies were available for comparison; therefore, it is difficult to conclude whether the results support other studies. However, it can be assumed that as hypothesized, employees with OCID are less interested in organizational change, as they are more focused on their occupation than on their employing organizations. Therefore, the results indicate that they are neither interested in nor resist organizational change; they are simply not engaged in the issue. Therefore, it could be argued that highlighting the need for

organizational change and the ways change could beneficially influence an employee's job could enhance employees' change readiness.

Extra-role Behavior and Proactive Behavior

Based on the literature review, this study predicted a positive relationship between extra-role behavior and OID because extra-role behavior has received more attention in organizational settings as well as between proactive behaviors and OCID because proactive behavior occurs when individuals recognize potential problems/opportunities in their work and bring them up to improve their working conditions (Parker & Collins, 2010). However, OID had slightly positive effects on extra-role and proactive behaviors but did not have any significant effects on OCID.

The results are inconsistent with those of existing studies on the relationship between OID and extra-role behavior, as OID would encourage employees to be more engaged as they view themselves congruently with employing organizations. However, in this study, the results were weaker than expected, possibly due to the data source. The measurements of employee OID were self-reported. However, supervisors measured extra-role behavior; therefore, the level of expectations could differ – a gap could exist between employee and supervisor ratings. As the coefficient is positive and I found marginal significance on extra-role behavior, although the results in the study is weaker than estimated, they could still align with the expected output.

In contrast, this study expected OCID to have a positive effect on proactive behavior because proactive behavior is considered more self-focused and job-related. However, the results indicate that such behaviors were only marginally significantly influenced by OID and were not significantly influenced by OCID. Yang & Liu (2014) showed that OID promotes more proactive behavior, so the relationship between OID and proactive behavior could support their study; however, the nonsignificant relationship between OCID and proactive behavior cannot be applied to other studies because no study had been conducted to examine such relationships.

One explanation could be that employees with OCID are less likely to express their opinions at work than those with OID. Specifically, empirical results of this study indicate that OCID only significantly positively affects the three dimensions of job crafting; that is, employees are only focused on their occupation-related areas in organizations. Considering that job crafting is a type of proactive employee behavior, employees with OCID are not proactive in general. Rather, they prioritize their efforts in job-specific conditions and not general proactive behaviors at work. Another explanation could be that, similar to extra-role behavior, supervisors measured proactive behavior, and the level of expectation differed between them and the employees; therefore, the reported level of OCID and of proactiveness could differ.

Additionally, the complex nature of measuring extra-role and

proactive behaviors needs to be revisited because questionnaires are meant to emphasize employees' qualities, and I cannot ignore the possibility that supervisors did not clearly distinguish between the two concepts; similar issues have arisen when a complex measurement of OCBI and OCBO was performed, thus preventing the measurement from being clearly communicated (Schuh et al., 2016).

Task, Cognitive, and Relational Crafting

This study hypothesized that OID is positively related to relational crafting, as employees with OID value the organization as a whole whereas OCID enhances task and cognitive crafting, as employees with OCID focus on their work-specific behaviors, and they would not exhibit relational crafting behavior because OID and OCID lead to different priorities at work.

However, the results reveal a positive significant relationship between OID and cognitive and relational crafting whereas OCID has a positive significant effect on all three dimensions of job crafting (task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting).

Because no empirical studies have been conducted on OCID and job crafting, there is no way to compare the results to previous findings; however, previous studies have shown a general positive relationship between OID and job crafting (Kilic et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2018) and new patterns of results were found to explain the relationships of OID and job crafting and OCID and job crafting.

The extant studies show that employees are more likely to report improved OID when they have opportunities to tailor their jobs and therefore feel more positive and less negative (Bacaksiz et al., 2017; Kilic et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2017). Therefore, it could be argued that employees who have been given autonomy for job crafting tend to have more favorable attachments to organizations, i.e., higher OID (Kilic et al. 2020). Kilic et al. (2020) found that OID had a significant positive affect on all three dimensions of job crafting; however, the results were found no significant relationship between OID and task crafting, which echoes Hur et al.'s (2017) findings. Therefore, employees with OID would follow the guidance they receive from their employing organizations. Cognitive and relational crafting are heavily shaped by employees' attitudes toward and perceptions of how to accept and treat their work. Task crafting, on the other hand, entails employee involvement in tailoring their given work. That is, task crafting refers to actual expanding of or altering the number, scope, and sequencing of the given tasks. Therefore, OID could affect task crafting, just as OID affects change readiness. The argument was OID could hinder organizational change, yet OID would have a strong significant positive effect on change readiness, the intention to change. Similarly, unlike task crafting, cognitive and relational crafting reflected more on employees' attitudes and perceptions that OID could have positive effects whereas OID might hinder actual changes and task crafting.

Because this is the first attempt to examine the relationship between

OCID and job crafting, hypotheses were based on Akkermans and Tims's (2017) work, in which they found, regarding employees' person-career fit, that if employees consciously invest in their work rather than in their affiliated organizations, they might show more interest and engagement in job crafting. Therefore, I hypothesized that OCID would be negatively related to relational crafting because it does not necessarily indicate a friendly relationship with colleagues; rather, I expected that employees with OCID would identify themselves with their work.

However, the results indicate that OCID has a statistically significant relationship with all three dimensions, including relational crafting. As aforementioned, individuals who identify themselves with their job exhibit OCID; therefore, job crafting behaviors could be considered aligned with employees' priority, which is job-specific behavior. Therefore, unlike OI, it is significantly related to task crafting, which requires alteration of how employees carry out their job rather than complying with given tasks. Employees with OCID are more likely to have the autonomy to tailor their work processes to improve their quality of output. Additionally, as OCID emphasizes the job's value, it is closely related to cognitive crafting, which leads employees to view their work more positively (Romeo et al., 2021), as values of OCID and cognitive crafting are congruent. I initially hypothesized that relational crafting was negatively related to OCID, as employees with OCID are more engaged with colleagues and therefore more likely to form friendships at work. Unexpectedly, employees with

OCID displayed relational crafting, which is why the relational aspect could be assumed to function differently in the job crafting setting. Unlike mere social gathering, relational crafting focuses on improving the work setting. Therefore, OCID could be positively related to relational crafting and has significant positive effects on all dimensions of job crafting. Considering that job crafting is one of the essential constructs leading to employee performance and effectiveness, these implications of OCID could be considered vital functions for employees in organizations to promote employees' performance in organizations.

