THREE ESSAYS EXAMINING ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCES ON

EMPLOYEE IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION

by

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my brother, Manny Lamarre. Thank you for introducing me to the idea of a business PhD, financially supporting this goal several times over, and committing endless hours bouncing around ideas, listening to my theories, and editing my academic jargon. Importantly, thank you for being my #1 supporter throughout this journey. I am here because you were there.

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ABSTRACT

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Identity consists of the roles and expectations individuals use to define their self. My dissertation examines the effects of individual perceptions around how identities are constructed in organizations on employee outcomes, decisions, and experiences. In a three-essay format, I develop the construct of identity work supportive organizational support (IWSOP) and a scale to measure it, evaluate how IWSOP relates to affective commitment for employees, and examine whether IWSOP might affect job choice decisions. IWSOP is conceptualized as *the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to think about, talk about, or display aspects of their work and non-work related identities, or to engage in activities that foster understanding and sharing of their identities*. Collectively, the essays address one overarching research question, "*What happens when individuals believe an organization will support them in defining or affirming their identities*?" Essay 1 lays the foundation for studying IWSOP, creates a valid and reliable scale that provides

evidence of content and discriminant validity and ensures its psychometric properties, and demonstrates the impact of IWSOP on employee work outcomes. Essay 2 utilizes the measure of IWSOP developed in Essay 1 to examine associations between IWSOP and affective commitment and how authenticity and psychological safety mediate this relationship. I find empirical support for my hypotheses positioning living authentically at work and psychological safety as mediators between IWSOP and affective commitment. Finally, essay 3 uses an experimental design to examine how organizational support for identity work affects job seeker job choice-related outcomes. My findings provide evidence that organizational support for identity work is an important predictor of job seeker attraction to an organization. Together, these essays contribute to identity research by offering a novel lens for examining individual identity construction where the organization is believed to influence identity-related processes.

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Chapter 1: General Introduction

Identity is a broad concept that considers the various ways in which individuals define their self. Identities can be complex and multifaceted; consisting of many self-definitions based on personal attributes, group membership, or internalized roles (Stryker & Burke, 2000; Tajfel, 1982) that help answer the question "Who am I?". Essentially, the definitions and meanings an individual uses to describe themselves could be an example of identity. Further, identity is a dynamic and changing process created through interactions with self and others (Beech et al., 2008). While some scholars have used the terms 'identity' and 'self-concept' interchangeably (see Ramarajan, 2014), Owens and colleagues (2010) suggest identity is nested within the idea of 'self-concept' where self-concept is "the totality of a specific person's thoughts and feelings toward [their self] as an object of reflection" (p. 479). That is, people have many identities that together form their self-concept. Nonetheless, identity is believed to be a "root" construct (Albert et al., 2000:13) intertwined with almost all facets of the self (Alvesson et al., 2008). Generally, identity is comprised of both what you are and what you are not (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001), and research suggests the different identities people have can overlap across personal, professional, and collective sense-making processes (e.g., Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1982). Identity-related research streams have grown rapidly over the last decade. The growing body of identity research highlights a vast interest in identity-related processes (e.g., constructing identities, enacting identities) with researchers striving, over the last several decades, to understand how identities are created and maintained throughout one's life span. Specific to organizations, identity research has examined ideas ranging from how multiple identities affect work behaviors (Burke, 2003; Ramarajan, 2014) to identity's influence on work relationships, team effectiveness, and career decisions (Crary, 2017; Petriglieri, 2018; Smith,

2010). The various ways in which individuals define their selves and make meaning of the self in relation to others remains an important subject matter for researchers, as evidenced by a Business Source Complete database search for 'identity' across top management research journals including *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* and *Organization Science* producing over six thousand articles in the last decade alone.

The dynamism of identity is reflected in its nature as both a conscious and unconscious phenomenon that can be personally, socially, and/or collectively constructed (Kaplan & Garner, 2017; Schwartz et al., 2011). In the context of work, scholars contend there are various instances where individuals may construct, or work on, their identities while at work, such as when trying to assimilate to a new organization (Beyer & Hannah, 2002) or when adjusting to or transitioning between work roles (Ebaugh & Ebaugh, 1988; Ibarra, 1999; Pratt et al., 2006). For example, a new mother might avoid discussions of her mother role at work out of fear of being perceived as no longer committed to her work role, leading her to spend time thinking about her mother identity and the role it plays in her self-concept. Recently, there has been increased interest in understanding the cognitive and affective processes underlying identity development or construction in organizations. *Identity work*, which reflects the process of crafting one's self-identity, investigates the underlying identity construction process occurring within the workplace (Snow & Anderson, 1987; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003).

Early definitions of identity work describe the concept as "forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening or revising the constructions that are productive of a precarious sense of coherence and distinctiveness" (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002: p. 626; Sveningsson & Alvesson,

2003: p. 631). The definition offered by Alvesson and colleagues (2002) was based on Snow and Anderson's (1987) earlier conceptualization of identity work as "…the range of activities individuals engage in to create, present, and sustain personal identities that are congruent with & supportive of the self-concept" (p. 1348). While Snow and Anderson (1987) focused on identity construction, Alvesson and Willmott (2002) concentrated on identity regulation and its relationship to identity work. Although several definitions of identity work are offered in the literature, this dissertation is grounded in the comprehensive definition presented by Caza, Vough, and Puranik (2018) based on the work of earlier scholars.

Caza and her colleagues define identity work as "…the cognitive, discursive, physical, and behavioral activities that individuals undertake with the goal of forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening, revising, or rejecting collective, role, and personal self-meanings within the boundaries of their social contexts" (p. 895). In other words, individuals use thoughts, words, symbols, and/or actions – separately or in tandem – to create and affirm self-definitions when faced with identity-defining experiences. For instance, a study of junior architect professionals found these individuals engaged in identity work to make sense of, and establish, their professional identities when faced with the tension between their training and experiences (Ahuja et al., 2019). Broadly, identity work considers individual efforts to create an interpretation of one's self as compared to others (Wright et al., 2012). Undeniably, organizations and the various interactions embedded within employee work functions will generate endless events and experiences which prompt employees to engage in identity work.

In the organizational setting, individuals can engage in identity work to affirm varying types of identities such as collective, role, or personal identities. *Collective identities* are those that help the individual define themselves in relation to others with shared interests or

experiences (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Taylor & Whittier, 1992). They can derive from work and team roles or membership in or identification with an organization. For instance, women working in tech industries, a traditionally male-dominated field, could be an example of a collective identity. *Role identities* reflect the specific roles used by the individual to define the self (Stryker, 1980). Role identity is defined as a "shared, socially recognized, and defined by action…dimension of self" that is created by both the individual and social structures (Callero, 1985, p. 204). In the work context, examples of role identities might include leader or entrepreneur roles. Lastly, *personal identities* are "self-descriptions drawn from one's own biography and… experiences" (Owens et al., 2010, p. 479). Personal identities can include demographic characteristics (e.g., race, gender), cultural or ethnic characteristics (e.g., an immigrant), or self attributes. Regardless of the type of identity being affirmed, the workplace has become a venue for activities that help to construct and/or affirm individual identities. Thus, the organization becomes a catalyst for identity construction such that work environments play a role in shaping underlying identity processes.

Kreiner, Hollensbe, and Sheep's (2006) model of identity work suggests individuals will seek optimal balance when threatened by tensions between their personal identity (e.g., unique self-meanings that showcase individuality) and social identity (e.g., community-based self-meanings). Thus, negative or positive signaling events may prompt identity negotiations in which an individual is conflicted by multiple identities (Bataille & Vough, 2020; Caza et al., 2018). When multiple identities are present, individuals may feel one identity is suppressed by another. This can lead to negotiations regarding which identity will rise as most salient (Ramarajan, 2014). Using two qualitative studies, researchers found Episcopal priests engaged in identity work to negotiate a balance between their personal and social identities (Kreiner et al.,

2006). Examining the process of identity negotiation to explain how individuals managed social pressures placed on their collective identities, the authors noted that identity work occurs when identity tensions and demands on identity between multiple roles create a need to resolve tensions and find balance (Kreiner et al., 2006). Therefore, identity negotiation is highlighted as a prerequisite of identity work.

Prior research suggests identity work is grounded in several overarching theoretical perspectives: social identity theory, identity theory, narrative theory, and critical theory (Caza et al., 2018). Social identity theory posits that identity is the understanding of self in relation to collective others, and as such emphasizes the various collective roles that makeup one's identity and highlights group processes and relationships (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Social identity theory suggests group membership or association can provide a self-definition for individual members of a group. Identity work based on social identity theory considers how identity work emerges to strengthen belongingness or distinctiveness (Alvesson, 2000; Caza et al., 2018). Identity theory scholars consider identity as the negotiation of roles and subsequent expectations of these roles (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). The theory suggests identity is connected to an individual's personal roles and there is a salience hierarchy among the different work and personal roles individuals occupy (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). Salience hierarchy orders identities in terms of how important the identity is to the selected concept. Identity work based on identity theory suggests individuals engage in identity work by aligning role-related perceptions and expectations (Knapp et al., 2013). Narrative theory highlights an individual's need for crafting a coherent story of self (Bruner, 1991) and posits that identity is a sense-making process that occurs through storytelling (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). According to narrative theory, identity is a storytelling process concerned with using stories to create, revise, or strengthen identity (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010).

Identity work based on narrative theory happens when individuals engage in narrative storytelling to confirm and revise identity scripts (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Watson, 2009). Identity scripts involve the iterative process individuals engage in to explore plausible or potential scripts that help to resolve conflict across identities (Bévort & Suddaby, 2016; see also Barley & Tolbert, 1997). Finally, critical theory examines how dominant identity narratives espoused by institutions are contested by organization members (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Foucault, 1980; Kärreman & Alvesson, 2004). The push back against institutions dictating definitions of self can create power struggles that result in identity work. For example, identity work based on critical theory focuses on collective identities (Caza et al., 2018) and challenges attempts by the institution to question or revise existing identity scripts (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). While these four perspectives contribute to what is theoretically known about identity work, this dissertation specifically relies on identity theory and social identity theory because of the emphasis placed on group processes (i.e., social identity theory) and alignment of role-related expectations (i.e., identity theory). Further, while identity has been examined in a variety of contexts, this dissertation does not seek to summarize all aspects of the identity concept. Instead, I examine how employee perceptions around organizational support for identity work influence individual and work outcomes.

Vast research to date has addressed how, when, and why identity work occurs in organizations (see summary in Brown, 2015; Caza et al., 2018); however, little research investigates the organization's role in supporting employee identity work by facilitating identity-related activities. As past literature extensively examines individual predictors (e.g., identity threats, organizational change, work transitions) of identity work and individual and organizational level outcomes (e.g., role reconciliation, affirming identities, increasing

performance, shifting organizational strategy) of identity work (Caza et al., 2018), this dissertation pivots to consider how employee perceptions of the organization's support of identity-related activities relate to work outcomes. Thus, this dissertation explores employee perceptions of the role organizations play in allowing space and opportunity for identity work activities, a research area that is currently underexplored.

The three essays in this dissertation contribute to the growing identity work literature by providing a novel lens for future investigations of identity work activities in organizations and highlighting a unique type of organizational support, namely support for identity work, that may exist in the workplace. Specifically, the present research bridges two streams of literature to primarily contribute to identity work literature and, secondarily, to organizational support literature. First, the present research surveys existing literature to identify how experiences of identity work operate in organizations. While current identity work literature highlights organizational influences related to identity regulation (e.g., Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Costas & Kärreman, 2016), the present work extends this literature by evaluating perceptions and experiences of organizational influences that support identity construction among employees. The research answers the call to tackle empirical research that might "…enlarge and refine our understanding of identities and identity work and the process of organizing in which they are implicated" (Brown, 2014, pg. 28). An understanding of the implications of identity work is needed to strengthen knowledge in this arena. Indeed, showing support for engaging in identity work at work has implications for both the individual and the organization. My research begins to uncover implications of identity work in organizations not previously explored by prior research, such as how individuals perceive actions by the organization that support identity construction processes that occur in the work context. Through this investigation of support for

identity work, my dissertation also directly addresses prior scholars' questions about how organizations facilitate, enable, or impede employee's identity work (Anteby, 2008, Ashforth & Pratt, 2003, Brown, 2014).

In addition to the contributions to identity work literature, my dissertation extends organizational support research by parsing implications for a specific type of support, identity work support. As seen in prior research, there are various ways in which organizations can show employees that their well-being is valued through organizational support (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Support for identity work is one specific approach that conveys the organization cares for its employees as individuals. The present research adds to the robust exploration of perceived organizational support by identifying support for identity work as an additional employee experience impacting work outcomes such as affective commitment.

In this research, I argue organizations influence identity work activities through their support or hindrance of identity-related activities. In three essays, I consider how employee experiences, work outcomes, and job choice intentions are influenced by perceived support for identity work by the organization. First, I conceptualize and define identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP) as *the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to think about, talk about, or display aspects of their work and non-work related identities, or to engage in activities that foster understanding and sharing of their identities*. Next, I examine how such perceptions impact work outcomes.

Organizations foster IWSOP in four unique ways: reflectional, conversational, observable, and kinesthetic. Reflectional IWSOP is defined as *the perception that one may think about and contemplate their identities in the workplace.* An example of an activity that might

lead an employee to report higher reflectional IWSOP could be an employee training program that includes a self-assessment of personal values and future goals where employees are encouraged to think about who they are and who they want to become. Conversational IWSOP is *the perception that one may talk about their identities with others in the workplace.* An example of activities promoting conversational IWSOP could be a team meeting where employees are encouraged to converse with one another to share their personal backgrounds and how this shaped what matters to them. Observable IWSOP is *the perception that one may display aspects of their identity in the workplace.* For instance, an employee may report higher observable IWSOP if they are allowed to display objects or photos in their workspace that showcase who they are. Kinesthetic IWSOP is defined as *the perception that one may perform actions that foster understanding and/or expression of their identities in the workplace.* Higher kinesthetic IWSOP may be reported by employees who are encouraged to participate in identity-defining activities (e.g., attending a women's conference). Essentially, IWSOP reflects an individual's belief that their organization affords them opportunities to engage in identity work while at work.

I suggest support for identity work need not explicitly declare support for a specific employee identity. Instead, the organization may provide the opportunity for employees to think about, talk about, display, or engage in actions that encourage several different identities. IWSOP may surface from actions (or inaction) that occur at the organizational, team, and/or individual (e.g., supervisor, coworker) level (Cain et al., 2019; Creed et al., 2017; Golant et al., 2015). IWSOP may be a function of organizational policies, top management practices, organizational culture, or organizational training policies. IWSOP may also be a function of team or department reward systems, within-team performance management practices, team norms, or

department rules. IWSOP may also be a function of individual relationships, performance feedback, or coaching or mentoring feedback.

IWSOP may reflect how employees interpret and perceive the policies that are enforced, the organizational culture that is promoted, new hire practices that socialize new entrants to the organization, and the actions and behaviors of top management. First, organizational policies may be interpreted as supportive of identity work activities as they generally dictate rules of conduct for the workplace and may specify sanctionable behaviors (Ruiz-Palomino & Martinez-Cañas, 2011; Six & Sorge, 2008). For instance, organizations may have policies regarding public image that specify acceptable employee behaviors and related consequences for employees who publicly disparage the organization's name. Specific to IWSOP, organizations that retain policies that limit an employee from activating desired identities may be viewed as less supportive of identity work activities. For instance, company policies regarding professionalism may keep employees from expressing identities commonly shown through appearances, such as religious identities (e.g., Muslim women wearing a hijab) or ethnic identities (e.g., Black women wearing their natural hair). Similarly, organizational cultures, which further demonstrate what is valued by organizations, may also create boundaries around the extent to which an employee can deviate from the established culture. Organizations that support identity work, however, may relay what the current organizational culture is but allow space for employees to question their own role within the culture. For instance, learning organizations, or organizations that encourage learning and development, may be uniquely primed to support identity work because such cultures are characterized by dialogue and inquiry where employees are encouraged to question existing norms and provide feedback (Watkins & Marsick, 1996; Watkins & Kim, 2018).

Team level variables may also be associated with IWSOP. That is, departmental-level rules and rewards, team norms, and team-level performance management practices may relate to IWSOP. Informal departmental rules that specify what employee behaviors are deemed appropriate and that suggest what behaviors and actions are rewarded or punished may relate to IWSOP. For instance, an employee publicly recognized for working long hours and prioritizing work may lead other team members to believe devotion to professional identities is valued and rewarded by the organization. Thus, an employee with a salient parent identity may question the responsibilities associated with their professional and parent identities and engage in identity work to determine whether the two can be compatible on a team that values long hours. Similarly, departmental celebrations may also showcase support for employee identity work. For instance, a department-wide celebration of culture that encourages employees to teach team members about their culture may trigger identity work when employees consider how to best share their culture with others on the team. Such identity work may trigger positive perceptions of the department supporting identity work through discourse (e.g., teaching others about culture) or behaviors (e.g., participation in activity celebrating culture).

Individual-level support for identity work may come from members of the organization such as supervisors or coworkers. As employees receive feedback that indicates their standing within the organization, comments from supervisors, mentors, and peers can curb behaviors deemed inappropriate and encourage those that are celebrated by the organization (Ilgen et al., 1979). For instance, an employee who receives positive feedback from colleagues or supervisors after hanging symbols of pride in their office as a member of the LGBTQ community may receive this response as support for identity work as they continue to affirm their collective identity via physical displays of their group membership. Additionally, an employee who is a

new parent may grapple with the overlap of worker and parent roles; however, positive parenting conversations with other members of the organization may trigger identity work where the employee is able to revise or affirm the parental identity. Such interactions may increase employee perceptions of support for identity work. Table 1.1 summarizes examples of how variables across all three levels can create IWSOP amongst employees.

This dissertation examines how employee perceptions around identity work supportive organizations impact work-related attitudes and behaviors among current and prospective organization members. The three essays explore related research ideas regarding the extent to which perceptions of identity work support from organizations relate to work outcomes (Essays 1 and 2) and job choice attitudes and intentions (Essay 3). Specifically, in these three essays, I develop the construct of IWSOP and a scale to measure it, evaluate how IWSOP relates to affective commitment for employees, and examine whether IWSOP might affect job choice decisions. The essays address the overarching research question, *"What happens when individuals believe an organization will support them in defining or affirming their identities?"* Essay 1, "Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions: Development and Validation of a Scale for Assessing Organizational Support for Identity Work," lays the foundation for studying IWSOP. I use five independent samples of working professionals to 1) introduce IWSOP as a new construct, 2) create a valid and reliable scale that provides evidence of content and discriminant validity and to ensure its psychometric properties, and 3) demonstrate the impact of IWSOP on employee work outcomes. Essay 2, "The Relationship Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions, Authenticity, Psychological Safety, and Affective Commitment," utilizes the measure of IWSOP developed in Essay 1 to examine associations between IWSOP and affective commitment and how authenticity and psychological safety

mediate this relationship. While essay 1 identifies IWSOP as a predictor of affective commitment, Essay 2 presents authenticity and psychological safety as explanatory mechanisms for how IWSOP relates to affective commitment. I further consider the extent to which these mediated effects may be contingent on individual differences. I collected survey data from 265 full-time workers to answer the research questions, *"What are the effects of identity work supportive organizational perceptions on authenticity, psychological safety, and affective commitment?"* and *"To what extent are these relationships contingent on individual characteristics such as future work self salience and self-esteem?"* Future work self is important to consider because it captures the relationship between present and future selves and represents a kind of identity work where the individual constructs their future hoped-for self-definition. Similarly, self-esteem recognizes an awareness of and confidence in one's self-identity. Thus, it is important to consider whether support for identity work remains important to work outcomes in this context. Lastly, Essay 3, "The Relationship Between Organizational Support for Identity Work and Job Choice-Related Outcomes at Different Career Stages," uses an experimental design to examine how IWSOP, the composition of a job seeker's identity network, and career stages might relate to job choice. I argue organizations play a critical role in advancing identity-related processes through their support or hindrance of identity work activities. Further, I suggest that providing a space where employees can comfortably engage in identity work could be useful for attracting and retaining employees who value such self-explorations. In this study, I use a sample of 197 job-seeking individuals to investigate whether the relationship between IWSOP, identity network composition, and job choice is contingent on the job seeker's career stage. I use video vignettes designed as company review videos to determine the extent to which IWSOP might relate to job choice. In Essay 3, I hypothesize employees may show greater attraction to

organizations that show support for identity-related activities and processes. For instance, organizations that implement programs that support employees' family identities by providing dependent care assistance may be more attractive to job seekers with salient caregiver identities (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Indeed, research around diversity and inclusion suggests people are attracted to and choose organizations that value the expression of identities and signal a positive diversity climate. For instance, a study of early career job seekers found candidates were more likely to pursue job opportunities with organizations where they perceive a positive diversity climate because of the signals that their own salient identities might be affirmed (Avery et al., 2013). The research questions for Essay 3 are, "*How might organizational support for identity work affect organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions?*" and *"To what extent is the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes contingent on the job seeker's identity network composition or career stage?"* In short, in this dissertation, I offer insights into how perceptions of organizational influences on identity construction relate to employee and job seeker attitudes and behavioral intentions.

Together, these essays contribute to identity research by offering a novel lens for examining identity work where the organization is believed to positively influence identity-related processes. In these three essays, I propose an alternative approach to considering organizational influences on identity construction, in contrast to regulation strategies identified in current identity literature (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). The rapid growth of the identity research stream within the last two decades presents several implications for IWSOP and future research and highlights the contributions of this dissertation. In their prominent summary of the importance of understanding identity and how it is constructed, Albert and colleagues (2000) note "…it is because identity is problematic – and yet so crucial to how and what one values,

thinks, feels and does in all social domains, including organizations – that the dynamics of identity need to be better understood" (p. 14). In short, the proliferation of interest underscores the necessity of this dissertation research.

Table 1.1

Antecedents of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions

Type of identity		Organizational level variables	Team level variables	Individual level variables
Collective Identity	Religion related	Flexible work policies: organization policies that allow flexible lunch schedules for employees observing Ramadan, an event which requires members to fast for extended periods.	Recognition of religious observances: department avoids setting mandatory meetings during religious holidays (e.g., Eid al-Adha (Islamic), Rosh Hashanah (Jewish), Krishna Janmashtami (Hindu), Good Friday (Christian).	Individual religious expression: supervisors encourage employees to discuss religious customs with colleagues and share meaning of practices.
Collective Identity	Community related	Volunteering flexibility: organizational wide paid time off offered for employees to volunteer in the community.	Volunteer: department/team members choose an organization and/or cause to volunteer together as a team.	Volunteer advocate: supervisor encourages employee to display community volunteer flier in workspace.
Personal Identity	Culture related	Dress restrictions: reversal of organizational dress policies (e.g., hair policies, hijab wearing).	Team demonstrations: department wide celebration of culture programming that encourages employees to teach team members about their culture through food/activity team builder.	Self-expression: employees supported in leading culture conversations with supervisor or workers.
Personal Identity	Gender related	Top management support: Encouragement from CEO to use preferred pronoun declarations on email signature.	Specialized workgroups: sponsoring women in leadership groups to support women employees in their career development.	Leader support: supervisors encourage employee to display safe space symbols that showcase gender expression.
Role Identity	Family related	Inclusive benefit structures: offering day-care options for employees with children.	Opportunities for inclusion: inviting spouses to participate in team social activities and celebrations.	Individual considerations: supervisor allowing employee to set up a crib in office to support new parental role.
Role Identity	Work-role related	Training offerings: revising new leader orientations to include a self-assessment development workshop for managers and leaders to explore their strengths, skills, and values.	Sponsoring learning opportunities: department offering reimbursement for a certification or professional development activity to develop occupational expertise.	Development opportunities: offering a military or ex-military support program for veterans re-entering civilian life as a professional.

IDENTITY WORK SUPPORTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS: DEVELOPMENT

AND VALIDATION OF A SCALE FOR ASSESSING ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT FOR

IDENTITY WORK

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Chapter 2: Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions: Development and Validation of a Scale for Assessing Organizational Support for Identity Work

Abstract

Every day, people at work perform internal (i.e., thoughts) and external (i.e., behaviors) activities that repair, strengthen, or revise their identities. Despite organizations being the main stage on which this identity work occurs, and a major contextual element invoking identity work, scholars still lack a comprehensive understanding of employees' beliefs about their organizations' support for identity work. In this research, we conceptualize the construct of identity work-supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP), defined as the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to engage in reflectional, conversational, kinesthetic, or observable identity work, and develop a scale to measure it using seven samples (two samples of subject matter experts and five empirical samples). We demonstrate reliability, content validity, and convergent and discriminant validity with constructs in IWSOP's nomological network, as well as IWSOP's incremental predictive ability of employee outcomes. Implications of our findings for managers and researchers are discussed.

Keywords: identity, identity work, organizational support, measurement, scale, validity

Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions: Development and Validation of a Scale for Assessing Organizational Support for Identity Work

The prominence of identity research in recent decades has sparked interest in the concept of identity work, defined as activities in which people engage in "forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening, or revising" their self-meanings (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002: 626). Identity work involves a wide variety of activities (Brown, 2015), such as affirming or strengthening an established identity, making sense of an emerging identity, or reconstructing an existing identity (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Kreiner et al., 2006; Petriglieri, 2011). It ensues across an array of organizational phases and experiences. For example, identity work occurs during work-related transitions as people enter new professional roles (Ibarra, 1999) or organizations (Beyer & Hanna, 2002), or leave a position (Ebaugh, 1988). Identity work may also occur in response to identity threats such as workplace bullying or stigmatization (Collinson, 2003; Kaufman & Johnson, 2004; Lutgen-Sandvick, 2008; Petriglieri, 2011). Even under the mundane conditions of everyday work life, identity work occurs.

Explicit references to organizations as 'identity workspaces' (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010) or 'meaning arenas' (Westenholz, 2006) suggest organizational context may be integral to employees' identity work (Anteby, 2008; Ashforth & Pratt, 2003; Brown, 2015; Kreiner & Sheep, 2009). As such, scholars have called for a better understanding of the various ways in which contexts, such as that of the organization, may influence identity work that occurs in the workplace (Brown, 2015). Research has found that organizations sometimes regulate identity work by compelling employees to prioritize identities that serve the organizations' interests (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002) – for example, by enforcing a dress code that organizations feel best represents a "professional image" in client-facing roles. As a result of regulated identity work, employees may assimilate to the dominant organizational culture with positive, negative,

or neutral implications for the individual employee.

We argue that organizations might also adopt a more supportive approach, encouraging employees to engage in identity work across a broad range of work and nonwork identities with the organization's backing. For example, organizations may provide opportunities for employees to launch and lead philanthropic initiatives that benefit communities they value, embed self-reflection about employee values in a performance review, sponsor events that address identity-relevant topics (i.e., a presentation on women's careers during Women's History Month), provide tuition assistance for employees to take classes or earn degrees that strengthen work-related identities, or sponsor employee resource groups (ERGs) where employees with specific identities (i.e., parents, marathon runners, Latinx employees) and their allies can engage with one another and discuss meaningful shared and divergent identity-relevant experiences. When organizations adopt a more supportive approach, their employees may feel increased authenticity, which is linked to more positive employee outcomes (Hewlin et al., 2020; Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012), such as increased engagement, job satisfaction, performance, and retention (e.g., Cable et al., 2013; Martinzez et al., 2017; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014).

As such, one of the goals of the current paper is to lay the conceptual foundation for studying identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP), which we define as *the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to think about, talk about, or display aspects of their work and non-work related identities, or to engage in activities that foster understanding and sharing of their identities.* The second goal of the current research is to create a reliable and valid scale to measure employees' IWSOP. We subject our scale to substantial scrutiny to ensure its favorable psychometric

properties and provide evidence of content and discriminant validity. Finally, we show its incremental predictive validity over and above other perceptions of the work environment (perceived organizational support, perceived psychological safety climate, psychological climate of authenticity, and psychological diversity climate) and from core self-evaluations. The creation of this measure will allow investigation of the role an organization plays in employees' identity work and enable the replication of findings across participants, organizations, industries, and cultures.

Next, we conceptualize identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP), clarify its dimensions, and distinguish it from other related constructs (perceived psychological safety climate, psychological climate of authenticity, psychological diversity climate, and perceived organizational support). Per Hinkin (1998), we develop and validate an IWSOP scale with two samples of subject-matter experts and five samples of survey respondents. Across samples, we examine the psychometric properties and factor structure of our IWSOP scale and explore its nomological network. We conclude with avenues for future research using our scale.

Identity Work to Identity Work-Supportive Organizational Perceptions

The first step in scale development is defining the construct and identifying its boundaries (Hinkin, 1998). We suggest that organizations' contexts can support shaping, restoring, reinforcing, and revising employee identities in the workplace (identity work). To understand how an organization can support identity work, it is essential to understand what identity work is, what it looks like, and how it is done. Thus, we first define and provide examples of identity work before discussing how employees may perceive their organizations as supporting these activities.

Broadly, identity work is the forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening, or revising

of identities. Identity work generally happens through cognitive, discursive, physical, or behavioral means (Caza et al., 2018). Cognitive identity work is defined as "mental efforts to construe, interpret, understand, and evaluate an identity" (Killian & Johnson, 2006; Caza et al., 2018). When employees perform cognitive identity work, they are self-reflective and self-questioning (Beech et al., 2008; Fletcher & Watson, 2007). For example, as senior leaders strategize on the future of their organizations, they may have mental fantasies in which they claim, contest, or negotiate with themselves to identify with or to an aspirational elite group (MacIntosh & Beech, 2011). Imagine the developers of an ad-free social media application whose leaders think of themselves as the next Mark Zuckerberg and Eduardo Saverin – but better. These fantastical thoughts are their effort to form a future identity they aspire to attain.

Discursive identity work occurs verbally through narratives, stories, dialogue, and conversation (Caza et al., 2018; Allen, 2005). People without housing may engage in discursive identity work by speaking in ways that distance them from their identity as an unhoused person. For example, a person who has only been without a home for several weeks may say that, because they are so 'new' to being without a home, they are not like 'the other guys' who have been unhoused for long periods (Snow & Anderson, 1987). In this case, this person uses language to differentiate themself from a stigmatized group (the unhoused) with which they disidentify, revising their identity to experience greater dignity and self-worth.

Physical identity work occurs when people use their bodies or objects around them to align and/or strengthen the impressions of others with their desired self-meaning. For example, employees may decorate their offices with photos, posters, or desk accessories that depict their non-work interests, hobbies, or values. Décor choices could include a wide array of displays such as collegiate or professional sports memorabilia, clippings of satirical political cartoons, printed

memes, thank you cards, mugs with witty sayings, and photos with family, friends, or pets, among many others. Research suggests that observers may interpret these physical identity markers as indicators of status, abilities, and ideals with potentially meaningful implications (e.g., Elsbach, 2004). For example, a dad may put photos of his newborn on his desk. This act strengthens his identity as a father and subsequently, his peers may even start to view him as more leaderlike (e.g., Morgenroth et al., 2021).

Finally, behavioral identity work involves actions that strengthen or revise one's identity (Caza et al., 2018). Though research on the practice of religious identities in secular workplaces is scant (Gebert et al., 2014), some employees engage in public and private acts of prayer at work, enacting behavioral identity work in the process. Envision coworkers engaged in light-hearted discussion at the onset of a company lunch-and-learn. As one employee pauses, bows, and blesses her food before taking a bite and rejoining the table talk, she maintains her religious identity via the practice of prayer, exemplifying behavioral identity work.

In summary, employees may engage in various types of identity work during work hours which are pertinent to both work and nonwork identities. Yet, the only literature that explicitly considers the organization's role in identity work examines identity regulation, where organizations encourage employees to constrain or expose their identities to foster homogeneity in the organization (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). In these contexts, the organization is neither supportive nor unsupportive of identity work in general. Instead, the organization seeks to foster a widely shared organizational identity among employees throughout the organization. As such, the organization's role in supporting employees' identity work in general as it pertains to a multitude of work and nonwork identities remains poorly understood.

To advance our understanding of the organization's role in fostering employees' identity

work, we argue that employees may perceive an organization as more or less supportive of identity work depending on the extent to which it encourages identity-related activities in the workplace. In doing so, we define IWSOP as *the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to think about, talk about, or display aspects of their identities or engage in activities that foster understanding and sharing of their identities.*

Characteristics of IWSOP. Most theoretical constructs are complex and multidimensional (Yaniv, 2011), and IWSOP is no exception. We argue that organizations can foster IWSOP by encouraging employee identity work in four ways: reflectional, conversational, observable, and kinesthetic. We define reflectional IWSOP as *the perception that one may think about and contemplate their identities.* Employees are likely to experience reflectional IWSOP when organizations offer them opportunities to engage in self-assessments to understand better who they are and what they value. For example, organizations may implement developmental activities into performance management that prompt employees to reflect on currently held identities (e.g., encouraging professors to consider their scholar identity as they craft research statements for promotion and tenure) or aspirational identities (e.g., posing the question "who do you want to be five years from now?" into a succession planning session). We define conversational IWSOP as *the perception that one may talk about their identities with others.* When organizations offer the opportunity for employees to converse with one another, either formally (i.e., in meetings or trainings) or informally (i.e., at social events where they can engage and share more casually), employees should experience higher levels of conversational IWSOP. An example would be an employee retreat that includes a team-building activity where everyone shares something that illustrates who they are so that team members can become better

acquainted. We define observable IWSOP as *the perception that one may display aspects of their identity.* When organizations allow or encourage employees to showcase their identities at work through how they decorate their offices, for example, employees should feel that the organization emboldens diverse expressions of identity and report higher observable IWSOP. We define kinesthetic IWSOP as *the perception that one may perform actions that foster understanding and/or expression of their identities.* Employees who are allowed to promote a cause they care about regarding their valued identities (e.g., a presentation about pet adoption from an animal shelter) at work are likely to report more kinesthetic IWSOP. In short, we posit that people with higher IWSOP view their organization as one that gives employees opportunities to engage in some types of identity work at work. See Table 1 for more examples.

In recent years, it has become more common for organizations to support specific identities via programs, policies, or culture. For example, companies are increasingly implementing ERGs for LGBTQ+ employees and allies (Agugliario, 2021), which may contribute to IWSOP among LGBTQ+ employees. However, IWSOP differs from identity support, or social support for specific identities, in that IWSOP refers to organizations supporting identity work that is not necessarily (but could be) associated with a specific identity.

Instead, IWSOP is a generalized perception of active support for identity work *across multiple identities and domains*. Accordingly, organizations may support identity work during the workday and in the physical (or virtual) workplace but they need not restrict identity work activities to an organizationally-determined time or space. In other words, organizations may implement certain policies or procedures to increase IWSOP, but the identity work they are encouraging may happen on or off the clock and at or away from the office. The critical factor is that the organization is the party from which the supportive perceptions stem.