Promotive Voice and Prohibitive Voice

The results indicate that OID had only a marginally significant effect on promotive voice behavior and that neither identification had a significant effect on prohibitive voice. As I hypothesized, OID is positively related to promotive voice and negatively related to prohibitive voice, and OCID is positively related to prohibitive voice. The results only support one of the three hypotheses; OID is positively related to promotive voice.

Because the results indicate that OID has a marginally positive effect on promotive voice and the other hypothesized relationships were insignificant, it can be assumed that as voice behaviors indicate employees' active engagement in organizations, the results could indicate that when employees develop either OID or OCID, they tend to comply with organizations rather than actively sharing their opinions or alternative

options. Even if employees recognize the importance of speaking up and sharing their ideas at work, they are not always forthcoming with them. Employees often opt to stay silent to avoid task- and relational-related conflicts and to maintain the status quo (Detert & Trevino, 2010; Milliken et al., 2013).

Prohibitive voice can be more challenging because unlike promotive voice, it focuses on pointing out issues rather than suggesting ideas. Therefore, colleagues may view prohibitive voice behavior as mere complaining, which is why employees with either OID or OCID might hesitate to exhibit any voice behavior in organizations because by not expressing voice behaviors at work, they can minimize possible conflicts.

Although voice behaviors represent employees' levels of engagement and activeness in organizations, employees might want to comply with organizations and their guidance when they view themselves and their organizations congruently. This phenomenon requires caution because if compliance becomes the organizational culture, it could lead to other issues, such as groupthink. Additionally, similar to extra-role and proactive behavior, it could be argued that the ratings could be biased because supervisors rated those four constructs (extra-role behavior, proactive behavior, promotive voice, and prohibitive voice), thereby possibly causing confusion in the analysis.

6.4. Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study sheds light on how OID and OCID develop from different antecedents and lead to different consequences for organizations by establishing a comprehensive framework. At the same time, this study has examined various conditions in the development of OID and OCID and found that they influence various aspects of employees' attitudes and behaviors. Although OID might have a larger effect than estimated, this study differentiated the paths to and from OID and OCID to provide a better understanding of how they function in organizations according to the perspectives of social identity theory.

Theoretical Implications

By examining the relationship among antecedents and consequences of OID and OCID in the comprehensive framework, this study was aimed to test specific dimensions of constructs that are related to OID and OCID.

For example, rather than examining the relationship between higher or lower collectivism and OID and OCID, antecedents were divided into separate categories (collectivism and individualism, perceived organizational prestige and perceived job prestige, internal job mobility and external job mobility) to examine more closely the relationship between OID and OCID. As Ashforth (2020) argued that OID has eroded recently in

workplaces, this study was convinced that to prevent or at least to slow the erosion of OID, it would be needed to identify the promoting factors of OID; therefore, this study tested several antecedents to understand better which factors promote the development of identifications. By testing each category of antecedents of OID and OCID, the results were found that individualism is insignificant in the development of OID, perceived organizational prestige is only effective in the development of OID, and perceived job prestige is only effective in the development of OCID, Considering this study tested several antecedents at the same time in my examination of OID and OCID, this study provides a sound understanding of the development of OID and OCID.

Similarly, this study examined the consequences of OID and OCID from multiple perspectives. To examine the relationship between OID and OCID and change readiness, this study distinguished change readiness from actual organizational change and explained the ambivalent empirical findings regarding OID and organizational change. Additionally, by measuring and examining voice and job crafting behaviors separately, with sub-dimensions of each constructs, this study was found that OID and OCID lead to different attitudes and behaviors. That is, studies have shown that as employees with OID are more engaged, they demonstrate voice behavior for the betterment of their organizations and show job crafting behaviors, as they are more devoted to their employing organizations (Hu et al., 2015; Kilic et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018). However, although this study's results

align with previous findings, the results revealed that OID only influences promotive voice, and unlike in previous studies, the results indicated that OID does not have a significant effect on task crafting. By dividing the constructs into separate and categorical dimensions, this study has expanded the scope and understanding of OID and OCID mechanisms and the ways employees act and function with each identification at work.

Last, as aforementioned, although OID has received attention, other types of identifications have not received much attention at all (Greco et al., 2022; Gümüş et al., 2012; Hassan, 2012). When reviewing the literature, it was surprised to find that although researchers have tested and examined OID and its relationships in various constructs, empirical testing of OCID was limited. Even popular constructs that were tested for relationships with OID, such as change readiness, job crafting, and voice behavior, were not tested with OCID at all; therefore, it provides empirical results of antecedents and consequences of OCID. Additionally, simultaneously testing OID and OCID allowed to compare their formation and their influences in organizations. The results indicate that OID has larger effects on employees' helping behaviors and active engagement than OCID. Until now, OID had been considered a prominent construct for employees. Compared to OCID, OID is still a prominent construct to explain employee dynamics in organizations; however, in job-specific conditions, such as job crafting behavior, OCID could lead to more effective output than OID.

Therefore, although the results of the study did not suggest an alternative for

OID, I provided more precise perspectives on OID and OCID and identified the areas in which they are more effective at work.

Practical Implications

The empirical findings can offer new insights for practitioners who are interested in helping employees become more proactive and engaged in the workforce by developing OID and OCID. Ashforth (2020) was concerned that OID would decrease in the current workforce, which would possibly create negative influences in organizations, such as rapidly changing working environments and employee attitudes toward their work, as new generations enter the workforce and the situation and/or environment quickly changes as the pandemic sweeps over almost every organization. Organizations and their management must respond to the changing situation/environment and resume post-pandemic management with new-generation employees.

First and foremost, the empirical findings indicate that OID allows for a wider range of employee behaviors in organizations; therefore, it should not be ignored. To promote OID, a possibly helpful approach is to ensure that employees value collectivistic orientations, which could make it easier for them to work toward collective goals and pursue interdependence with their colleagues. Setting up good organizational external prestige is also essential. Creating perceived organizational prestige requires management to put in effort to make the organization more attractive to

employees. When organizations are presented as respected by the public, employees are likely to develop OID because they are members of a prestigious organization.