For example, in 2020 after the Black Lives Matter protests, some organizations provided all employees with an additional personal day each year that could be used to celebrate Juneteenth, but could also be used to commemorate any other holiday or personal event. Given this additional floating holiday, Black employees and their allies might engage in identity work by celebrating Juneteenth, while Muslim, Hindu, and Jewish employees might celebrate a religious holiday. Still, Mexican American employees might celebrate Dia de Los Muertos (Day of the Dead), and others might celebrate the Summer Solstice. What is noteworthy is that the organization has provided its employees the opportunity to perform identity work by engaging in an activity that reinforces a valued personal identity as determined by the employees rather than the organization. Autonomy is an important feature of the support for identity work.

Of course, many organizations would offer some support for identity work that strengthens work-related identities, but there may be great variance in how organizations regard nonwork identities. As such, employees may perceive low IWSOP in organizations where social norms seem to suggest people suppress their personal identities at work. For example, if a newly hired employee enters a sterile workplace where everyone wears dark-colored slacks and light-colored button-down shirts and no one has brought family pictures or other decorative items to the office, the new hire might perceive the organization as less supportive of physical identity work and report lower observable IWSOP. However, even though the organization appears to be less active and intentional about encouraging personal identity expression at work, it may not have a mandatory dress code or explicitly prohibit the display of personal items in the office. We note this distinction to clarify that a lack of active identity work support does not necessarily infer identity regulation, or organizational actions intended to alter employee identities to achieve organizational goals (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002), such as when organizations impose

policies and procedures that foster assimilation among employees. Thus, while identity work support is an active effort on behalf of the organization to encourage identity work across multiple identities and domains as chosen by the individual, identity regulation is an active effort on behalf of the organization to encourage identity work that is deemed congruent with workplace objectives as determined by the institution.

As organizations support identity work more generally, they encourage deeper understanding and more open sharing of many different employee identities without explicitly singling out a focal identity as more or less valuable. Such an approach may be particularly appropriate for an organization where employees have a diverse range of identities. Instead of supporting a specific employee identity, organizations simply provide space, opportunity, and encouragement for employees to think about, talk about, display, or engage in actions that promote any number of different identities at or away from work. As such, support for identity work may reach employees with different identities, including those that are, and are not, marginalized.

Individualized Experience. Having discussed important attributes, examples, and what a lack of IWSOP looks like, it is also essential to note that IWSOP is an individualized experience. A person's experienced opportunity to talk and think about their identities, actively display their identities, and engage in actions that foster identity understanding and expression at work is reflected in their IWSOP. As IWSOP is an individualized experience of the workplace, two people in the same work environment may perceive different degrees of IWSOP based on their unique experiences, and there may be substantial variability in IWSOP in an organization or a team. Given the individualized nature of IWSOP, we contend that a self-report assessment method is the most suitable approach for assessing IWSOP.

Notably, the notion that IWSOP is an individualized experience does not suggest that employees will never agree about their experiences of IWSOP. If organizations are inclusive in their support of many different identities (e.g., asking coworkers to share something they care about), there may be higher agreement between employees about IWSOP than when organizational efforts to support identity work are identity-specific (e.g., employee resource groups focused on a single racioethnic identity group). In cases where efforts focus on specific identity groups, employees who share the same highly salient identities (e.g., parent, Asian) may have more similar levels of IWSOP than those whose important identities differ (e.g., non-parent, White). Given employees have multiple identities, people may perceive greater support for exploring some of their identities at work and less support for others. For example, most organizations likely offer some support for exploring work-related identities, but support for exploring nonwork identities at work may be less common. As such, IWSOP reflects a generalized perception of support for identity work *across identities.* It is likely to be impacted by experienced support for exploring all identities that matter to the self.

Nomological network

An essential part of construct validation is examining a construct's nomological network. As such, we consider constructs that are related and unrelated to IWSOP. In the previous section, we described the multidimensional nature of IWSOP, proposing a specific factor structure that we will test empirically. Below, we detail three categories of variables in the nomological network of IWSOP: antecedents/correlates, outcomes, and similar constructs to differentiate.

Correlates and Antecedents

As employees with higher-quality work relationships are likely to experience the workplace as a safer place for identity exploration, constructs that tap into relationships with

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important others at work (e.g., supervisors and coworkers) may relate to IWSOP. Transformational leadership, which involves stimulating, encouraging, and motivating employees to achieve organizational goals (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bednall et al., 2018; Suifan et al., 2018), may relate to IWSOP. Transformational leaders encourage employees to engage in the workplace intellectually (Mohmood et al., 2018), which may extend to thinking critically about their identities. Team-member exchange (TMX) refers to employee perceptions regarding the extent to which members of their team support them and have a positive social exchange relationship with their peers (Seers, 1989; Seers et al., 1995). When employees have high TMX with their colleagues, that perception may also spill into the identity work domain such that employees feel 'safe' discussing or displaying identities to coworkers and may also experience the organization as supportive of identity work.

Employee Outcomes

We also anticipate that IWSOP will relate to employee outcomes. Authenticity involves the alignment between internal experiences and external expression (Roberts et al., 2009). When acting authentically, individuals operate in alignment with their perceived true selves (Harter, 2002; Goldman & Kernis, 2002). Researchers argue that one of the main drivers of identity work is the desire to be authentic and genuine to oneself (Brown, 2015; Tracy, 2005). In other words, people may engage in identity work to access an inner 'authentic core' (Ybeme et al., 2009). Given that IWSOP reflects a perception of how an organization supports thinking about, talking about, and showcasing one's identities at work, employees who experience greater IWSOP should experience greater authenticity at work. While authenticity is self-determined or self-initiated (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995; Wood et al., 2008; Rogers, 1961) and acted on after

establishing views of the self (O'Neil et al., in press; Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2013), it can still be influenced by context.

Employees with higher IWSOP may also feel greater belonging in an organization. People experience belongingness when they feel accepted, valued, and included (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cropanzano et al., 2001; McCluney & Rabelo, 2019). Organizations that support identity work promote activities such as discussing, displaying, or exploring one's true self, which should foster a sense of being accepted for who one is. As people scan organizations for cues about the degree to which they are included and accepted (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ferris et al., 2009), an organization that supports identity work may be perceived as more inclusive or accepting. Employees with high IWSOPs may also feel greater organizational identification. Employees who perceive that identity work is supported are likely to feel more accepted for their authentic selves, increasing the degree to which they identify with the organization.

Interpersonal deviance, or behavior that is maladaptive and pertains to coworkers (Hershcovis et al., 2012), harms individuals as well as organizations. Employees may engage in interpersonal deviance as a result of being emotionally exhausted, underappreciated (Jahanzeb & Fatima, 2018), or when there is a perceived psychological contract breach (Chiu & Pend, 2008). In other words, employees may respond to negative workplace experiences with increased interpersonal deviance. Thus, employees with high IWSOPs should engage in less interpersonal deviance, given that IWSOP sends a message of appreciation – the opposite of the experiences that employees normally respond to with interpersonal deviance.

Aside from the previously mentioned outcomes, we also expect relationships between IWSOP and commonly studied employee outcomes, such as job satisfaction, OCBs, turnover

intentions, and affective commitment. In short, when employees perceive that their organization allows, encourages, or provides the opportunity to engage in identity work, they may feel more positively about their job and organization, want to remain with the organization, and engage in more prosocial action at work. Specifically, employees who can engage in identity work may be happier, more committed, more helpful, and less likely to leave the organization.

Discriminant validity from related constructs

Given concerns about construct proliferation (Shaffer, DeGeest & Li, 2016), offering a new construct necessitates differentiation from similar constructs, both conceptually and empirically. As such, we also reviewed relevant literature to identify existing constructs that have conceptual similarities with IWSOP, including, diversity climate perceptions, perceived organizational support, perceived psychological safety climate, and perceived climate of authenticity.

Diversity Climate Perceptions. Diversity climate perceptions involve the perception of the balance of power in intergroup relations and other pertinent events in the organizational context (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mor Barak et al., 1998). Thus, like IWSOP, diversity climate perceptions focus on beliefs regarding organizational behaviors and activities that may foster more favorable identity-relevant experiences. Still, diversity climate typically involves perceptions of how favorable the organizational context is for women, minorities, and other marginalized groups. Organizations perceived as having a positive diversity climate may also support some forms of identity work. However, IWSOP and diversity climate perceptions are distinct perceptions that emerge from different organizational choices. IWSOP should extend beyond traditionally marginalized identities to foster identity work among surface- and deep-level identities, whereas diversity climate perceptions typically reflect beliefs about the

environment's support for marginalized or traditionally underrepresented groups (e.g., McKay et al., 2008). Notably, unlike IWSOP, diversity climate may also be an individual- or unit-level construct (Holmes et al., 2021).

Perceived Organizational Support. Perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger et al., 1986) reflects an employee's belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being. Experienced POS tends to create a social exchange between the organization and employee by invoking the norm of reciprocity such that the employee experiences a felt obligation to care about and value the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001). In response to POS, employees report being more committed to the organization and are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Although POS and IWSOP both involve a perception of support from the organization, their referents are different. IWSOP reflects support for identity work specifically, whereas POS refers to support for employee well-being and appreciation for employee contributions. While IWSOP and POS may be positively related, they are unique constructs as support for well-being and support for identity work are distinct.

Perceived Psychological Safety Climate. Psychological safety climate "describes a…climate characterized by interpersonal trust and mutual respect in which people are comfortable being themselves" (Edmondson, 1999: 354; Grandey et al., 2012). Often, constructs that pertain to an organizational climate can also be understood through the attitudes or behaviors of employees. For example, employees may reflect their psychologically safe organizational climate by engaging in more authentic behaviors at work. While both psychological safety climate and IWSOP are likely to lead to authentic identity exploration and expression at work,

organizations supporting identity work encourage this behavior more directly, whereas those who foster a climate of psychological safety do so by creating a general atmosphere of trust.

Perceived Climate of Authenticity. A climate of authenticity generally refers to shared perceptions of group members regarding the acceptability of honest emotional expression (Grandey et al., 2012). In a climate of authenticity, employees should perceive that they are safe expressing their genuine emotions. Thus, individual perceptions of an authentic climate and IWSOP should both encourage authenticity at work in different ways. An employee's perceptions of the climate of authenticity foster authentic emotional expression, whereas IWSOP encourages exploring and authentically expressing one's identities. Additionally, a climate of authenticity is conceptualized as a shared phenomenon and is usually examined as the aggregation of individuals' perceptions within-group. Thus, like psychological safety, climates of authenticity are different from IWSOP in that IWSOP is an individual-level perception.

Incremental Validity

Many variables are impacted by both organizational and individual factors and various measurements can be unknowingly impacted by individual factors or dispositions. Core Self Evaluations (CSE), an individual's assessment regarding their worth, competence, and capability (Kacmar et al., 2009) is one individual factor that needs to be accounted for when creating a scale that measures IWSOPs. The components of a high CSE are likely to contribute to many if not all of our outcome variables. For example, someone who feels competent and capable at their job may be more likely to be satisfied at their job and less likely to turn over, regardless of if their IWSOP is high.

Development and Validation of the Identity Work Support Scale

We developed the IWSOP scale in three phases using procedures consistent with scale

development recommendations (Cortina et al., 2020). In Phase 1, three samples of subject-matter experts (SMEs) assisted in item selection and reduction. Specifically, in Sample 1, we asked a sample of tenured (or tenure-track) faculty SMEs to rate the extent to which item sets we generated aligned with the unique dimensions of IWS. In Sample 2, we then asked management doctoral students to rate items that assessed IWSOPs and also other constructs. In Phase 2, we used five empirical samples to further reduce our item set and clarify the psychometric properties of the IWSOPs scale. First, we used a dataset of undergraduate business students to explore the factor structure of the items retained from Phase 1. We then further confirmed this factor structure using a sample of full-time employees from a large southern university (Sample 2) and a sample of online Prolific workers (Sample 5). Finally, in phase 3, we confirmed the factor structure and item functioning across five unique samples (Samples 1-5) and explored the nomological network of the IWSOPs construct. In doing so, we demonstrate the unique value of IWSOP in organizational behavior and applied psychology research as we find evidence of consistency of the factor structure of IWSOPs and also of validity in the ability of IWSOPs to provide unique predictive value of a host of common outcomes in this area of research. We will review in detail each phase of our scale development process, which is in line with widely used scale recommendation procedures (Cortina et al., 2020; Hinkin, 1998) and has been used in recent scale development papers (e.g., Djurdjevic et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019). All analyses were conducted in R (version 4.0.2). We used the lavaan package (version 0.6-7) to conduct all confirmatory factor models and the psych package (version 2.0.9) to conduct all exploratory factor analyses. We estimated all regression equations using the lm function in the base stats package in R to estimate linear regression models using ordinary least squares estimation (OLS).

Phase 1: Item Generation and Reduction

Item generation. We followed what Hinkin (1995) describes as logical partitioning (i.e., a deductive approach) to generate our items based on the existing literature associated with identity work. For this step, the author team independently generated items and we grouped our items according to the types of identity work identified by Caza and colleagues (2018): cognitive, discursive, physical, and behavioral. Specifically, we were interested in generating items that emphasized the organization's role in supporting or allowing employees to engage in identity work. The result from our item generation process was a set of 31 unique items divided across the four types of identity work (seven items for the cognitive and physical dimensions, nine items for the discursive dimension, and eight items for the behavioral dimension). The author team independently verified that each dimension was adequately represented in the final set of 31 items. The 31 items have been made available in Appendix A.

Item reduction. To reduce our original 31 items, we used a two-procedure approach with two independent samples of SMEs to ensure content validity, which is necessary to achieve construct validity (Hinkin & Tracey, 1999). First, we relied on 10 outside, independent faculty SMEs with expertise in either the content area specifically or with scale development practices more generally. Of the 10 faculty SMEs, 7 (70%) were women, 5 (50%) were Assistant Professors, 5 (50%) were Associate/Full Professors, and all were employed by universities in the United States. We asked the faculty SMEs to provide ratings of the extent to which each of the 31 items reflected their corresponding definitions. In order to reflect support for identity work, when given the set of items we asked faculty SMEs to think about the experience of identity work as "how much a person is able to engage in identity work while at work." All participants rated all items on a 1 *(poor fit with definition)* to 5 *(strong fit with definition)* scale. We used the mean values for each item to determine which items to keep based on the faculty SME

responses, retaining only items that received on average a minimum of 4.0/5.0 (signaling that, on average, the faculty SMEs agreed that the retained items were reflective of their corresponding definitions).

Following this step, 33 management doctoral students completed an item rating task (MacKenzie et al., 2011). Of the 33 students, 18 (55%) were female, 6 (18%) were White, 12 (36%) were Black, 5 (15%) were Hispanic, and 10 (30%) were Asian. The sample size for the item rating task was in line with previous research (e.g., Djurdjevic et al., 2017; Ferris et al., 2008) and using doctoral students is appropriate when matching items with their corresponding definitions (Schriesheim et al., 1993). We followed the approach detailed by Hinkin and Tracey (1999) such that we presented each participant with IWSOPs and related individual difference constructs, including self-verification striving (SVS), impression management (IM), and core self-evaluation (CSE), in order to use ANOVA results to determine which items most highly reflect IWS. Construct definitions were presented to participants randomly to control for any potential ordering effects and the entire set of 47 items (19 for IWSOP; 8 for SVS; 8 for IM; 12 for CSE) was presented with each construct. All participants rated all 47 items on a 1 *(poor fit with definition)* to 5 *(strong fit with definition)* scale for each definition. We then used ANOVA results with each construct block representing a factor to determine which items should be further reduced from the 19 items we retained based on the feedback from the faculty SMEs (presented in Appendix B). The ANOVA results indicate whether a given item's mean is different across each of the four conditions of the factor (i.e., the four constructs). We then used Tukey's HSD test to assess the value of the differences for each item across each condition and whether these differences were significant ($p < .05$). We found that one item (IWSOP18) demonstrated zero significant differences across any construct, and was thus removed. For the

remaining 18 items, nine items (IWSOP: 1-4, 8-10, and 15-16) all had higher mean values for the

IWSOPs definition than for the other three constructs (and at least one of these differences was

statistically significant [p < .05] though in some cases more than one was significant). For the

remaining nine items, we found mixed support. Six items (IWSOP: 6, 11-13, 17, and 19)

demonstrated a significantly higher mean for IWSOPs than one of the other constructs, but in

each IWSOPs was not the highest mean (though the differences were nonsignificant). Finally,

three items (IWSOP: 5, 7, and 14) had a mean for IWSOPs that was significantly higher than one

of the other constructs but was not higher than all of the other construct means. After reviewing

the items again, we retained two items (IWSOP11 and IWSOP12) based on their theorectical

contribution to the IWSOP measure. Specifically, IWSOP11 and IWSOP12 were retained

because they captured an observable dimension of IWSOP not previously captured by the nine

items retained empirically. However, given that each of the remaining 17 items received high

ratings from the faculty SMEs (which included content area experts), and that each of the items

were significantly higher on IWSOPs than at least one other construct when rated by doctoral

students, we retained all 17 items when collecting empirical data.

Phase 2: Psychometric Properties of the Identity Work Support Scale

In Phase 2, we assessed the psychometric properties of the remaining IWSOPs scale

items to ensure a succinct, content valid measure by examining the factor structure, reliability,

and nomological network of the IWSOPs scale. We began by conducting an exploratory factor

analysis (EFA) in Sample 1 to establish the factor structure of the IWSOPs scale, and

subsequently conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to confirm the factor structure found

in Sample 1. We also examined the reliability of the construct across all samples to ensure that

the IWSOPs scale demonstrated appropriate reliability levels. In addition, though we assured

face and content validity via the data collection involving SMEs, we wanted to provide evidence of convergent and discriminant validity to demonstrate that IWSOPs is unique from, but related to, other key individual difference variables that impact employees' experience of work. To demonstrate convergent validity, IWSOPs should be significantly correlated with theoretically related constructs, while also retaining its own uniqueness (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Thus, we expected IWSOPs to be significantly related to important individual difference variables, including: POS, psychological safety climate, authenticity. We also examined discriminant validity to assess the uniqueness of IWSOPs as compared to these variables to ensure that IWSOPs is indeed a unique construct. We used two methodological approaches to provide evidence of discriminant validity. First, in all samples, we compared three- and four-factor measurement models (CFA models) with a select group of variables that have theoretical overlap with IWSOP. To do this, given the multidimensional nature of the IWSOPs construct, we estimated a five-factor model where all intervariable correlations were freely estimated, and then ran a four-factor model where the correlation between the discriminating variable and whichever dimension it demonstrated the highest correlation with was set to 1.0. We then conducted chi-square difference tests to determine if the models were significantly different to determine if the item sets were empirically unique (Kline, 2005). We also followed the approach described by Fornell & Larcker (1981) by examining the average variance explained (AVE) of IWSOPs by the IWSOPs items as compared to other constructs. The square root of the AVE must be larger than any correlations between IWSOPs and other constructs (a comparison may also be made between the squared correlation and the AVE rather than the square root of the AVE).

Our final goal in Phase 2 was to examine the nomological network of IWSOP. First, we examined whether a few commonly used, and theoretically relevant, variables were antecedents

of IWS. Second, we assessed the value of using IWSOPs as a predictor of important variables that are commonly researched in the organizational behavior and applied psychology area. Theoretically, people who have a strong desire for perceived organizational support, psychological safety climate, authenticity climate, and work for organizations who value diversity may be more likely to endorse being able to showcase their nonwork identities while at work (i.e., high IWSOP). In addition, we expect IWSOPs will likely predict a host of important organizational outcomes. Thus, we examine the predictive validity of IWSOPs in relation to several workplace outcomes (citizenship, job satisfaction, turnover, affective commitment, interpersonal deviance, organizational identification. belongingness, and authenticity).

Participants and procedures. To assess factor structure, validity, and reliability, we used five independent empirical samples which we describe below. Each sample included several attention check items to examine participant attentiveness and preserve data quality (Berinsky, Margolis, & Sances, 2014). A sample attention check item includes "Please select 'strongly disagree' for this statement". Samples 1, 2, and 5 included ten attention check items. Respondents who successfully responded to 80% (8 out of 10) quality check items were retained in the final sample. Twenty-one, eleven, and forty-one observations were removed from Samples 1, 2, and 5, respectively, for failing more than two attention check items. Sample 3 included four attention check items and twenty observations were removed for failing one or more attention check items. Finally, Sample 4 included two attention check items in part 1 and two attention check items in part 2. Seventy-four observations were dropped from part one for failing attention check items at 50% or more and sixteen observations were dropped from part two using the same success rate. Measures used throughout the remainder of the analyses are also described below.

Sample 1. Sample 1 consisted of 250 undergraduate business students from a large

university in the U.S. The students completed one online survey for course extra credit. Participants had an average age of 24 years old, 49% were female, and were 6% American Indian or Alaska Native, 27% Asian, 14% Black, 43% Hispanic or Latino, 1% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and 10% White.

Sample 2. Sample 2 consisted of 172 university staff from a large university in the U.S. Participants were invited to complete an online survey to win a $20 gift card. Participants had an average age of 43 years old, 82% were female, and were 5% American Indian or Alaska Native, 5% Asian, 20% Black, 11% Hispanic or Latino, 1% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and 58% White.

Sample 3. Sample 3 consisted of 231 working professionals recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk. Participants were invited to complete an online survey for $2. Participants had an average age of 39 years old, 44% were female, and were 6% Asian, 4% Black, 7% Hispanic or Latino, and 82% White.

Sample 4. Data for this sample were collected via snowball recruitment. Undergraduate business students were asked to refer working professionals for the study for extra credit. Company email addresses were collected to invite professionals to participate in the study. A total of 328 working professionals were invited to participate in the study and 265 respondents completed the survey (81% response rate). Forty-one observations were removed from the data for failing more than 80% of attention check items. The final dataset, Sample 5, consisted of 224 working professionals identified via snowball sampling. Participants in the snowball sample had an average age of 37 years old, 51% were female, and were 22% Asian, 9% Black, 26% Hispanic or Latino, and 42% White.

Sample 5. Data for this sample were collected in two waves. Participants were invited to complete a two-part online survey for $2 each for a total of $4. Participants who successfully completed part one of the survey were invited to complete part two three weeks later. 29 and 17 observations were removed from parts one and two respectively for failed attention check items. The final sample consisted of 220 US based working professionals recruited via Prolific. Participants had an average age of 46 years old, 53% were female, and were 1% American Indian or Alaska Native, 11% Asian, 15% Black, 4% Hispanic or Latino, 1% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and 68% White.

Measures. Participants in all five samples responded to items on a five-point scale with anchors of *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5) unless otherwise noted.

Identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP). We measured IWSOP using the 11-item scale developed in stage 1. Coefficient alpha was .81, .85, .90, .80, .87 in Samples 1-5, respectively.

Interpersonal deviance. We measured deviance using Bennet and Robinson's (2000) 7-item subscale and a 5-point scale with anchors of *never* (1) to *often* (5). An example item is "Made fun of someone at work." Coefficient alpha was .80, .59, .88,.82, .87 in Samples 1-5, respectively.

Job satisfaction. We measured job satisfaction using Cammann et al.'s (1979) 3-item scale. An example item is "In general, I like working at my job." Coefficient alpha was .93, .89, .93, .91, .90 in Samples 1-5, respectively.

Turnover. We measured turnover using Seashore et al's (1982) 3-item scale. An example item is "I often think about quitting." Coefficient alpha was .87, .88, .94, .90, .92 in Samples 1-5, respectively.

Organizational citizenship behaviors. We measured organizational citizenship behaviors towards individuals using William & Anderson's (1991) 6-item subscale. An example item is "I go out of my way to help new employees." Coefficient alpha was .80, .75, .82, .80, .85 in Samples 1-5, respectively.

Affective commitment. We measured affective commitment using Meyer & Allen's (1990) adapted 4-item scale. An example item is "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization." Coefficient alpha was .92, .94, .96, .93, .93 in Samples 1-5, respectively.

Team-member exchange. We measured team-member exchange using the 6-item receipts subdimensions of Ford et al.'s (2014) scale. An example item is "Other members of my division communicate openly with me about what they expect from me." Coefficient alpha was .89 in Samples 3 and .91 in Sample 5.

Transformational leadership. We measured transformational leadership using Wang and Howell's (2010) Individual-focused TFL 5-item subscale. An example item is "My supervisor helps me develop my strengths." Coefficient alpha was .94 in Sample 3 and .93 in Sample 5.

Living authentically at work. We measured living authentically at work using Van den Bosch and Taris' (2014) 3-item scale. An example item is "I am true to myself at work in most situations." Coefficient alpha was .77 in Sample 3.

Diversity perceptions. We measured diversity perceptions using Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman's (1998) 10-item scale. An example item is "I feel I have been treated differently in my organization because of my race, sex, religion, or age." Coefficient alpha was .85 in sample 3 and .81 in Sample 5.

Belongingness. We measured belongingness using Den Hartog, De Hoogh, and Keegan's (2007) adapted 3-item scale. An example item is "When at work, I really feel like I belong." Coefficient alpha was .83 in sample 3 and .82 in Sample 5.

Organizational identification. We measured organizational identification using Mael and Ashforth's (1992) 6-item scale. An example item is "When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'." Coefficient alpha was .93 in sample 3 and .90 in Sample 5.

Climate of authenticity. We measured climate of authenticity using Grandey and colleague's (2012) 7-item scale, which was modified from Edmonson's scale of psychological safety. Grandey and colleagues' measure was used to capture team climate. Thus, we modified the scale to reflect organizational level perceptions. An example item is "It is safe to show how you really feel with this *organization*'." Coefficient alpha was .84 in sample 5.

Phycological Safety. We measured psychological safety using Edmonson's (1999) 7-item scale. Again, we modified the scale to reflect organizational perceptions, rather than team perceptions. An example item is "It is completely safe to take a risk in this organization." Coefficient alpha was .85 in sample 5.

Perceived Organizational Support. We measured perceived organizational support using Eisenberger and colleague's (1986) 8-item scale. An example item is "The organization really cares about my well-being." Coefficient alpha was .91 in sample 5.

Core self-evaluation. We measured core self-evaluations using Judge et al's (2003) 12-item scale. An example item is "I am capable of coping with most of my problems." Coefficient alpha was .83 in Sample 1 and 4, .84 in Sample 2, and .92 in Sample 3.

EFA results. To assess the factor structure of the IWSOPs scale, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis using a principal factor analysis approach and an oblimin rotation.

We used participants from Samples 1 and 2 to explore the factor structure of the IWSOPs scale. Using both samples allowed us to explore the factor structure through using both a sample of students and also a sample of full-time working professionals. We ran our exploratory factor analyses using the factor analysis function in the psych package in R (v. 4.0.2), and we used an oblimin rotation and the minimum residual factoring method. Using Sample 1, we first conducted a parallel analysis and examined the associated scree plot for the 17 remaining items, both of which provided evidence in support of four factors for the IWSOPs scale[1]. We removed five items (IWSOP: 8, 9, 10, 13, 16) due to all loadings being < .50. We then reran the parallel analysis and generated a new scree plot on the remaining 12 items and both provided evidence for extracting three factors for the remaining items. We then reran the EFA on the 12 items requesting 3 factors and removed one additional item (IWSOP17) because all loadings were < .50 and one item (IWSOP1) due to being a single-item factor. Prior to rerunning the EFA, we reviewed the items for theoretical meaning. A reviewed of items showed all items related to physical identity work had been removed. Thus we reevaluated items using a conceptual lens and instead retained items IWSOP 11, 12, and 13. We then reran the EFA and verified that every item loaded on its respective factor > .50. IWSOP 13 cross loadings were large in magnitude and was therefore removed. All remaining cross loadings were small in magnitude (< |.20|), and both the parallel analysis and scree plot suggested retaining the four factors. The proportion of variance explained by the four factors was also large in magnitude (57%). Thus, our EFA results from Sample 1 led us to retaining 12 items across four dimensions for the IWSOPs scale.

Next, we used Sample 2 to further explore the factor structure with a group of full-time

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[1] Due to the random nature of data used for parallel analysis, the number of factors extracted based on eigenvalues randomly switched between four and five for each run. Initially extracting five factors did not change the results of which items were ultimately eliminated.

employees. We followed the same process as in Sample 1, but started with the initial 11 items we retained from Sample 1. Using these 10 items, we retained 4 factors as suggested by both an examination of the scree plot and the parallel analysis. However, upon examining the factor loadings, one item (IWS13) was removed due to not loading on any factor > .30. We then reran the EFA with the final eleven items and verified that every item loaded on its respective factor > .50, all cross loadings were small in magnitude (< |.30|), and both the parallel analysis and scree plot also suggested retaining the four factors. The proportion of variance explained by the four factors in Sample 2 was also large in magnitude (72%). We then returned to Sample 1 and reran the EFA with the final nine items and verified that every item loaded on its respective factor > .50, all cross loadings were small in magnitude (< |.15|), and both the parallel analysis and scree plot also suggested retaining the three factors. The proportion of variance explained by the four factors was also large in magnitude (67%). The results from the EFA on the final eleven items in Sample 1 are shown in Table 1.

Factor structure. We then examined the factor structure of the final eleven item set in Samples 2-5. As mentioned above, Samples 2-5 were comprised of full-time working professionals. Two of the samples (Samples 3 and 5) were obtained using online data collection services and Sample 5 included a time lag between independent and dependent variables. Samples 2 and 4 were comprised of working professionals contacted via professional connections and through a snowball approach, respectively. We conducted all CFA analyses using the lavaan (version 0.6-7) package in R along with the associated default settings and estimation method (maximum likelihood). The standardized loading values for all items should be both large ($\geq$ .30) and significant ($p < .05$) to provide evidence of acceptable factor structure (Hair et al., 1998). Given the multidimensional nature of the IWSOPs construct, we estimated

three CFA models in samples 2 through 5. Specifically, we estimated the hypothesized four-factor measurement model, an alternative one-factor measurement model, an alternative two-factor measurement model where the second, third, and fourth factors were combined, and also an alternative three-factor measurement model where the third and fourth factors were combined (as these dimensions correlated most strongly). In sample 5, we had to estimate one additional parameter due to a negative estimated residual variance. As can be seen in Table 2, when estimating the hypothesized, four-factor model, all items in every sample exceeded the recommended threshold across all samples (>.30) and all factor loadings were significant ($p < .001$). In addition, we examined relevant fit statistics for the measurement models as suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999). We used the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) to assess the overall fit of our structural equation models. As shown in Table 3, all of the four-factor models in the samples demonstrate excellent fit according to these fit statistics. In addition, we conducted chi-square difference tests (Kline, 2005) between the four-factor models and the three alternative measurement models in each sample. These results are also shown in Table 3 and provide evidence that the four-factor model is the most appropriate reflection of the data in each sample. The fit statistics we report for all samples meet acceptable thresholds with the exception of one (RMSEA in sample 3).

Based on the content of the final eleven items, we labeled the first dimension "reflectional", the second dimension "conversational", the third dimension "kinesthetic", and the fourth dimension "observational". The reflectional dimension (consisting of items 2, 3, and 4 in Appendix B) represents the perception that one may think about and contemplate their identities. In other words, employees high on the reflectional dimension believe their experience in their workplace encourages internal rumination about who they are and how they define themselves in

relation to their work and those who they interact with in the workplace. For example, being introduced to new identity-related perspectives through interactions with colleagues might force an individual to reflect on their beliefs about such identity components and perhaps the extent to which they may need to revise their own identity in light of this new perspective. The conversational dimension (consisting of items 5, 6, and 7 in Appendix B) represents the perception that one may talk about their identities with others. That is, employees high on the conversational dimensions believe they have freedom to verbally discuss components of their identity while at work, and such ratings would suggest that their organization is a safe space to have such conversations. For example, employees might believe they have the freedom to talk to other colleagues or even their supervisors or subordinates about components of their identity that might be societally stigmatized. The kinesthetic dimension (consisting of items 14, 15, and 19 in Appendix B) represents the perception that one may perform actions that foster understanding and/or expression of their identities. In other words, employees high on the kinesthetic dimension believe their organization is a place where they can behave in ways that align with their identity components to either learn more about their own identity or demonstrate their identity components to their colleagues. For example, an employee may identify as part of the LBGTQIA and their organization may allow them to take time off of work to participate or volunteer in local events that support the LBGTQIA community. Similarly, an employee who identifies with their identity as part of a family unit may feel comfortable hanging family pictures in their workspace when the organization represents a safe outlet for identity exploration. Finally, the observable dimension (consisting of items 11 and 12 in Appendix B) represents the perception that one may display aspects of their identity. Employees high on the observable dimension believe their workspace, or even their person, is a place where they can

display physical items that represent their identity.

Reliability. We also assessed the reliability by computing the Cronbach's alpha for the

IWSOPs item set in all six samples using the alpha function from the psych package in R to

ensure our scale met an acceptable standard ($\geq$ .70) with regards to reliability. In all five samples,

the reliability for the final eleven items exceeded the recommended standard and ranged from .80

to .90. These reliability estimates, along with all reliability estimates for the constructs we use

below to examine discriminant and predictive validity are presented in Table 4. In addition,

given that sample 5 included a time-lag, we were able to assess test-retest reliability, as IWSOPs

was measured twice for the same participants, with a three-week time lag. We found adequate

support for test-retest reliability of the IWSOPs scale, as the bivariate correlation between the

two assessments was significant ($p < .001$) and also large in magnitude (r = .71). Collectively,

these results provide evidence that our IWSOPs scale demonstrates acceptable reliability.

Convergent validity. Convergent validity is evidenced by a construct being related to,

but unique from, theoretically similar constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Thus, we should find

that IWSOPs is correlated with other constructs related to workplace characteristics. As such, we

examined the correlations between IWSOPs and diversity perceptions, perceived organizational

support, psychological safety climate, and climate of authenticity. We found evidence of

convergent validity in Sample 5, as IWSOPs was strongly correlated with each of these

constructs though not correlated so strongly that the uniqueness of IWSOPs as a construct is

called into question. Specifically, in Sample 5 we found the correlations ranged from .37 to .56

($r_{diversity\ perceptions}$ = .37; $r_{perceived\ organizational\ support}$ = .56; $r_{psychological\ safety}$ = .51; $r_{climate\ of\ authenticity}$ =

.48). Similarly, we also found evidence of convergent validity in Sample 3 ($r_{diversity\ perceptions}$ =

.44). Thus, these correlations collectively demonstrate evidence across samples that our IWSOPs

scale produces scores that are convergent with, but unique from, theoretically similar constructs.

  Discriminant validity. We used two techniques to provide evidence of discriminant validity. First, following the approach described by Fornell and Larcker (1981), we computed the average variance explained (AVE) in the eleven items by the IWSOPs construct. Explicitly, we squared the standardized factor loadings obtained from the 4-factor IWSOPs model in each sample (model fit information is in Table 3) and averaged the squared loadings to obtain an AVE value for each sample. The AVE values demonstrated that IWSOPs explained a substantial amount of variance in the IWSOPs item set for each sample ($AVE_{Sample\ 2} = .71$; $AVE_{Sample\ 3} = .69$; $AVE_{Sample\ 4} = .66$; $AVE_{Sample\ 5} = .66$). We then took the square root of the AVE for each sample and compared that value to all correlations involving IWSOPs for that sample. In every sample, the square root of the AVE for IWSOPs was greater than any correlation involving IWSOP, providing evidence of discriminant validity.