Another approach to encourage and promote better engagement at work is to develop OCID because it could include more options than developing OID does. The results of this empirical study indicate that both personal orientations (collectivism and individualism) significantly influence the development of OID, which means that OCID can develop regardless of employees' personal orientations.

Employees' belief that their work is considered prestigious could also have an influence in the development of OCID. Therefore, management could enhance OCID by conferring value to jobs. By providing precise job descriptions, clarifying roles and responsibilities, and ensuring that the evaluation system is implemented fairly and that occupations are respected by the public and other organizations, an organization could ensure that employees recognize the importance of their job and could thus be motivated to develop OCID.

As mentioned, the empirical findings indicate that OID still covers a wider range of employees' attitude and behaviors at organizations. However, developing OID could be more difficult than developing OCID. Although OCID has limitations when compared with OID and its influence, if organizations give employee performance more weight to enhance organizational output than to active engagement from employees, then they

should encourage employees to develop OCID because it could lead to greater commitment to their work, promote active engagement, by enhancing their task, cognitive, and relational crafting abilities.

In addition, OID and OCID are highly correlated. Thus, when employees have OCID, it could be estimated that—because correlation does not mean causality and highly correlated meaning does not inversely related, it can be merely expected that once either OID or OCID are enhanced, another one of them could reflect that enhancement as well—which could encourage employees to perform better. If encouraging employees to develop OID is difficult, then management should create an environment that emphasizes the employees' jobs to increase the perceived job prestige and enable them to develop OCID, which could then help employees develop OID.

Chapter 7. Limitations and Conclusion

7.1. Study Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Although this study aimed to provide theoretical and managerial implications by simultaneously testing the antecedents and consequences of OID and OCID, it has limitations, thus requiring cautious interpretation and further examination.

First, because this study aimed to provide a comprehensive

framework to test the antecedents and consequences of OID and OCID at the same time, the framework became too large to precisely grasp the paths among the 19 variables (17 variables collected by surveys and two variables by calculating employees' tenure). Future research could divide the paths into smaller sections to avoid any potential statistical suppression and to gain a more precise causal relationship among constructs related to OID and OCID. In addition, although this study employed path analysis to fully grasp the dynamics in the entire research framework, more participants (a larger sample) might be needed for a more effective analysis of the relationships among the constructs in the research framework and thus enhance the understanding of those dynamics.

Second, the data were collected from three organizations in Korea with a relatively high proportion of full-time employees, which do not necessarily represent the current workforce. The national culture might have also influenced the strong statistical results of collectivism, because Korea is known to have a collectivistic value system. Data could be collected from other organizations and from countries that have different value systems to enhance the results' generalizability.

Third, as mentioned, the statistical analysis indicates that the constructs extra-role and proactive behavior and voice behavior, which are measured by supervisors, have either weak or no significance. Thus, they should be further examined with supplementary questionnaires or replication to better understand the relationship. The question arises because the lack of

statistical influence on the constructs, which is rated by supervisors rather than employees unlike other measures, raises questions about the difference in the level of identification (either OID or OCID) between employees' beliefs about their identification and others' views of employees' identification (i.e., if employees believe they have high OID but the supervisor does not agree because they have a different standard for strong OID). One could also argue that employees with a so-called high level of OID do not necessarily display such strong OID in their behaviors. Additional samples and supplementary approaches should be utilized to better understand the current research framework's dynamics.

7.2. Conclusion

Employees who feel strongly connected to their employing organization typically perform better than others. Therefore, it is crucial for organizations to integrate their members to achieve positive performance, which will eventually boost their organizational reputation and long-term viability (Kazmi & Javaid, 2021).

Although the concepts of identifications are not new, the well-established identification OID needs to be revisited, and another identification, such as OCID, that has received less interest from scholars should be examined because identifications could still serve as key motivators that lead to employees' engagement with and attachment to organizations, thus improving organizational performance. This study aimed

to provide a sound understanding of OID and OCID and how they are affected by and affect organizations. The findings could help organizations effectively and efficiently develop employees' identifications and navigate them for the betterment of the workforce.

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조직동일시와 직업동일시의 형성요인 및 결과요인에 관한 연구

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정현선

급변하는 경영환경에서 조직은 생존 및 경쟁력 확보를 위해 끊임없는 노력을 필요로 한다. 빠른 속도로 변화하는 시장환경에 발맞춰 경쟁력을 확보하기 위해서는 조직구성원들의 자발적이고 적극적인 참여가 필수적이다. 조직과 조직구성원들의 관계는 조직동일시(organizational identification)를 통해 설명할 수 있다. 조직동일시는 조직구성원들이 소속된 조직과 심리적인 일체감을 인지하는 정도를 뜻한다. 선행연구에 의하면 조직동일시는 조직구성원의 조직 내 전반적인 태도와 행동에 긍정적인 영향을 주는 것으로 나타났다 (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bednar et al., 2020; Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards, 2005; He & Brown, 2013; Pratt, 1998; Riketta, 2005). 그러나 최근 들어 조직 내 조직동일시가 약화되어 가고 있어 이에 대한 연구가 필요하다는 주장이 제기되었다 (Ashforth, 2020; Lian et al., 2022). 이에 본 연구는 조직구성원 개개인이 각기 다른 동일시 대상을 가질 수 있다는 주장에 근거하여 (Vough, 2012) 조직구성원들의 조직동일시와 직업동일시(occupational identification)를 각각 측정하였으며, 선행요인과 결과요인을 사회정체성이론을 바탕으로 분석하였다. 분석내용은 다

음과 같다. 실증분석을 통해 조직동일시와 직업동일시에 대한 전반적인 이해를 증진하고, 각각의 형성요인들(집합주의, 개인주의, 조직의 외부인지도, 직업의 외부인지도, 인지된 내부인사이동 가능성, 인지된 이직가능성)을 비교하였다. 또한 각각의 동일시가 조직구성원의 조직 내 행동(변화준비성, 역할 외 행동, 적극적 행동, 잡 크래프팅 및 발언행동)에 미치는 영향을 분석하였다. 아울러 조직과 직업의 근속기간과 인지된 직업불안정성이 조직동일시와 직업동일시 형성에 미치는 조절효과를 분석하였다.

본 연구는 국내 기업 3곳에 대한 직원 설문조사를 통해 진행되었다. 설문은 조직구성원을 대상으로 한 두 번의 설문과 직속 상사를 대상으로 한 설문으로 구분하여 진행하였으며, 최종적으로 300명의 설문응답이 분석에 사용되었다. 경로분석을 활용하여 분석한 결과, 조직동일시와 직업동일시의 형성요인과 그 영향은 다른 양상을 보이고 있음이 확인되었다. 조직동일시 형성에는 집합주의와 조직의 외부인지도가 영향을 미쳤으며, 직업동일시 형성에는 집합주의, 개인주의 및 직업에 대한 외부인지도가 영향을 주는 것으로 분석되었다. 또한, 조직동일시의 경우, 변화준비성과 잡 크래프팅의 3가지 측면 중 인지크래프팅 및 관계크래프팅에 정(+)의 관계를 갖는 것으로 나타났다. 직업동일시의 경우에는 잡 크래프팅 3가지 측면(과업, 인지, 관계) 모두 정(+)의 관계를 보였으며, 그 외의 결과요인에는 영향이 없는 것으로 나타났다. 조직내부에서의 인사이동가능성, 이직가능성은 조직동일시 및 직업동일시 형성에 영향이 없는 것으로 나타났다. 또한 조직동일시는 역할 외 행동, 적극적 행동 및

촉진적 발언행동에 제한적이지만 정(+)의 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다. 반면 억제적 발언행동과 조직동일시 및 직업동일시의 관계는 유의미하지 않은 것으로 분석되었다. 상황요인으로 설정한 직원들의 조직근속기간, 직업근속기간 및 인지된 직업불안정성의 조절효과 역시 조직동일시 및 직업동일시 형성에 유의하지 않았다.

본 연구는 조직동일시와 직업동일시의 형성에 영향을 주는 선행요인과 조직동일시 및 직업동일시가 조직구성원들의 행동과 태도에 미치는 영향을 동시에 분석 및 비교함으로써 조직동일시와 직업동일시에 대한 포괄적인 검증을 시도했다는데 의의가 있다. 그러나 통합적인 연구모형의 통계검증 과정에서 밝혀지지 않은 경로가 존재할 가능성이 있기 때문에 향후 모형을 세분화하여 조직동일시와 직업동일시의 경로를 분석할 필요가 있다. 또한 조직동일시 및 직업동일시에 영향을 미칠 수 있는 추가 변수들도 고려해야 할 과제이다.

주요어: 조직동일시, 직업동일시, 사회정체성이론, 직원행동

학번: 2015-30157

Appendix I

List of Questionnaire Items

□ Survey: Employee (Time 1 and Time 2)

Collectivism (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998)

Triandis, H. C., & Gelfand, M. J. (1998). Converging measurement of horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(1), 118-128.

1. If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.
2. The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.
3. To me, pleasure is spending time with others.
4. I feel good when I cooperate with others.
5. Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.
6. It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.
7. Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.
8. It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.

Individualism (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998)

1. I'd rather depend on myself than others.
2. I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.
3. I often do "my own thing."
4. My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.
5. It is important that I do my job better than others.
6. Winning is everything.
7. Competition is the law of nature.
8. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.

Perceived Organizational Prestige

- *Perceived Organizational Prestige and Perceived Job Prestige*
Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 103-123.

1. People in my community think highly of (name of school).
2. It is considered prestigious in the religious community to be an alumnus of (name of school).
3. (Name of school) is considered one of the best (conference schools).
4. People from other (conference schools) look down at (name of school). (R)
5. Alumni of all (conference schools) would be proud to have their children attend (name of school).

6. (Name of school) does not have a good reputation in my community. (R)
7. A person seeking to advance his career in (conference academia) should downplay his association with (name of school). (R)
8. When other (conference schools) are recruiting new students, they would not want students from (name of school). (R)

Mobility Opportunity (Prince, 2003)

- Intraorganizational Mobility

Prince, J. B. (2003). Career opportunity and organizational attachment in a blue-collar unionized environment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63(1), 136-150.

Within the *next two years* I will have a chance to move to...

- 1) ... a *higher grade* job within the same job family.
- 2) ... a *higher grade* job within a different job family.
- 3) ... a similar job at the *same grade* in a different job family.
- 4) ... a similar job at the *same grade* in a different location or work area.
- 5) ... a different job at the *same grade* in a different job family.

Perceived Alternatives Job Opportunities (Price & Mueller, 1986)

- Interorganizational Mobility

Price, J. L. & Mueller, C.W. (1986) Absenteeism and Turnover among Hospital Employees. JAI Press, Greenwich.

1. If I quit my current job, the chances that I would be able to find another job which is as good as, or better than my present one is low.
2. If I have to leave this job, I would not have another job as good as this one within a little time
3. It would be not easy to find acceptable alternative employment.

Job Insecurity (De Witte, 2000; Rigotti et al., 2013 Vander Elst et al., 2014)

Vander Elst, T., De Witte, H., & De Cuyper, N. (2014). The Job Insecurity Scale: A psychometric evaluation across five European countries. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(3), 364-380.

1. Chances are, I will soon lose my job.
2. I am sure I can keep my job. (R)
3. I feel insecure about the future of my job.
4. I think I might lose my job in the near future.

Organizational Identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)

- Organizational Identification and Occupational Identification

Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of*

Organizational Behavior, 13(2), 103-123.

1. When someone criticize [name of school], it feels like a personal insult.
2. I am very interested in what others think about [name of school].
3. When I talk about this school, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.
4. This school's successes are my successes.
5. When someone praises this school, it feels like a personal compliment.
6. If a story in the media criticized the school, I would feel embarrassed.

Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale (Armenakis et al., 2007)

Armenakis, A. A., Bernerth, J. B., Pitts, J. P., & Walker, H. J. (2007). Organizational change recipients' beliefs scale: Development of an assessment instrument. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43(4), 481-505.