  Second, we used a structural equation modeling approach to demonstrate discriminant validity through factor correlations. Specifically, we estimated four- and five-factor models in each sample where we included the IWSOPs and one other variable as a means of demonstrating that IWSOPs empirically discriminates from each of the other variables. The model fit and chi-square difference tests are all presented in Table 5. Through the series of models presented there, we assessed whether IWSOPs discriminates from four different, but theoretically related variables. In the five-factor models, IWSOPs was modeled as a four-factor multidimensional construct, alongside a fifth factor to represent the additional variable. Since we found that IWSOPs is multidimensional in nature, for the five-factor model we constrained the correlation between the discriminating variable and whichever IWSOPs subdimension with which the variable was most strongly correlated. Doing so provides a more conservative assessment of

discriminant validity given that the discriminating variable often had weaker correlations with one of the dimensions, which could bias the assessment of discriminant validity if the discriminating variable correlated extremely highly with one dimension but demonstrated weak correlations with the other dimensions. We examined four variables, including diversity perceptions, perceived organizational support, psychological safety, and and climate of authenticity. We found evidence that the five-factor models (perceived organizational support: $\chi^2_{(143)} = 370.22$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .92, TLI = .90; psychological safety: $\chi^2_{(126)} = 323.97$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .92, TLI = .90; climte of authenticity: $\chi^2_{(126)} = 343.27$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .91, TLI = .89) fit the data significantly ($p < .001$) better in each case than the alternative, four-factor model (perceived organizational support: $\chi^2_{(144)} = 402.64$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .90, TLI = .87; psychological safety: $\chi^2_{(127)} = 375.02$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .90, TLI = .87; climte of authenticity: $\chi^2_{(127)} = 400.76$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .10, CFI = .88, TLI = .86). Thus, across both samples, IWSOPs demonstrated acceptable discriminant validity from the variables to which IWSOPs was compared. For diversity perceptions (collected in Samples 3 and 5), we found evidence that the five-factor models (diversity perceptions $_{(Sample 3)}$: $\chi^2_{(179)} = 441.90$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .08 CFI = .90, TLI = .89; diversity perceptions $_{(Sample 5)}$: $\chi^2_{(180)} = 412.08$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .90, TLI = .88) fit the data significantly ($p < .001$) better in each case than the alternative, four-factor model (diversity perceptions $_{(Sample 3)}$: $\chi^2_{(180)} = 527.21$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .87, TLI = .85; diversity perceptions $_{(Sample 4)}$: $\chi^2_{(181)} = 477.68$, $p < .05$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .87, TLI = .85). In general, all five-factor models demonstrated adequate fit to the data, with the exception of the two models including diversity perceptions and IWSOP. Supplemental analysis, however, revealed that this relatively poor overall fit was not due to the IWSOP factor, but due to the diversity perceptions factor. Indeed,

the five-factor models in these instances fit the data better than these other factors modeled on their own. Thus, across all samples, IWSOPs demonstrated acceptable discriminant validity from all of the variables to which IWSOPs was compared. Collectively, these results substantiate IWSOPs as a unique work-related variable.

Common method variance. To assess the presence of common method variance (CMV) in Samples 2-4, we compared the hypothesized measurement model to an alternative where all items loaded onto their substantive factor and also a method factor, which was uncorrelated with all substantive factors. In two of the method models, we had to estimate one additional parameter due to a negative estimated residual variance. In Sample 2, the average proportion of variance explained by the method factor was 8.98%. The average proportion of variance explained by the substantive factor is 64.98%. In Sample 3, the average proportion of variance explained by the method factor was 29.34%. The average proportion of variance explained by the substantive factor was 45.5%. Finally, in Sample 4 the average proportion of variance explained by the method factor was 24.84%. The average proportion of variance explained by the substantive factor was 42.11%. These findings across the three samples suggest that CMV did not substantially bias our results.

Predictive validity of IWSOP. To assess the predictive validity of IWSOP, we ran linear regression where IWSOPs was a predictor variable (alongside other predictor variables) in predicting workplace outcomes across all six independent samples. We estimated regression equations using the lm function in the base stats package in R to estimate linear regression models using OLS. The correlations and descriptive statistics among the variables understudy for Samples 1-5 are presented in Tables 6-15, respectively. Across all five samples, we included IWSOPs as a predictor of several workplace outcomes while controlling for both demographic

variables (i.e., age, gender, salary) and also theoretically relevant work-related variables. To assess the generalizability of the predictive validity of IWSOP, we measured the same five outcomes across all five samples: organizational citizenship behavior directed towards others (OCBI), job satisfaction, turnover intentions, affective commitment, and interpersonal deviance. We also measured belongingness, living authentically at work, and organizational identification. This group of outcomes allow us to assess the ability of IWSOPs to predict both attitudes and behaviors in the workplace and also represents workplace outcomes that are commonly of interest in the organizational behavior and applied psychology literature. We included theoretically similar predictors to demonstrate the predictive validity of IWSOPs above and beyond commonly used predictors in the organizational behavior and applied psychology literatures. Conclusions about the value of IWSOPs as a unique construct are strengthened if we find evidence supporting the notion that IWSOPs is of value above and beyond currently existing, validated constructs that are commonly used and theoretically similar. The results for Samples 1-5 are shown in Tables 11-16, respectively. We used hierarchical regression in each sample for each dependent variable. For each dependent variable the first estimated regression equation included the control variables and the variables that were theoretically similar to IWSOPs (i.e., IWSOPs was excluded in the first regression). In the second regression equation, we included all of the predictors from the first equation and added IWSOP, thus allowing us to assess the improvement in R^2 beyond the original equation once IWSOPs was added.

In Sample 1, controlling for age, gender, salary, and CSE, IWSOPs significantly predicted four of the five workplace outcomes (see Table 11). We found that IWSOPs was positively related to OCBI ($b = .33$, $p < .01$), job satisfaction ($b = .69$, $p < .01$), and affective commitment ($b = .72$, $p < .01$), and negatively related to turnover intentions ($b = -.41$, $p < .01$). In

addition, we assessed the improvement in R^2 for each dependent variable when IWSOPs was added to the model. In all four sets of models, the full model (with IWSOPs included) was significantly better than the reduced model (i.e., the improvement in R^2 is significant) and the improvement in R^2 ranged from .05 to .18. Lastly, IWSOPs was not a significant predictor of interpersonal deviance.

We tested the same models in Samples 2 and 4. As shown in Tables 12 and 14, controlling for age, gender, salary, and CSE, IWSOPs significantly predicted four of the five workplace outcomes in both Samples 2 and 4. We again found that IWSOPs was positively related to OCBI ($b_{Sample 2}$ = .20, $p <$ .05; $b_{Sample 4}$ = .26, $p <$ .01), job satisfaction ($b_{Sample 2}$ = .41, $p <$ .01; $b_{Sample 4}$ = .41, $p <$ .01), and affective commitment ($b_{Sample 2}$ = .92, $p <$ .01; $b_{Sample 4}$ = .72, $p <$ .01), and negatively related to turnover intentions ($b_{Sample 2}$ = -.62, $p <$ .01; $b_{Sample 4}$ = -.32, $p <$ .05). In all four sets of models for both samples, the full model (with IWSOPs included) was significantly better than the reduced model (i.e., the improvement in R^2 is significant). Lastly, IWSOPs was not a significant predictor of interpersonal deviance in either Samples 2 or 4.

Finally, in Samples 3 and 5, we estimated slightly different models to also incorporate additional predictors of our workplace outcomes. We included all of the same control variables and theoretically relevant variables that were included in the regression equations in Samples 1, 2, and 4, but also added diversity perceptions, perceived organizationl support, psychological safety, and climte of authenticity in the reduced and full models. The regression results from Samples 3 and 5 are presented in Tables 13 and 15, respectively. As shown there, controlling for age, gender, salary, and CSE, as well as diversity perceptions, IWSOPs significantly predicted seven of the eight workplace outcomes in Sample 3 and three of the six outcomes in Sample 5. We again found that IWSOPs was positively related to OCBI ($b_{Sample 3}$ = .37, $p <$ .01; $b_{Sample 5}$ =

.15, $p < .05$), job satisfaction ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .42$, $p < .01$; $b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .25$, $p < .01$), and affective commitment ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .77$, $p < .01$; $b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .50$, $p < .01$). In Sample 3, we also found IWSOPs was positively related to belongingness ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .42$, $p < .01$), living authentically at work ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .31$, $p < .01$), organizational identification ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .64$, $p < .01$). Similarly, in Sample 5 IWSOPs significantly predicted three of the six workplace outcomes, controlling for age, gender, salary, diversity perceptions, perceived organization support, psychological safety, and climate of authenticity. Once more, we found IWSOPs was positively related to OCBI ($b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .21$, $p < .001$), affective commitment ($b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .46$, $p < .001$), and organizational identification ($b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .39$, $p < .001$). In all three sets of models for both samples, the full model (with IWSOPs included) was significantly better than the reduced model (i.e., the improvement in R^2 is significant). In Sample 5, IWSOP was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction. IWSOPs was also not a significant predictor of interpersonal deviance in Sample 3 or 5, but was a significant predictor of interpersonal deviance in Sample 4 ($b = .32$, $p < .05$). However, due to finding no significant relationship between IWSOPs and interpersonal deviance in four of our five samples, we lean towards caution and suggest that this finding may be sample specific.

Antecedents of IWSOP. We were also interested in investigating antecedents of IWS. Our interest was primarily in workplace predictors of IWSOPs given that IWSOPs assesses an employee's perceptions of the extent to which the organization provides a space for identity work. Thus, we included theoretically relevant predictors of IWSOPs in Samples 3 and 5 using the lm function in R to estimate linear regression models using OLS where IWSOPs was the dependent variable. To improve the specificity with which we could provide implications about workplace predictors of IWS, we assessed transformational leadership and the receipts

dimension of team-member exchange (i.e., the extent to which they are supported by members of their team). The results of the regression equation predicting IWSOPs in Samples 3 and 5 are presented in Table 16. In both equations, we controlled for age, gender, and salary. In Sample 3, we found that both transformational leadership and team-member exchange were substantive predictors significantly predicted IWSOPs (none of the control variables were significant predictors of IWS). Comparably, in Sample 4 and 6, we found that three of our four substantive predictors significantly predicted IWSOP. We found that transformational leadership was positively related to IWSOPs ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .27, p < .001; b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .22, p < .001$). Thus, the more transformational supervisors were, the more likely were employees to view identity work being supported in the workplace. Related to the employee's workgroup, we found that TMX was positively related to IWSOPs in both samples ($b_{\text{Sample 3}} = .34, p < .001; b_{\text{Sample 5}} = .34, p < .001$). That is, IWSOPs were improved when employees viewed their immediate workgroup as supportive. Our results here are robust given the multi-sample nature of the results we find while controlling for demographic variables and by including all of the predictors simultaneously. In terms of variance explained, the R^2 values in each sample suggest that the predictors jointly explain approximately about 40% of the variance in IWSOP. Collectively, these regression results highlight the nature of individual differences, supervisors, and organizations in creating supportive work environments with regard to identity work.

Discussion

The present research introduces the construct of identity work-supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP), develops and validates a scale to quantify IWSOP, and examines its relationship to other important workplace constructs. We theorize that reflectional, conversational, observable, and kinesthetic IWSOP reflect employees' distinct, but related,

beliefs about how employing organizations may support identity work. Consistent with that conceptualization, EFA demonstrated that IWSOP is a 4-dimensional construct, and CFA across four independent samples confirmed the 4-factor structure. We also consistently demonstrated the predictive validity of IWSOP for various work-related outcomes (i.e., OCBI, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, affective commitment, belongingness, living authentically at work, and organizational identification) in multiple samples. Then, to further develop the nomological network of IWSOP, we established transformational leadership and team-member exchange as predictors of IWSOP (samples 3 and 5). Finally, using a time-separated design (sample 5), we showed that IWSOP explained incremental variance over and above control variables, including core self-evaluations and theoretically related constructs (e.g., diversity climate perceptions, POS, perceived psychological safety climate, and perceived climate of authenticity). Our measure also demonstrated high internal consistency. Collectively, our work demonstrates the usefulness of IWSOP as a construct that predicts important employee attitudes and behavioral intentions and of the value of our measure for operationalizing it.

Directions for Future Research

As this work represents an initial investigation of IWSOP, there are several fruitful avenues for future research. First, a substantive assumption implied by our work is that employees with higher IWSOP will also engage in more identity work. However, our present understanding of identity work and its associated constructs is limited to theoretical explanations and qualitative interpretations (e.g., Ahuja et al., 2019; Brown, 2015; Lok, 2010; Reay et al., 2017). As such, one worthwhile path for future research is the development and validation of a quantitative assessment tool for identity work. Ideally, such a measure would enable more large-scale studies of identity work, quantifying the extent of the relationship between IWSOP and

engaging in identity work across its sub-dimensions. Such a measure would also enable testing the assumption that employees who experience more IWSOP will engage in more identity work.

Additionally, our investigation showed that IWSOP is comprised of four distinct ways that employees perceived organizations as supporting identity work. Future research should investigate the extent to which each of the dimensions is similarly supported by organizations and explore their relative relationships with employee attitudes and behaviors. It is likely that the degree to which organizations are perceived to support identity work may differ based on the dimension of IWSOP being considered. Consider observable and kinesthetic IWSOP. Even around the same focal identity (e.g., the parent identity), modern workplace norms may routinely signal observable identity work support (e.g., allow employees to display family pictures in personal workspaces) but forgo kinesthetic identity work support (e.g., fail to approve an employee's request to have their child come to work with them when regular child care falls through). An important empirical question is whether employees evaluate and react to these types of support (or the lack thereof) differently. Since so many organizations allow observable IWSOP via display of personal photos, this type of support may be akin to a hygiene factor (Herzberg, 2017) that many employees in have come to expect in the workplace to some degree. Though higher observable IWSOP of this nature could lead to fewer negative outcomes (e.g., less unethical behavior; Hardin et al., 2020), employees may not find it remarkable that they are allowed to display aspects of their identities at work, but may find it alarming if support for doing so is low. If this is true, we might expect stronger reactions to lower (vs. higher) observable IWSOP. Alternatively, kinesthetic IWSOP may require more intentional structural support from the organization; and, since more active support from the organization is more likely to prompt more active positive reactions from employees (Cropanzano et al., 2017),

employees may feel uniquely motivated and have especially favorable outcomes (e.g., higher OCB, organizational identification, affective commitment, task performance). Future research should examine these possibilities.

We also explained that IWSOP is an individual-level perceptual construct. However, in line with the idea that work norms affect employee behavior (Shen & Benson, 2016; Tuliao et al., 2020), future research should also consider the extent to which IWSOP are shared within work groups/teams and determine the impact of within-group agreement or divergence with respect to IWSOP. Climate researchers have demonstrated that aggregate perceptions of organizations are important predictors of individual, team, and organizational outcomes (Schneider et al., 2017). In a strong climate where employees hold similarly high IWSOP, we might expect positive outcomes at the superordinate (e.g., team, organization) level could be especially beneficial for criteria like productivity which may reflect the combined inputs of individual unit members contributing to unit success. While IWSOP uses the organization as the referent, future studies examining IWSOP in work teams might consider whether shifting the referent to the work team is more appropriate for investigations at the team level of analysis (Chan, 1998). Similarly, as we showed TMX and transformational leadership were important predictors of IWSOP, future research could examine the roles of supportive coworkers and supervisors in shaping IWSOP at various levels of analysis.

Of course, we would expect IWSOP to fluctuate as employees navigate changes in the salience and centrality of their valued identities. For example, a new parent might experience changes in IWSOP as their parent identity becomes extraordinarily salient relative to other identities upon returning to work from parental leave. We anticipate the identity work-supportive cues to which an employee attends as a new parent may differ from the cues that concerned them

prior to parenthood. As such, future research may explore the ways in which IWSOP may fluctuate as specific internal and external identity triggers change after critical life events. Other identity-triggering events might include one's home country's entering a conflict with another country (patriotic identity trigger), being promoted into management for the firm time (e.g., leader identity trigger), the unexpected loss of a loved one (familial identity trigger), marrying (spouse identity trigger), pregnancy loss (parental identity trigger), or entering a same-sex relationship (sexual-orientation identity trigger). Such events may prompt changes in an employee's perceptions of whether their organization supports identity exploration and expression at work.

Finally, though our research yielded no relationship between IWSOP and interpersonal deviance we still contend that its worth considering potentially negative implications of IWSOP. We note two specific concerns to which future research should attend. For example, intentional efforts by the organizations to support identity work that affirms a specific identity (e.g., parent identity on "bring your child to work" day) might unintentionally marginalize other identities (e.g., pet parent identity not offered similar latitude via a "bring your pet to work" day). In fact, research has found some evidence that efforts organizations make to support family identities sometimes leave single employees without children feeling as though their nonwork identities are viewed as unimportant (Casper et al., 2007). This could prompt faultlines and divisive reactions within the organization. Similarly, we note that all identities are not equally benign in the workplace or society. So, if employees are encouraged to develop or showcase polarizing identities at work, the potential for adverse ramifications increase. For example, an employee who greatly values their identification with racist, xenophobic, or anti-Semitic groups (e.g., the Ku Klux Klan or Neo-Nazi groups; Blee, 1996) could impose significant danger within a

demographically diverse workplace that affords them the space to reflect on, converse about, display, or enact destructive identities associated with perpetrating harm against "others." In such situations, we anticipate a significant rise in personal conflict among employees that is detrimental to organizational functioning. Similarly, employees with highly salient identities linked to their own victimization (e.g., "incels" or involuntary celibates; Daly & Reed, 2022) might also be excessively vigilant against and reactive to mundane negative events at work (e.g., not receiving validation for an idea in a meeting). IWSOP that lead employees to conclude that they would be supported in their efforts to form, repair, maintain, strengthen or revise their "incel" identities could be catastrophic as research connects expressing "incel" identities is linked to mass violence (e.g., Donnell & Shor, 2022). Thus, while we offer evidence of the many benefits of IWSOP, future research should also consider it potential dark side.

Practical Implications

The results of our study have interesting practical implications for managers and organizations. Numerous studies have demonstrated the benefits of being authentic to one's identity at work (Metin et al., 2016; Van den Bosch & Taris, 2014) and the pitfalls of identity regulation at work (Costas & Kärreman, 2016). Still, our work is the first to quantitatively assess how employees' perceptions of identity work support from their employers relates to other important workplace constructs. We show that transformational leadership and TMX are positive predictors of IWSOP, and when employees hold higher IWSOP, they also report more favorable attitudes about their work and report my positive behaviors and behavioral intentions.

Based on these findings, one clear implication for practice is that organizational leaders should be more intentional in considering various ways to foster higher IWSOP among their employees. Organizations should consider how their organizational policies, standards, and

norms signal support (or lack of support) for identity work. Of course, these suggested practices must also identify if/which identities they do not wish to support and alter their approach accordingly. Further, as supervisors are often seen as agents of the organization in the eyes of employees (Eisenberger et al., 2014), organizations should ensure that supervisors are aware of, and aligned with, organizational efforts to support identity work. Additionally, managers should be aware of how their intended support for identity work is perceived by their employees and the implications thereof. Practitioners could use our scale to audit the work environment and discern if their messaging and efforts intended to support identity work, are being received as such by employees. While our measure is purposefully not identity-specific, organizations using our scale could parse their workforce demographically to examine whether some identity groups (e.g., racioethnic minorities, sexual minorities, older workers, workers with less tenure, part-time workers, unmarried employees, employees in particular units or job functions, etc.) systematically report higher or lower IWSOP. As more companies ask their employees to "bring their whole selves to work," a global measure such as ours may still offer insights on the parts of the self that some employees still regard as unsupported in their organizations. If IWSOP is systematically low for some identity groups, leaders might conduct targeted focus groups to understand which current practices, policies, or norms are viewed as unsupportive of employee identity work and how they can better support employees' efforts to understand and express themselves at work.

As IWSOP involves reflectional, conversational, observable, and kinesthetic sub-factors, employers may consider the extent to which their support for identity work is reinforced across the dimensions or undermined as they seem supportive in some ways (e.g., higher observable IWSOP via allowance of office décor) but less supportive in others (e.g., lower conversational

IWSOP via discouragement of talking about personal interests at work). They may also consider whether some facets of IWSOP are more meaningful for their employees and more likely to "move the needle" on outcomes that matter most in their organizations.

Limitations

Our research is subject to several limitations that are worth discussing. First, as this is an initial investigation of IWSOP, we acknowledge that our inclusion of constructs within the nomological network was not exhaustive. As is the case with all studies, we had to weigh a tradeoff between the number of variables we could collect and survey length. We did, however collect what we believe to be the most similar constructs based on existing literature, as we wanted to be confident in our claims about IWSOP as a unique construct.

Relatedly, we ground our conceptualization and operationalization of IWSOP in the growing literature on identity work, but we do not explicitly measure identity work or elaborate on its prominence within the IWSOP nomological network. Given there is not currently a measure for identity work, it was not possible to examine identity work as an outcome of IWSOP during our scale creation and validation efforts. Still, we believe that future research could benefit from using our scale as a starting point to understand the identity work that we suspect will be more common when IWSOP is higher (vs. lower).

Another potential limitation is that our findings rely exclusively on self-reported data. However, given that IWSOP is a perceptual construct that is specific to each employee, we believe this was the most appropriate measurement approach for initial investigations. Finally, while we found that the relationships between IWSOP and its correlates, antecedents and outcomes were similar across independent and unique samples (full-time employees, students, online participants), our data-collection efforts were restricted to U.S. samples. Thus, we are

unable to examine measurement invariance of the IWSOPs scale across countries and cultures. Notably, existing evidence suggests that employee engagement in identity work is not common only to the U.S. For example, workers from many cultures, including the U.S., Eastern Europe, and Asia, have been found to engage in identity work (Down & Reveley, 2009; Essers et al., 2013; Leung et al., 2014). Thus, it is very likely that the findings we report will hold in other contexts and cultures as well.

Conclusion

In this study we advance the concept of IWSOP and develop and validate a scale to empirically quantify the role of organizational support for identity work. We develop and validate our scale through the use of two samples of subject matter experts and five empirical samples. We also utilize the five empirical samples to begin charting the nomological network of IWSOP and to demonstrate its unique predictive validity. We provide evidence that IWSOP is a unique construct with greater predictive validity than other frequently measured constructs regarding a host of workplace outcomes. We are enthusiastic about the continued development of the IWSOP construct.

Table 2.1

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results using Final Eleven Items (Sample 1)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communality	Uniqueness	Complexity
I often reflect on who I am due to my workplace.	**0.69**	0.05	-0.06	0.07	0.50	0.50	1.1
My experiences at work force me to think about who I am in relation to others.	**0.82**	-0.02	-0.05	0.02	0.67	0.33	1.0
My workplace helps me define my identity in relation to others.	**0.64**	0.00	0.17	-0.12	0.44	0.56	1.2
At work, I am able to talk to others about who I am.	-0.07	**0.72**	0.10	-0.04	0.55	0.45	1.1
I can freely talk about my identity in my workplace.	-0.02	**0.94**	-0.06	0.03	0.86	0.14	1.0
My workplace allows me to discuss who I am with my colleagues.	0.11	**0.78**	0.07	0.01	0.71	0.29	1.1
There are activities at work that let me showcase who I am to my colleagues.	-0.04	-0.03	**0.66**	0.16	0.56	0.44	1.1
My organization allows me to participate in activities that teach me about who I am.	0.02	-0.01	**0.84**	0.00	0.71	0.29	1.0
I can engage in specific behaviors at work to help others understand who I am.	-0.01	0.14	**0.66**	0.00	0.52	0.48	1.1
In my workplace, I can display pictures or items that show who I am.	0.00	0.03	-0.04	**1.01**	1.00	0.00	1.0
I can display materials in my workspace that say something about who I am.	0.02	-0.03	0.12	**0.83**	0.80	0.20	1.1
Sum of Squared loadings	1.60	2.10	1.79	1.83			
Proportion Variance	0.15	0.19	0.16	0.17			
Cumulative Variance	0.67	0.19	0.52	0.36			
Proportion Explained	0.22	0.29	0.24	0.25			
Cumulative Proportion	1.00	0.29	0.78	0.54			

Note. Factor loadings less than .2 were suppressed.

Table 2.2

Standardized and Unstandardized Lambda Values for 4-factor Model across Samples

	Unstandardized				Standardized			
Item	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5
I often reflect on who I am due to my workplace.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.84	.83	.81	.81
My experiences at work force me to think about who I am in relation to others.	.91	1.05	.86	1.10	.82	.86	.72	.90
My workplace helps me define my identity in relation to others.	.83	.94	.66	.97	.65	.78	.53	.77
At work, I am able to talk to others about who I am.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.82	.83	.77	.85
I can freely talk about my identity in my workplace.	1.17	1.06	1.18	1.03	.90	.88	.89	.86
My workplace allows me to discuss who I am with my colleagues.	1.07	1.04	1.05	.85	.87	.87	.89	.81
There are activities at work that let me showcase who I am to my colleagues.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.81	.81	.71	.81
My organization allows me to participate in activities that teach me about who I am.	1.11	.95	.98	.94	.88	.82	.71	.75
I can engage in specific behaviors at work to help others understand who I am.	.88	.90	.68	.87	.81	.82	.56	.78
In my workplace, I can display pictures or items that show who I am.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.89	.92	.99	.92
I can display materials in my workspace that say something about who I am.	1.09	1.01	.80	1.08	.95	.94	.87	1.00

Note. Unstandardized loadings significant at *p* < .001.

Table 2.3

Alternative Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Dimensionality for IWSOP

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$
1-factor CFA (Sample 2)	522.03	44	0.25	0.57	0.47	- -
2-factor CFA (Sample 2)	344.92	43	0.20	0.73	0.65	177.11
3-factor CFA (Sample 2)	233.69	41	0.17	0.83	0.77	111.23
4-factor CFA (Sample 2)	56.28	38	0.05	0.98	0.98	177.41
1-factor CFA (Sample 3)	679.58	44	0.25	0.63	0.54	- -
2-factor CFA (Sample 3)	448.28	43	0.20	0.77	0.70	231.3
3-factor CFA (Sample 3)	342.80	41	0.18	0.83	0.77	105.48
4-factor CFA (Sample 3)	114.91	38	0.09	0.96	0.94	227.89
1-factor CFA (Sample 4)	545.67	44	0.23	0.55	0.44	- -
2-factor CFA (Sample 4)	415.70	43	0.20	0.66	0.57	129.97
3-factor CFA (Sample 4)	196.26	41	0.13	0.86	0.81	219.44
4-factor CFA (Sample 4)	72.19	38	0.06	0.97	0.96	124.07
1-factor CFA (Sample 5)	762.15	44	0.27	0.53	0.41	- -
2-factor CFA (Sample 5)	518.08	43	0.22	0.69	0.60	244.07
3-factor CFA (Sample 5)	432.81	41	0.21	0.74	0.66	85.27
4-factor CFA (Sample 5)	77.43	39	0.07	0.97	0.96	355.38

Note. χ^2 difference tests have one degree of freedom. All chi-square difference tests significant at $p < .05$. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.

Table 2.4

Construct Reliabilities across Samples

Construct	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4	Sample 5
IWSOP	.81	.85	.90	.80	.87
Reflectional IWSOP	.76	.81	.86	.71	.86
Conversational IWSOP	.87	.90	.89	.89	.87
Kinesthetic IWSOP	.81	.87	.86	.68	.82
Observational IWSOP	.94	.92	.93	.93	.95
Interpersonal deviance	.80	.59	.88	.82	.87
Job satisfaction	.93	.89	.93	.91	.90
Turnover	.87	.88	.94	.90	.92
Organizational citizenship behaviors – individual	.80	.75	.82	.80	.85
Affective commitment	.92	.94	.96	.93	.93
Core-self evaluation	.83	.84	.92	.83	- -
Organizational identification	- -	- -	.93	- -	.90
Diversity perceptions	- -	- -	.85	- -	.81
Belongingness	- -	- -	.83	- -	.82
Team-member exchange	- -	- -	.89	- -	.91
Transformational leadership	- -	- -	.94	- -	.93
Living authentically at work	- -	- -	.77	- -	- -
Climate of authenticity	- -	- -	- -	- -	.84
Psychological safety	- -	- -	- -	- -	.85
Perceived organizational support	- -	- -	- -	- -	.91

Note. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.

Table 2.5

Results of χ2 Difference Tests Between IWSOP and Related Constructs (Discriminant Validity)

Measurement Model	Five-factor model					Four-factor model					
	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$
IWSOP and Diversity Perceptions											
Sample 3	441.90	179	.08	.90	.89	527.21	180	.09	.87	.85	85.31
Sample 5	412.08	180	.08	.90	.88	477.68	181	.09	.87	.85	65.60
IWSOP and Perceived Organizational Support											
Sample 5	370.22	143	.09	.92	.90	402.64	144	.09	.90	.87	32.42
IWSOP and Psychological Safety											
Sample 5	323.97	126	.09	.92	.90	375.02	127	.09	.90	.87	51.05
IWSOP and Climate of Authenticity											
Sample 5	343.27	126	.09	.91	.89	400.76	127	.10	.88	.86	57.49

Note. χ^2 difference tests have one degree of freedom. All chi-square difference tests significant at *p* <.05. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.

Table 2.6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Sample 1)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. IWSOP	3.50	0.60					
2. Interpersonal deviance	1.38	0.49	.05				
3. Job satisfaction	3.68	1.01	.44**	-.06			
4. Turnover	3.29	1.13	-.25**	.17**	-.62**		
5. Organizational citizenship behaviors (individual)	3.97	0.57	.36**	.12	.16*	-.02	
6. Affective commitment	3.35	0.99	.44**	-.02	.59**	-.46**	.25**

Note. N = 250. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.
* *p* < .05.
** *p* < .01.

Table 2.7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Sample 2)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. IWSOP	3.64	0.65					
2. Interpersonal deviance	1.20	0.25	.03				
3. Job satisfaction	4.28	0.79	.32**	.02			
4. Turnover	2.45	1.30	-.29**	.09	-.64**		
5. Organizational citizenship behaviors (individual)	4.20	0.52	.29**	.08	.11	.07	
6. Affective commitment	3.42	1.08	.47**	-.03	.50**	-.42**	.15*

Note. $N = 172$. M and SD are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Table 2.8

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Sample 3)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. IWSOP	3.56	0.76											
2. Interpersonal deviance	1.28	0.48	-.13										
3. Job satisfaction	3.90	0.95	.54**	-.11									
4. Turnover	2.25	1.23	-.39**	.23**	-.67**								
5. Organizational citizenship behaviors (individual)	4.04	0.61	.51**	-.24**	.38**	-.27**							
6. Affective commitment	3.52	1.12	.64**	-.13*	.69**	-.55**	.44**						
7. Organizational identification	3.31	1.05	.51**	-.06	.53**	-.43**	.39**	.75**					
8. Living authentically at work	4.17	0.68	.52**	-.28**	.42**	-.33**	.43**	.46**	.31**				
9. Diversity perceptions	3.66	0.73	.44**	-.22**	.54**	-.52**	.26**	.46**	.26**	.43**			
10. Belongingness	3.81	0.95	.56**	-.24**	.63**	-.47**	.40**	.58**	.37**	.59**	.48**		
11.Transformational leadership	3.65	1.00	.56**	-.19**	.63**	-.47**	.41**	.62**	.41**	.43**	.61**	.58**	
12. Team-member exchange (receipts)	3.71	0.79	.56**	-.14*	.57**	-.41**	.50**	.56**	.43**	.44**	.55**	.56**	.58**

Note. N = 231. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.

* *p* < .05.

** *p* < .01.

Table 2.9

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Sample 4)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. IWSOP	3.70	0.56					
2. Interpersonal deviance	1.37	0.49	-.08				
3. Job satisfaction	4.27	0.81	.36**	-.20**			
4. Turnover	2.36	1.19	-.23**	.14*	-.57**		
5. Organizational citizenship behaviors (individual)	4.12	0.54	.32**	-.17*	.24**	-.08	
6. Affective commitment	3.74	1.01	.44**	-.17*	.58**	-.52**	.39**

Note. N = 224. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.
* *p* < .05.
** *p* < .01.

Table 2.10

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Sample 5)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. IWSOP (T1)	3.25	0.72												
2. Interpersonal deviance (T2)	1.31	0.49	-.08											
3. Job satisfaction (T2)	3.67	0.96	.37**	-.13*										
4. Turnover (T2)	2.73	1.34	-.24**	.06	-.71**									
5. Organizational citizenship behaviors (individual) (T2)	3.91	0.66	.29**	-.04	.21**	-.11								
6. Affective commitment (T2)	3.14	1.09	.57**	-.02	.64**	-.50**	.36**							
7. Organizational identification (T1)	2.95	1.00	.47**	.05	.46**	-.41**	.30**	.74**						
8. Diversity perceptions (T1)	3.36	0.67	.37**	-.21**	.37**	-.36**	.10	.44**	.34**					
9. Transformational leadership (T1)	3.15	1.00	.52**	-.09	.35**	-.34**	.17*	.37**	.34**	.55**				
10. Team-member exchange (receipts) (T1)	3.52	0.76	.56**	-.12	.44**	-.30**	.36**	.43**	.26**	.43**	.58**			
11. Psychological safety (T1)	3.37	0.80	.51**	-.15*	.47**	-.41**	.17*	.53**	.41**	.68**	.61**	.58**		
12. Authenticity climate (T1)	3.40	0.83	.48**	-.11	.43**	-.31**	.21**	.48**	.32**	.60**	.50**	.52**	.80**	
13. Perceived organizational support (T1)	3.42	1.07	.56**	-.15*	.53**	-.42**	.21**	.58**	.49**	.58**	.62**	.60**	.75**	.68**

Note. $N = 220$. T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

Table 2.11

Regression Results for Outcomes of IWSOP (Sample 1)

	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors – Individual		Job Satisfaction		Turnover		Affective Commitment		Interpersonal Deviance	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Constant	3.30***(.28)	2.38***(.31)	1.91***(.49)	.01 (.52)	5.55***(.55)	6.68***(.62)	2.51***(.50)	.55 (.52)	2.13***(.24)	1.95***(.27)
Age	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.002 (.005)	-.002 (.005)
Gender	-.03 (.07)	-.03 (.07)	.14 (.13)	.12 (.12)	-.42**(.14)	-.41**(.14)	.12 (.13)	.11 (.12)	-.28***(.06)	-.28***(.06)
Salary	.01 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.02 (.06)	.02 (.05)	-.10 (.07)	-.10 (.07)	.02 (.06)	.03 (.05)	.04 (.03)	.05 (.03)
Core self-evaluation	.15*(.07)	.07 (.06)	.38***(.11)	.22* (.11)	-.38**(.13)	-.29*(.13)	.24*(.11)	.07 (.11)	-.10 (.05)	-.12*(.06)
IWSOP		.33***(.06)		.69***(.10)		-.41***(.12)		.72***(.10)		.06 (.05)
R^2	.04	.15	.06	.22	.08	.13	.02	.20	.10	.10
Adjusted R^2	.02	.14	.04	.20	.07	.11	.01	.18	.08	.09
F Statistic	2.34 (df = 4; 245)	8.82*** (df = 5; 244)	3.62** (df = 4; 245)	13.69*** (df = 5; 244)	5.49*** (df = 4; 245)	7.16*** (df = 5; 244)	1.42 (df = 4; 245)	12.28*** (df = 5; 244)	6.67*** (df = 4; 245)	5.66*** (df = 5; 244)
F-test model comparison		33.51***		51.05***		12.79***		54.46***		1.57
ΔR^2		.11		.16		.05		.18		.00

Note. N = 250. IWSOP = Identity Work Support Organizational Perceptions.
*p <0.1; **p <0.05; ***p <0.01.