Discrepancy

1. We need to change the way we do some things in this organization.
2. We need to improve the way we operate in this organization.
3. We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations.
4. A change is needed to improve our operations.

Appropriateness

1. I believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on our operations.
2. The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization.
3. The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation.
4. When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization.
5. This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation.

Efficacy

1. I have the capability to implement the change that is initiated.
2. I can implement this change in my job.
3. I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change.
4. I believe we can successfully implement this change.
5. We have the capability to successfully implement this change.

Valence

1. This change will benefit me.
2. With this change in my job, I will experience more self-fulfillment.
3. I will earn higher pay from my job after this change.
4. The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment.

Principal Support

1. Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change.
2. The top leaders in this organization are “waling the talk.”
3. The top leaders support this change.
4. The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work.
5. My immediate manager is in favor of this change.
6. My immediate manager encourages me to support the change.

Job Crafting Questionnaire (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013)

Slemp, G. R., & Vella-Brodrick, D. A., (2013). The job crafting questionnaire: A new scale to measure the extent to which employees engage in job crafting. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 3(2), 126-146.

Task Crafting

1. Introduce new approaches to improve your work.
2. Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work.
3. Introduce new work tasks that you think better suit your skills or interests.
4. Choose to take on additional tasks at work.
5. Give preference to work tasks that suit your skills or interests.

Cognitive Crafting

6. Think about how your job gives your life purpose.
7. Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organization.
8. Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community.
9. Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life.
10. Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being.

Relational Crafting

11. Make an effort to get to know people well at work.
12. Organize or attend work related social functions.
13. Organize special events in the workplace.
14. Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially).
15. Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests.

□ Survey: Supervisor

Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Organizational (Lee & Allen, 2002)

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: the role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 131-142.

1. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
2. Express loyalty toward the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Keep up with developments in the organization.
5. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
6. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.
7. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
8. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.

Self-reported Initiative (Frese et al., 1997)

- Proactive Behavior

Frese, M., Fay, D., Hilburger, T., Leng, K., & Tag, A. (1997). The concept of personal initiative: Operationalization, reliability and validity in two German samples. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70(2), 139-161.

1. I actively attack problems.
2. Whenever something goes wrong, I search for a solution immediately.
3. Whenever there is a chance to get actively involved, I take it.
4. I take initiative immediately even when other don't.
5. I use opportunities quickly in order to attain my goals.
6. Usually I do more than I am asked to do.
7. I am particularly good at realizing ideas.

Promotive Voice (Liang et al., 2012)

Liang, J., Farh, C. I., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management journal*, 55(1), 71-92.

1. Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
2. Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.
3. Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.
4. Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
5. Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.

Prohibitive Voice (Liang et al., 2012)

Liang, J., Farh, C. I., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management journal*, 55(1), 71-92.

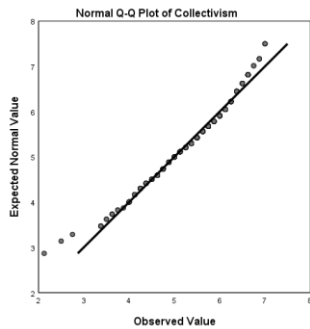
1. Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
2. Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting options exist.
3. Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.
4. Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.
5. Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.

Appendix II

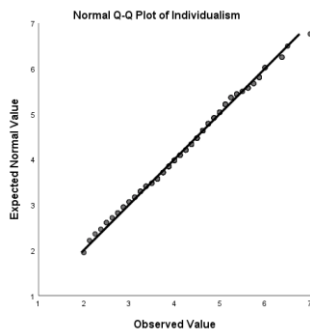
Figures of Q-Q Plots and Histograms

□ Figures of Q-Q Plots

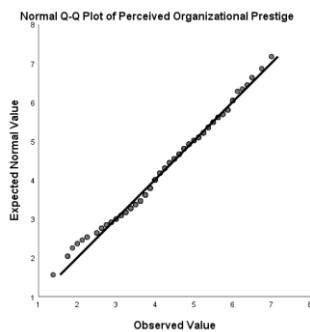
Q-Q Plot of Collectivism



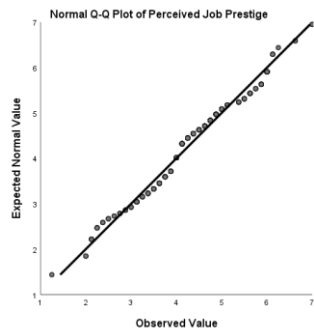
Q-Q Plot of Individualism



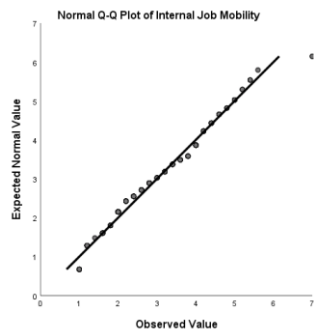
Q-Q Plot of Perceived Organizational Prestige



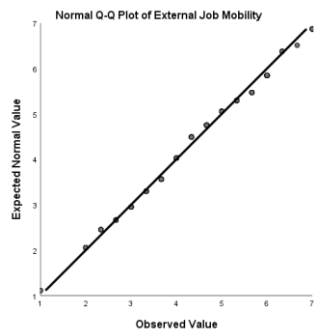
Q-Q Plot of Perceived Job Prestige



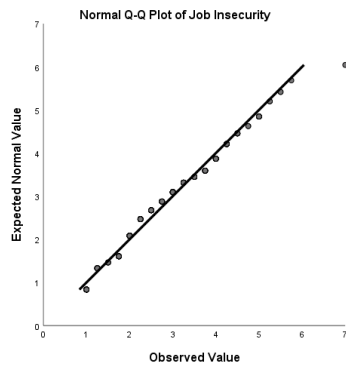
Q-Q Plot of Internal Job Mobility



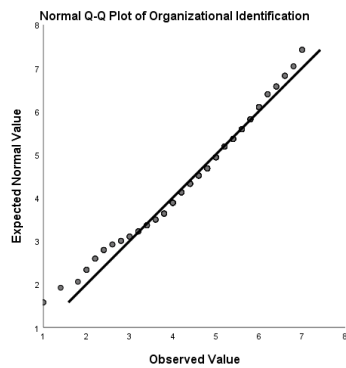
Q-Q Plot of External Job Mobility



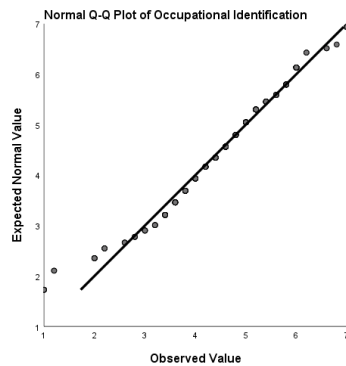
Q-Q Plot of Job Insecurity



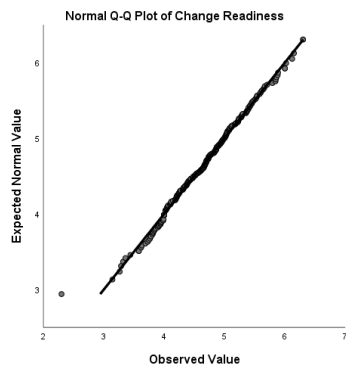
Q-Q Plot of Organizational Identification