Table 2.12

Regression Results for Outcomes of IWSOP (Sample 2)

	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors – Individual		Job Satisfaction		Turnover		Affective Commitment		Interpersonal Deviance	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Constant	3.63***(.32)	3.10***(.35)	2.65***(.46)	1.59**(.49)	4.62***(.74)	6.22***(.79)	2.35***(.65)	-.02 (.61)	1.62***(.16)	1.54***(.18)
Age	-.01 (.003)	-.004 (.003)	.003 (.004)	.01 (.004)	-.002 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	.001 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.0003 (.002)	.0005 (.002)
Gender	.15 (.10)	.06 (.10)	-.14 (.15)	-.32*(.15)	.51* (.24)	.78**(.23)	-.36 (.21)	-.76***(.18)	-.07 (.05)	-.09 (.05)
Salary	.04 (.03)	.03 (.03)	.06 (.04)	.02 (.04)	-.21**(.07)	-.16*(.07)	-.04 (.06)	-.12*(.05)	-.002 (.01)	-.004 (.01)
Core self-evaluation	.10 (.07)	.09 (.07)	.43***(.10)	.41***(.09)	-.63***(.16)	-.59***(.15)	.51***(.14)	.45***(.12)	-.08*(.03)	-.08*(.03)
IWSOP		.20**(.06)		.41***(.09)		-.62***(.14)		.92***(.11)		.03 (.03)
R^2	.05	.10	.14	.24	.19	.28	.09	.36	.05	.06
Adjusted R^2	.02	.08	.12	.22	.17	.25	.07	.34	.03	.03
F Statistic	2.07 (df = 4; 167)	3.82** (df = 5; 166)	6.99*** (df = 4; 167)	10.71*** (df = 5; 166)	9.87*** (df = 4; 167)	12.67*** (df = 5; 166)	4.18** (df = 4; 167)	18.79*** (df = 5; 166)	2.24 (df = 4; 167)	1.98 (df = 5; 166)
F-test model comparison		10.35**		22.07***		19.50***		70.27***		.97
ΔR^2		.05		.11		.09		.27		.01

Note. $N = 172$. IWSOP = Identity Work Support Organizational Perceptions.
*p <0.1; ** p <0.05; *** p <0.01.

Table 2.13

Regression Results for Outcomes of IWSOP (Sample 3)

	OCB – Individual		Job Satisfaction		Turnover		Affective Commitment		Interpersonal Deviance		Belongingness		Living Authentically at Work		Organizational Identification	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
Constant	2.61*** (.30)	2.10*** (.28)	.41 (.39)	-.16 (.38)	6.38*** (.54)	6.74*** (.55)	-.09 (.51)	-1.13* (.45)	2.52*** (.24)	2.51*** (.25)	.06 (.37)	-.50 (.35)	1.69*** (.30)	1.27*** (.29)	1.18* (.52)	.31 (.48)
Age	.005 (.004)	.01 (.003)	-.002 (.005)	-.002 (.004)	-.003 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	.003 (.01)	.004 (.01)	-.01** (.003)	-.01** (.003)	.001 (.004)	.002 (.004)	.005 (.004)	.01 (.003)	.004 (.01)	.005 (.01)
Gender	.07 (.08)	.04 (.07)	.10 (.10)	.06 (.10)	-.05 (.14)	-.03 (.14)	.21 (.13)	.13 (.11)	-.10 (.06)	-.10 (.06)	.13 (.10)	.09 (.09)	.08 (.08)	.05 (.07)	.07 (.13)	.01 (.12)
Salary	-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.02)	.07* (.03)	.07* (.03)	-.06 (.05)	-.06 (.04)	-.02 (.04)	-.02 (.04)	-.0002 (.02)	-.0002 (.02)	.01 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.01 (.02)	.01 (.02)	-.04 (.04)	-.04 (.04)
Diversity perceptions	.15* (.06)	.01 (.06)	.56*** (.08)	.40*** (.08)	-.78*** (.10)	-.68*** (.11)	.60*** (.10)	.32*** (.09)	-.11* (.05)	-.11* (.05)	.36*** (.07)	.21** (.07)	.26*** (.06)	.14* (.06)	.25* (.10)	.01 (.10)
Core self-evaluation	.18** (.05)	.10* (.05)	.31*** (.07)	.22*** (.07)	-.24* (.10)	-.18 (.10)	.29** (.09)	.13 (.08)	-.11* (.04)	-.11* (.04)	.57*** (.07)	.49*** (.06)	.32*** (.05)	.26*** (.05)	.30** (.09)	.17* (.08)
IWSOP		.37*** (.05)		.42*** (.07)		-.27** (.10)		.77*** (.08)		.01 (.05)		.42*** (.07)		.31*** (.05)		.64*** (.09)
R^2	.12	.29	.37	.45	.31	.33	.26	.46	.12	.12	.44	.52	.32	.40	.11	.28
Adjusted R^2	.11	.27	.35	.44	.29	.31	.24	.45	.10	.09	.43	.51	.30	.39	.09	.26
F Statistic	6.42*** (df = 5; 225)	15.17*** (df = 6; 224)	26.22*** (df = 5; 225)	30.92*** (df = 6; 224)	19.87*** (df = 5; 225)	18.13*** (df = 6; 224)	15.63*** (df = 5; 225)	32.03*** (df = 6; 224)	6.02*** (df = 5; 225)	5.00*** (df = 6; 224)	35.00*** (df = 5; 225)	40.76*** (df = 6; 224)	20.79*** (df = 5; 225)	25.26*** (df = 6; 224)	5.75*** (df = 5; 225)	14.27*** (df = 6; 224)
F-test model comparison		51.69***		34.77***		6.83*		84.92***		.02		39.57***		32.89***		50.55***
ΔR^2		.17		.08		.02		.20		.00		.08		.08		.17

Note. $N = 231$. IWSOP = Identity Work Support Organizational Perceptions. OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.
*$p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$.

Table 2.14

Regression Results for Outcomes of IWSOP (Sample 4)

	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors – Individual		Job Satisfaction		Turnover		Affective Commitment		Interpersonal Deviance	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Constant	3.04***(.28)	2.24***(.33)	1.43***(.38)	.19 (.44)	6.20***(.57)	7.17***(.69)	1.32*(.52)	-.86 (.58)	2.21***(.25)	2.27***(.31)
Age	-.01*(.003)	-.005 (.003)	.01*(.004)	.01**(.004)	-.01 (.01)	-.01*(.01)	.003 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.003 (.003)	.003 (.003)
Gender	.22**(.07)	.21**(.07)	.05 (.10)	.04 (.09)	-.01 (.15)	.01 (.14)	.06 (.13)	.03 (.12)	-.07 (.07)	-.07 (.07)
Salary	.04 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.08* (.04)	.06 (.03)	-.07 (.05)	-.05 (.05)	.07 (.05)	.02 (.05)	.01 (.02)	.01 (.02)
Core self-evaluation	.23***(.06)	.18**(.06)	.58***(.09)	.51***(.08)	-.86***(.13)	-.81***(.13)	.54***(.12)	.42***(.11)	-.24***(.06)	-.24***(.06)
IWSOP		.26***(.06)		.41***(.08)		-.32*(.13)		.72***(.11)		-.02 (.06)
R^2	.11	.17	.28	.35	.23	.25	.12	.27	.08	.08
Adjusted R^2	.09	.16	.26	.33	.22	.24	.11	.25	.07	.06
F Statistic	6.56*** (df = 4; 219)	9.20*** (df = 5; 218)	20.92*** (df = 4; 219)	23.30*** (df = 5; 218)	16.64*** (df = 4; 219)	14.82*** (df = 5; 218)	7.77*** (df = 4; 219)	16.01*** (df = 5; 218)	5.04*** (df = 4; 219)	4.03** (df = 5; 218)
F-test model comparison		17.77***		24.01***		6.03*		43.01***		.10
ΔR^2		.06		.07		.02		.15		.00

Note. $N = 224$. IWSOP = Identity Work Support Organizational Perceptions.
*$p <$0.1; **$p <$0.05; ***$p <$0.01.

Table 2.15

Regression Results for Outcomes of IWSOP (Sample 5)

	OCB – Individual (T2)		Job Satisfaction (T2)		Turnover (T2)		Affective Commitment (T2)		Interpersonal Deviance (T2)		Organizational Identification (T2)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Constant	3.03***(.30)	2.79***(.31)	.77*(.38)	.68 (.39)	6.61***(.54)	6.57***(.57)	-.45 (.41)	-.99*(.41)	2.09***(.23)	2.06***(.24)	.45 (.41)	-.01 (.41)
Age	.001 (.003)	.001 (.003)	.01**(.004)	.01**(.004)	-.03***(.01)	-.03***(.01)	.004 (.004)	.005 (.004)	-.002 (.002)	-.002 (.002)	.01 (.004)	.01 (.004)
Gender	.11 (.09)	.06 (.09)	.25*(.11)	.23*(.11)	-.02 (.16)	-.03 (.16)	.35**(.12)	.23*(.12)	-.15*(.07)	-.16*(.07)	.12 (.12)	.02 (.12)
Salary	.07*(.03)	.06*(.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	-.04 (.05)	-.04 (.05)	.04 (.04)	.03 (.03)	.01 (.02)	.01 (.02)	.06 (.03)	.05 (.03)
Diversity perceptions	-.03 (.09)	-.04 (.09)	.13 (.11)	.12 (.11)	-.34*(.16)	-.34*(.16)	.23 (.12)	.21 (.12)	-.18**(.07)	-.18**(.07)	.16 (.12)	.14 (.12)
Perceived organizational support	.10 (.06)	.05 (.07)	.30***(.08)	.28***(.08)	-.25*(.11)	-.26*(.12)	.38***(.09)	.27**(.09)	-.02 (.05)	-.03 (.05)	.37***(.09)	.28**(.09)
Psychological safety	-.07 (.11)	-.10 (.11)	.08 (.14)	.07 (.14)	-.20 (.19)	-.20 (.20)	.13 (.15)	.07 (.14)	-.01 (.08)	-.01 (.08)	.13 (.15)	.08 (.14)
Climate of authenticity	.13 (.09)	.12 (.09)	.09 (.11)	.09 (.11)	.05 (.16)	.05 (.16)	.05 (.12)	.03 (.12)	.06 (.07)	.06 (.07)	-.14 (.12)	-.16 (.12)
IWSOP		.21**(.07)		.07 (.09)		.03 (.13)		.46***(.10)		.03 (.06)		.39***(.10)
R^2	.09	.13	.33	.33	.30	.30	.40	.45	.08	.08	.28	.33
Adjusted R^2	.06	.09	.31	.31	.28	.28	.38	.43	.04	.04	.26	.31
F Statistic	3.11** (df = 7; 212)	3.78*** (df = 8; 211)	15.06*** (df = 7; 212)	13.23*** (df = 8; 211)	13.13*** (df = 7; 212)	11.44*** (df = 8; 211)	19.84*** (df = 7; 212)	21.94*** (df = 8; 211)	2.46* (df = 7; 212)	2.19* (df = 8; 211)	11.93*** (df = 7; 212)	13.10*** (df = 8; 211)
F-test model comparison		7.80**		.62		.05		22.55***		.34		15.56***
ΔR^2		.04		.00		.00		.05		.00		.05

Note. $N = 220$. IWSOP = Identity Work Support Organizational Perceptions. OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.
*p <0.1; **p <0.05; ***p <0.01.

Table 2.16

Regression Results for Antecedents of IWSOP

	Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions			
	Sample 3		Sample 5	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	3.51^{***} (.26)	1.28^{***} (.27)	2.50^{***} (.22)	$.73^{**}$ (.24)
Age	-.002 (.005)	.0002 (.004)	.002 (.003)	.003 (.002)
Gender	.02 (.10)	.01 (.08)	$.33^{***}$ (.10)	$.25^{**}$ (.08)
Salary	.03 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.02 (.02)
Transformational leadership		$.27^{***}$ (.05)		$.22^{***}$ (.05)
Team-member exchange (receipts)		$.34^{***}$ (.06)		$.34^{***}$ (.06)
R^2	.01	.40	.06	.41
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.38	.05	.40
F Statistic	.40 (df = 3; 227)	29.67^{***} (df = 5; 225)	4.88^{**} (df = 3; 216)	29.73^{***} (df = 5; 214)
F-test model comparison		73.20^{***}		62.83^{***}
ΔR^2		.39		.35

Note. $^{*}p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$. IWSOP = Identity work supportive organizational perceptions.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY WORK SUPPORTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL

PERCEPTIONS, AUTHENTICITY, PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY, AND AFFECTIVE

COMMITMENT

Esther L. Jean

Chapter 3: The Relationship Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational

Perceptions, Authenticity, Psychological Safety, and Affective Commitment

Abstract

Organizations can play a critical role in allowing space for identity work to occur. The present research contends employee perceptions around the extent to which organizations allow identity work may invoke mental processes, specifically authenticity and psychological safety, that impact affective commitment. Using a sample of 295 working adults, I found evidence to support that living authentically at work and psychological safety may operate as explanatory mechanisms for the relationship between employee identity work supportive organizational perceptions and affective commitment. In fact, findings revealed psychological safety was a stronger mediating mechanism as compared to living authentically at work. I further investigated, but did not find support for, the extent to which these mediated effects would be contingent on individual employee differences such as future work self salience and self-esteem. Implications of these findings for future researchers are discussed.

Keywords: identity work support, authenticity, psychological safety, affective commitment

The Relationship Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions,

Authenticity, Psychological Safety, and Affective Commitment

In recent years, identity-related experiences have become a growing area of interest within the popular press and management research. Recent media headlines that question suppression of identity expression by organizations (Ogunnaike, 2020), encourage the celebration of worker identities (Jackson & Tran, 2020), or promote building workplace cultures that align with the values of the organization's employees (Baumgartner, 2020) show a need to understand further employee perceptions of the organization's role in identity-related processes. Together, these conversations suggest the current workforce may have unique expectations of organizations that extend beyond formal job descriptions (Dickler, 2019). Specifically, it seems workers may have begun to acknowledge the role organizations play in supporting or hindering identity-related activities and processes that occur in the workplace. One notable example can be found in the television industry by statements made by renowned actress Gabrielle Union when faced with organizational pressure to suppress her identity expression while on camera. Specifically, Union was told to reframe from changing her hairstyles on camera; however, Union argued the hairstyles were an expression of her African-American culture. In response to perceived identity suppression requests by her then employer *NBC*, Gabrielle Union is quoted as saying, "...you get more bang for your buck the more you allow me to exist as I see fit" (Ogunnaike, 2020). Such statements highlight the importance of employers allowing employee identity exploration and expression. Union's comments and the media headlines referenced above seem to suggest workers may recognize organizational influences on identity-related activities and therefore have perceptions around whether organizations support such activities. Interestingly, a review of companies recognized as best places to work identified an

organization's commitment to supporting the growth and development of their employees beyond their work roles as a driving factor for such designations (O'Malley, 2019). Thus, support for the identity development and exploration of their employees may also show an organization's commitment to the growth and development of their employees. As employees continue to suggest organizational concern for the whole self is important (Cha & Morgan Roberts, 2019) and, develop perceptions around environments supportive of identity exploration and expression, research around organizational support for identity construction and development at work appears ripe for discovery.

When people engage in activities occurring to form, maintain, strengthen, or revise their identities or self-meaning, they are doing *identity work* (Caza et al., 2018; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Identity work involves individual actions (e.g., ruminating on self-definitions, expressing components of the self with others, engaging in identity-driven activities) to craft or affirm one's identity (or identities). Much has been uncovered regarding the nature of identity work, including why and how identity work occurs. Identity work occurs because of various central and peripheral motives (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016); however, in organizations, identity work is primarily described as a response to identity threats or opportunities, identity regulations or negotiations of expectations, and/or role ambiguity, conflict or other internal processes (Caza et al., 2018). Threats to self-meaning are characterized as triggers of identity work that may occur when group salience – or lack of group salience – challenges an individual's in-group/out-group status resulting in a need to protect or defend their identities (Kyratsis et al., 2017). For example, a qualitative study found lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) Protestant ministers engaged in identity work to respond to identity threats and resolve contradictions between institutional expectations based on their occupation and their marginalized role identity

as members of the LGBT community (Creed et al., 2010). While identity work can be triggered by events that incite fear and encourage protecting and defending identities (Petriglieri, 2011), Bataille and Vough (2020) proposed identity opportunities as a positive identity work trigger that can provide a sense of hope and promote self-enhancement (see also Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). For instance, self-evaluations that are built into an organization's performance metrics may be a positive identity work trigger where employees reflect on their professional identities and engage in identity work to identify revisions needed for growth and self-improvement. Other triggers of identity work, identity negotiations and regulations, can encourage identity work when conflict among multiple identities requires identifying the most salient identity and/or allow revising less salient identities (Ramarajan, 2014). Others suggest identity regulation, defined as "…practices concerned with identity definition that condition processes of identity formation and transformation" (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002: p. 627), fosters identity work and is influenced by identity work (Berger et al., 2017). Identity regulation can involve using symbols that encourage employees to participate in identity work (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). Examples of identity regulation include new employee orientations, team trainings, promotion decisions, or similar activities that shape and direct identities by conveying messages about what is acceptable behavior to employees. Conflict or ambiguity can encourage identity work by threatening an individual's sense of self and further pressuring them to secure and regulate their identity (Alvesson, 2001). For instance, in knowledge-intensive firms, "where most work is said to be of an intellectual nature and where well-educated, qualified employees form the major part of the work force" (Alvesson, 2001: p. 863), ambiguity related to knowledge work is thought to influence identity work due to pressure faced by knowledge workers to display confidence, competence, and strong performance (Alvesson, 2001).