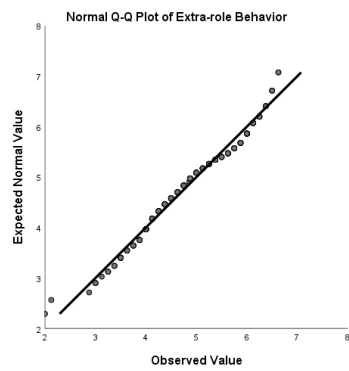
Q-Q Plot of Occupational Identification



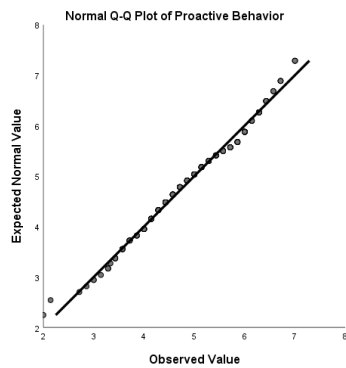
Q-Q Plot of Change Readiness



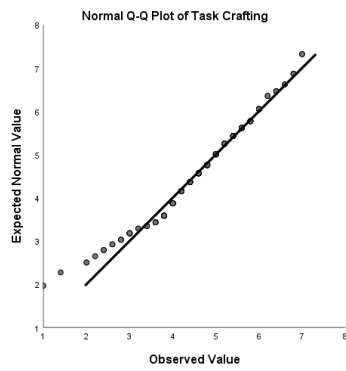
Q-Q Plot of Extra-role Behavior



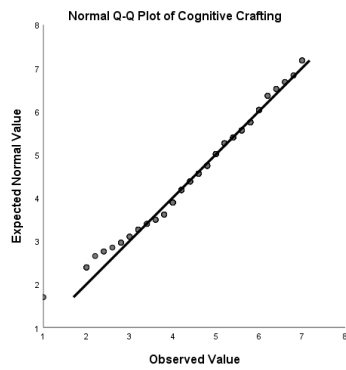
Q-Q Plot of Proactive Behavior



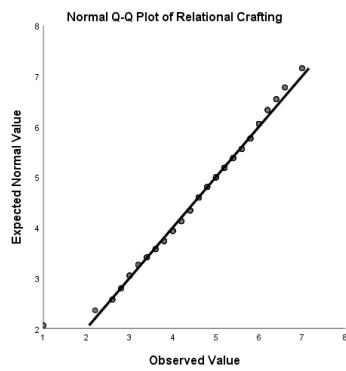
Q-Q Plot of Task Crafting



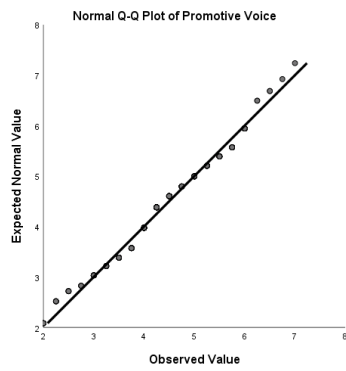
Q-Q Plot of Cognitive Crafting



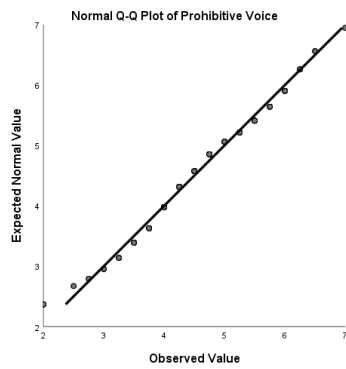
Q-Q Plot of Relational Crafting



Q-Q Plot of Promotive Voice

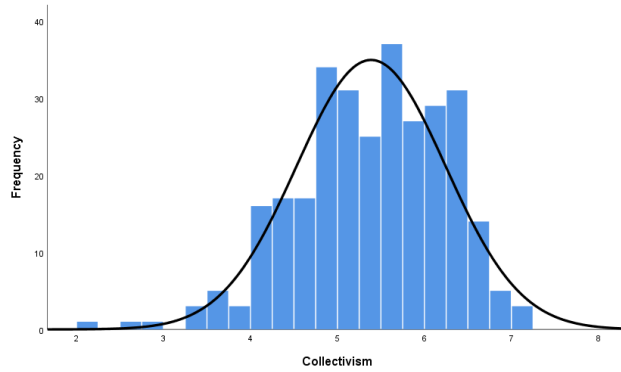


Q-Q Plot of Prohibitive Voice

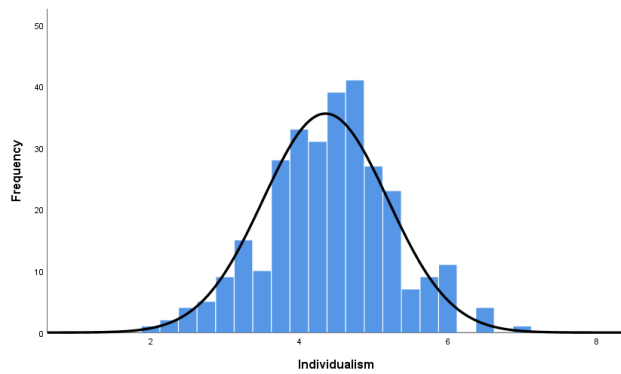


□ Figures of Histograms

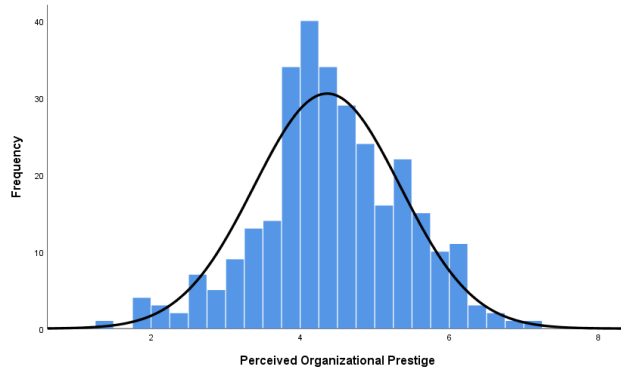
Histogram of Collectivism



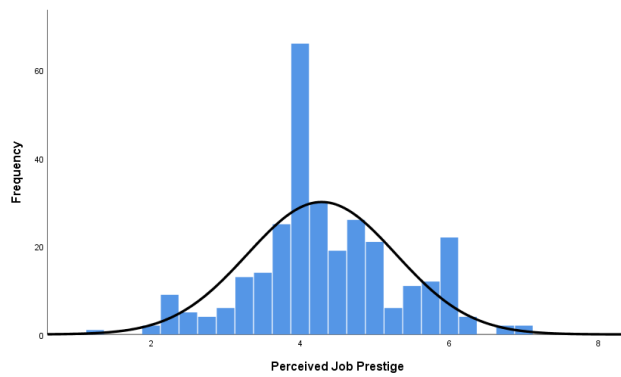
Histogram of Individualism



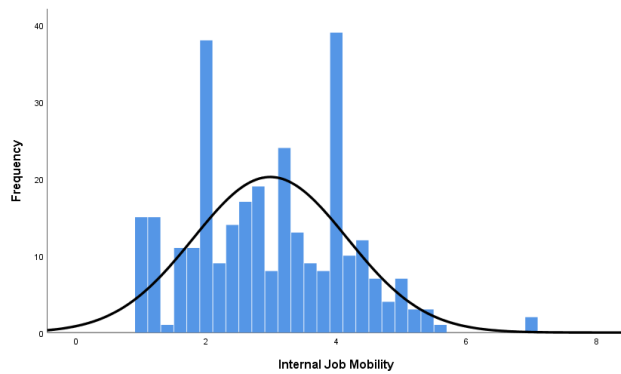
Histogram of Perceived Organizational Prestige



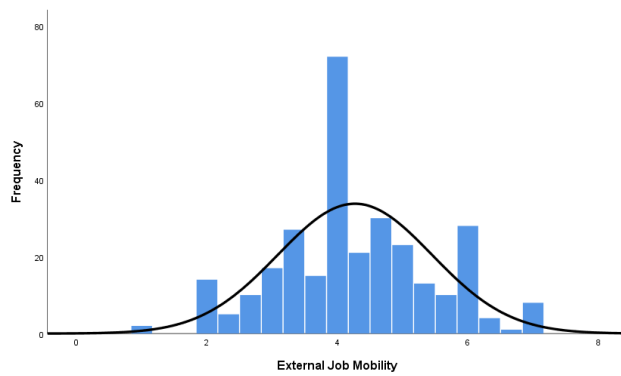
Histogram of Perceived Job Prestige



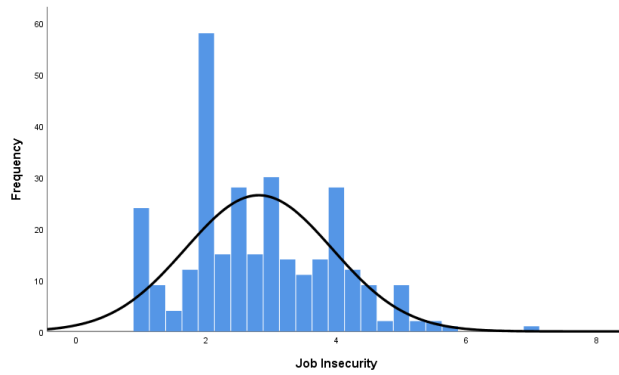
Histogram of Internal Job Mobility



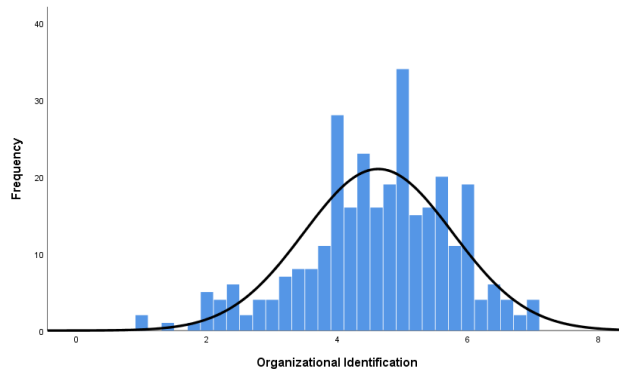
Histogram of External Job Mobility



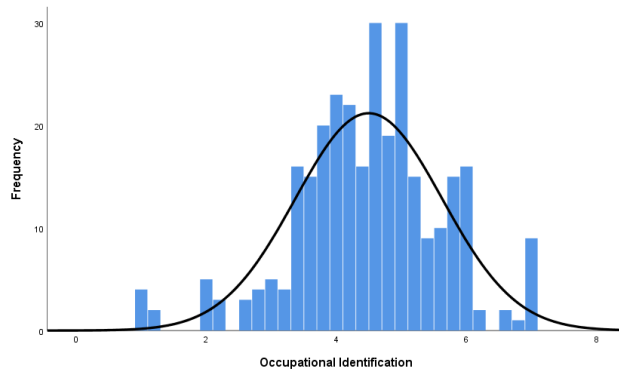
Histogram of Job Insecurity



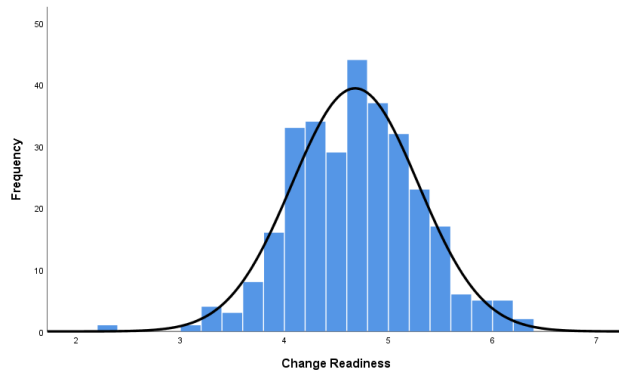
Histogram of Organizational Identification



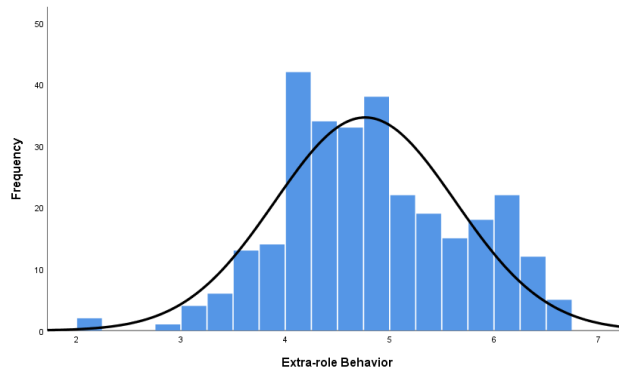
Histogram of Occupational Identification



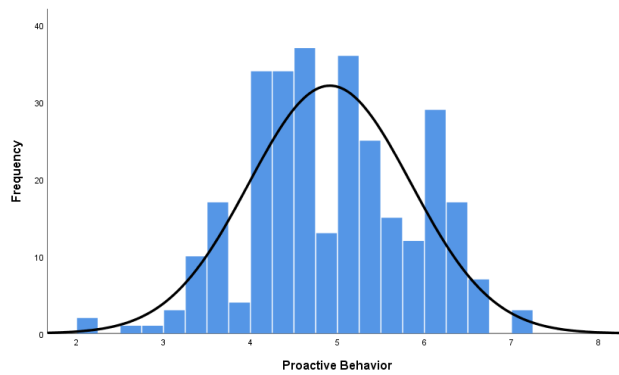
Histogram of Change Readiness



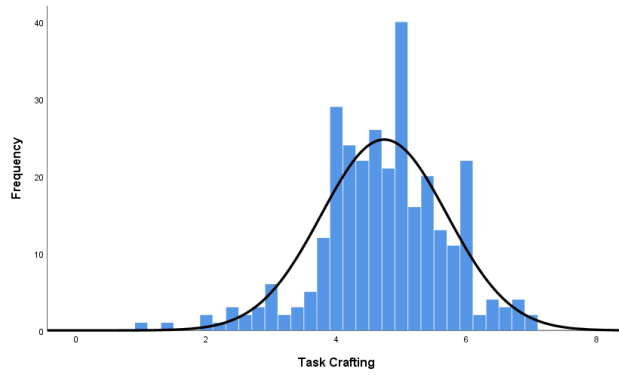
Histogram of Extra-role Behavior



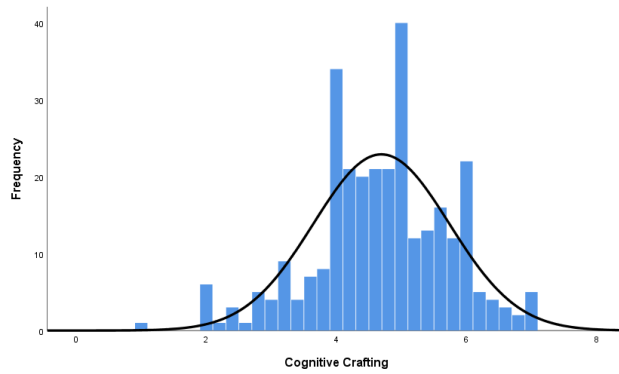
Histogram of Proactive Behavior



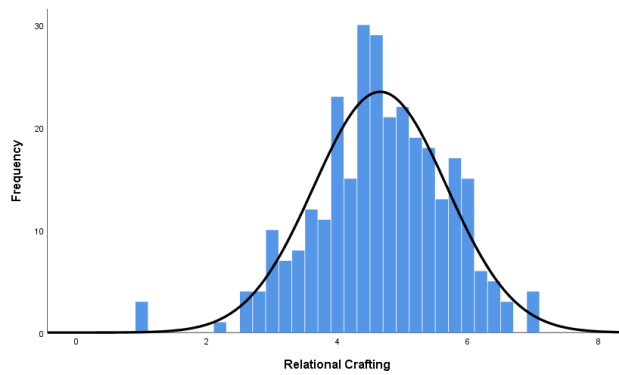
Histogram of Task Crafting



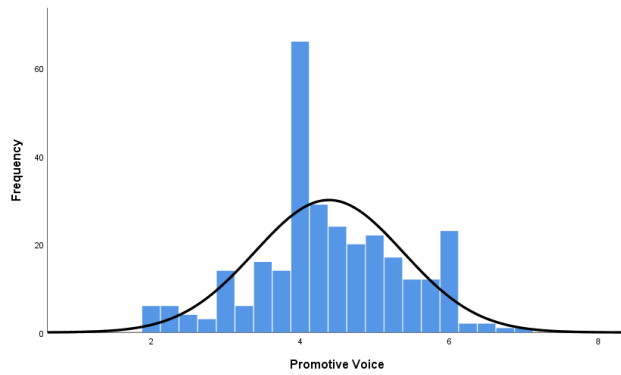
Histogram of Cognitive Crafting



Histogram of Relational Crafting



Histogram of Promotive Voice



Histogram of Prohibitive Voice