Identity work can occur in a variety of ways including through talk or conversation (e.g., Costas and Kärreman, 2016; DeRue & Ashford, 2010), thoughts (e.g., Berger et al., 2017; Essers et al., 2013), physical symbols (e.g., Courpasson & Monties, 2017; Elsbach, 2009), or actions and behaviors (e.g., Cowen & Hodgson, 2015; Koerner, 2014). Regardless of the mechanism(s) used and whether they are used separately or in conjunction with one another, identity work allows individuals to construct and/or affirm a coherent definition of the self. For instance, scholars suggest the choice of tone or words and use of humor, jargon, and even metaphors can work to reinforce or reject identity labels in the construction of individual self-definitions (Allen, 2005; Carroll & Levy, 2010; Leavitt & Sluss, 2015). Similarly, physical or symbolic displays of identity work, such as the use of artifacts, clothes, objects, or even the physical body, can serve as an expression and confirmation of one's self-meaning (Elsbach, 2004, 2009). Indeed, identity work in organizations occurs in various ways and in response to numerous triggers (Brown, 2015); thus, the organization's role in supporting or preventing such processes may provide further insight into the complexities of identity-related processes in organizations.

Organizations can play a critical role in allowing space for identity work to occur. Research suggests organizational structures can either constrain or promote identity construction in the workplace (Berger et al., 2017; Kärreman & Alvesson, 2001). For instance, although Muslim professionals indicated their religious identity should not influence their work roles, findings from the study highlighted how structures within the organization impeded upon or, in some instances, enabled their religious practice (Berger et al., 2017). Similarly, in a case study of a Swedish evening newspaper, the authors suggested the organization prevented identity work during a team meeting by not allowing employees time for reflection and pressuring them to accept a shared identity as a newsmaker (Kärreman & Alvesson, 2001). As seen in the examples

provided, personal and professional implications may exist for employees when organizations encourage or hinder identity construction that occurs through identity work; therefore, the extent to which an organization supports or hinders identity work activities may also influence critical employee work outcomes.

Employee perceptions of whether an organization encourages or hinders identity work are captured through identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP). IWSOP is *the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to think about, talk about, or display aspects of their identities, or to engage in activities that foster understanding and sharing of their identities*.

The research questions for this study are: *"What are the effects of identity work supportive organizational perceptions on authenticity, psychological safety, and affective commitment?"* and *"To what extent are these relationships contingent on individual characteristics such as future work self salience and self-esteem?"* In this study, I argue that employee perceptions around the extent to which organizations allow identity work (e.g., IWSOP) may invoke mental processes that impact work outcomes, specifically affective commitment. IWSOP may strengthen the employee commitment and encourage employees to maintain their tenure with the organization (Cable et al., 2013). Furthermore, I suggest individual characteristics may impact the extent to which employee perceptions influence commitment. Additionally, an employee's self-esteem, which represents confidence in one's self-concept, may relate to how IWSOP influence work outcomes. Thus, I further predict employee characteristics may strengthen the effects of IWSOP on authenticity, psychological safety and affective commitment. Figure 3.1 summarizes the hypothesized model.

Exploring perceptions of identity work support in the workplace is important because of individuals' changing expectations of their organizations. As workplaces become primary sources for self-definition (Gini, 2000), employees expect to be able to express their true authentic selves at work (Bosch & Taris, 2014; Cable et al., 2013), and have the opportunity to craft the self-concept through identity work that may occur in the workplace (Carlsen, 2008; Wrzesniewski et al., 2013). This manuscript contributes to research on identity at work and organizational support in a few unique and important ways. First, the present research introduces a model for understanding the organization's role in identity-related activities, whereby employee perceptions of identity work supportive organizations are considered. While prior studies have relied almost exclusively on qualitative methods when examining identity work, the present study capitalizes on quantitative methods to investigate perceptions employees have of organizational support for identity work occurring in the workplace. Second, by focusing on perceptions of workplace experiences that are supportive of identity work in organizations, the present research highlights a specific business outcome (e.g., affective commitment) related to such employee perceptions that furthers understanding around how employees evaluate organizations and the implications of the perceptions formed. Finally, I set the foundation for future research to consider how and why IWSOP influence employee and work outcomes. This research is the first step toward a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between perceptions employees may have around organizational support for identity-related activities.

Hypothesis Development

Triggered by thought-provoking events or experiences (Louis & Sutton, 1991), individuals engage in identity work due to internal reflections, conflicts, and explorations. Identity work can involve negotiating, avoiding, resisting, and contesting behaviors (Bergers et

al., 2017; Brown & Toyoki, 2013). The tasks involved in identity work can create intense feelings affecting one's sense of well-being as people work to construct work identities (Coupland et al., 2008; Marsh & Musson, 2008; Winkler, 2018; Zembylas, 2005). When individuals perceive the organization as supportive of identity-related activities and processes, they are more likely to feel safe taking risks and may also see themselves as living more authentically.

Mediating Effect of Living Authentically and Psychological Safety

Support for identity work activities and processes may influence positive work outcomes such as affective commitment; however, I propose this is an indirect process that occurs through an individual's sense of authenticity and psychological safety. Meyer and Allen (1991) identify several types of organizational commitment that explain why employees may remain with an organization. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment reflect a desire to remain with an organization because of an emotional attachment (affective), awareness of the costs of leaving (continuance), and obligation (normative). More specifically, affective commitment, examined in this research, is the emotional attachment, involvement, or identification with the organization that an employee experiences which fuels an individual's desire to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Prior research suggests the emotional attachment associated with affective commitment is related to employee perceptions of organizational support (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Given the high levels of conflict which can occur when individuals engage in identity work (Benet-Martínez & Haritatos, 2005; Essers et al., 2013; Wallen et al., 2014), perceived support from the organization may promote an appreciation from the employee, manifested as affective commitment (Kurtessis et

al., 2017). Similarly, perceived support for identity work may also manifest as affective commitment.

Living Authentically at Work

Authenticity is defined as the alignment between ones' "internal experiences and external expression" (Roberts et al., 2009) where individuals act in accordance with their true selves (Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Harter, 2002). Notably, authenticity is believed to influence self-esteem, commitment, performance, and productivity (see Harter, 2002; Kernis & Goldman, 2006) and therefore provides support for the linkage between IWSOP and affective commitment argued in this research. The ability to live out values and express one's true self creates a sense of authentic living and is critical to positive work outcomes. Authentic living occurs when "individuals are true to their selves in most situations and live in accordance with their own values and beliefs" (van den Bosch & Taris, 2014: 3). When awareness of values and outward behaviors at work align with one another, the individual enjoys a sense of fulfillment and produces positive work outcomes. As such, work authenticity, conceptualized as an alignment between values and work involvements, is an important contributor to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 2019). The alignment between behavior at work and values may be captured in an individual's identity construction and expression as they attempt to delineate, and behave in accordance with, their core self (Kernis & Goldman, 2006).

Organizations that are perceived to support identity work may positively influence authentic living at work because employees are also likely to believe it is safe to live out their values at work since the organization supports identity-related activities. Conversely, organizations that are perceived as not being supportive of identity work may produce inauthentic behavioral responses since the individual may see their true selves as conflicting with

what is valued by the organization (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Instead, the individual may avoid identity work processes that could strengthen their sense of authentic living at work because of the perceived lack of organizational support for such activities.

Identity threats that impede authenticity at work can negatively influence work outcomes such as commitment. A desire for authenticity has been linked to identity work triggers (Cable et al., 2013). Similar to feelings associated with identity threats or identity negotiations, individuals may seek to reconcile competing narratives or resolve identity conflicts through a search for authenticity. For instance, in their research, Caza and colleagues (2018) found individuals with multiple identities struggled with feeling authentic to the self in work and personal contexts since multiple identities, and the sometimes competing demands amongst them, threatened authenticity which in turn triggered the identity work process. Grounded in self-determination theory (SDT), authenticity research asserts when individuals participate in personally meaningful activities, their motivation and well-being is likely to increase (Emmerich & Rigotti, 2017). Thus, perceptions of identity work support from the organization should relate to greater authenticity which in turn produces greater affective commitment. Therefore, I present the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1a:* The positive relationship between identity work supportive organizational perceptions and affective commitment is mediated by living authentically at work.

Psychological Safety

Individuals engaged in identity work are primed to learn something about their selves as they revise and/or affirm identity scripts, or observable, recurrent patterns of interactions (Barley & Tolbert, 1997; Bévort & Suddaby, 2016). However, individuals must first feel safe activating such processes. Current research suggests learning processes are supported and strengthened by

perceptions of psychological safety (Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; Edmonson, 1999; Edmonson et al., 2004). Psychology safety is experienced when individuals feel safe expressing themselves "without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (Kahn, 1990, p. 708). Psychological safety describes an individual's attitudes toward taking interpersonal risks (Edmonson et al., 2004) and, when present, can promote a positive emotional state that encourages individuals to feel safe constructing, revising, and reinforcing identity scripts as needed. Indeed, Edmonson and colleagues (2004) contend that psychological safety involves an implicit process where the individual weighs the cost of an action against relational consequences. When psychological safety is lacking, a reticent behavioral response may emerge where the individual withholds their ideas (Sherf et al., 2020) and may avoid choices that are associated with potentially negative outcomes. Such withholdings may prevent the individual from connecting with the organization in a meaningful way to encourage emotional attachment.

Within the organization, individuals may engage in identity work that requires outward questioning of their self and others to create or revise identity scripts. IWSOP speak to the nature of an organization, as interpreted by the employee, and its support of an individual's self-expression. Relatedly, researchers believe support within an organization positively influences commitment behaviors (Amabile et al., 1996; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Deci et al., 1989). If an organization is perceived to hinder identity work activities, psychological safety may be threatened as individuals evaluate the risks of engaging in identity defining activities. Thus, an employee's perception that an organization might stifle the work of constructing, refining, and affirming identities may be negatively linked to psychological safety, and thereby, decreased affective commitment to the organization (Jonason, 2019). Specifically, psychological safety may be an input of social identification that leads to identity congruence, strengthened identity,

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and ultimately a commitment to the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This study therefore contends perceptions that an organization is supportive of identity work can encourage high levels of psychological safety that in turn yield greater commitment to the organization (Blau, 1964). Similarly, environments where employees perceive identity work is supported can promote a sense of authenticity where one feels there is alignment between their work and personal values (Roberts & Dutton, 2009), thus promoting affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1b: The positive relationship between identity work supportive organizational perceptions and affective commitment is mediated by psychological safety.

Moderating Roles of Future Work Self Salience and Self-Esteem

Individual characteristics, namely future work self salience and self-esteem, may further strengthen the first stage relationship between IWSOP, authenticity, psychological safety, and affective commitment. Within organizations, employees often strive for opportunities to grow and advance in their careers (Strauss et al., 2012) and the ideas they have for their future selves may influence their behaviors in the present. The active roles employees take in shaping their career in organizations inspired the concept of future work self (Strauss et al., 2012). Future work self is "an individual's representation of [their selves] in the future that reflects his or her hopes and aspirations in relation to work" (Strauss et al., 2012: 580) and thus highlights the idealized futures an individual hopes to someday attain. For instance, individuals may hold aspirations of attaining leader or entrepreneur work roles; therefore, these aspirational roles will exist as part of their future work selves. Originally based on Markus and Nurius' (1986) possible selves research, scholars suggest a salient future work self should include an image of the future self that is easily imagined (Strauss et al., 2012). Further, future work selves are future-oriented, provide a positive reference point, and are specific to the work domain (Strauss et al., 2012;

Strauss & Kelly, 2016). These idealized future selves provide meaning, direction, and motivation as individuals work towards achieving these possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Strauss et al., 2012). Future work selves are comprised of present and future identities individuals plan to maintain in their identity network; thus, individual IWSOP will consider present and future identities and whether the organization will support the construction or strengthening of such identities. Since both identity work processes and the creation of possible selves happen as a result of social interactions (Caza et al., 2018; Markus & Nurius, 1986), it may be possible that influencing one process may have implications for the other process as well. Potential selves are inextricably linked to current selves and represent an imagined self that capitalizes on one's hopes (Ashforth, 2001; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Well-defined future work selves depict a clear image of one's potential and the possibilities available in the future (Ashforth, 2001). They can serve as a motivational resource driving behaviors and directing actions (Fugate et al., 2004; Oyserman & Markus, 1990). When future work selves are salient, it can serve as a commitment and performance motivator since salient future work selves activate behavior (Leondari et al., 1998) and support goal setting and goal striving because of the hopefulness involved in crafting the future work self (Roberts & Dutton, 2009). For instance, a mid-level professional who imagines their future self as a senior manager may focus on leadership activities that strengthen their managerial skills to achieve their imagined salient senior manager future self. The agency involved in envisioning the future self and carrying out plans towards attaining this future work self is recognized as a fundamental psychological need (Roberts & Dutton, 2009). Thus, the salience of the future work self may strengthen the effects of IWSOP on authenticity and psychological safety. Specifically, as individuals strive for authenticity through identity work, a clearer vision of their selves in the

future is likely to emerge when individuals affirm or reject identity labels and create a cohesive definition for their self. Thus, the connection between future and present selves indicates IWSOP and future work selves may interact to influence authentic living at work because both constructs represent present and future identities. Perceptions drawn regarding the organization's support of identity work will consider current identities as well as hoped for identities in the future. Similarly, the interplay of identity work and a salient future work self also works to influence psychological safety and, indirectly affective commitment. Past and present selves will affect future work selves to the extent that the past or present self will reappear in the definition of a future self (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Further, future work selves are believed to be domain specific, affecting only behaviors in that domain (Oyserman et al., 2006). For instance, a salient future work self as an academic has specifically been linked to higher test scores and initiative in academic domains (Oyserman et al., 2006). Given the intricate connection between current and future selves, and the ways in which future work selves drive behaviors (Strauss et al., 2012), high IWSOP in conjunction with salient future work selves may even further strengthen an individual's sense of authentic living and psychological safety, and as a result enhance affective commitment to the organization that allowed this process to occur.

Hypothesis 2: Future work self salience moderates the indirect effect of identity work supportive organizational perceptions on affective commitment through *(a)* living authentically at work and *(b)* psychological safety, such that higher levels of future work self salience will strengthen the positive indirect effect of perceptions of identity work on affective commitment.

Self-esteem is one of several factors which point to a positive self-concept (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge 1997). Self-esteem is "…a trait referring to individuals' degree of liking or

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disliking for themselves" (Brockner, 1988: 11). In their research, Rosenberg and colleagues (1995) distinguished global self-esteem and specific self-esteem. Global self-esteem is believed to influence psychological well-being while specific self-esteem is related to behaviors (Rosenberg et al., 1995).

Self-esteem is positively related to happiness and better work outcomes (Baumeister et al., 2003; Shahani et al., 1990). In their meta-analytic review, Judge and Bono (2001) found self-esteem was positively related to affective commitment to the organization. Self-esteem may also work in conjunction with IWSOP because individuals are working to define their self-concepts. A study of high and low self-esteem individuals found those with high self-esteem were more likely to report a clearer self-concept than those who reported low self-esteem (Campbell, 1990). When self-esteem and IWSOP are high, individuals will more readily recognize the organization's role in influencing identity processes because individuals with high self-esteem have a stronger understanding of their selves. Thus, the relationship between IWSOP and commitment is strengthened by self-esteem. When self-esteem interacts with IWSOP, the two may further influence living authentically at work because IWSOP will promote an even clearer self-image for individuals with high self-esteem, encouraging greater authenticity. This process could create a positive feeling and commitment towards the organization that allowed them to achieve such states. Additionally, IWSOP may promote a heightened sense of psychological safety in individuals with high self-esteem as they gain greater clarity around who they are and become more comfortable with their chosen self-concept. Thus, high self-esteem may strengthen the positive relationship between IWSOP, authenticity, psychological safety and, indirectly, affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Self-esteem moderates the indirect effect of identity work supportive organizational perceptions on affective commitment through *(a)* living authentically at work and *(b)* psychological safety, such that higher levels of self-esteem will strengthen the indirect effects.

Method

Participants and Procedures

This study implemented a quantitative research design using survey data from 295 working adults to test the hypothesized relationships. The study included a primary sample of full-time working adults, working at least 39 hours per week, recruited through the Prolific internet survey platform (www.prolific.co). Participants were compensated $2 for each time wave completed. Consistent with best practice recommendations for data collection via online platforms (Aguinis et al., 2021), the study included three attention check (screener) items dispersed throughout the survey to enhance data quality (Berinsky et al., 2014). Attention check questions asked participants to select a specific rating (e.g., strongly agree) along a Likert scale. A sample attention check item includes "Please select 'strongly disagree' for this statement if you are paying attention." Participants who failed any attention check items were excluded from the study and were not invited to participate in subsequent time waves. A total of 441 and 336 respondents successfully completed time 1 and time 2 waves, respectively. 295 participants successfully completed the time 3 wave. The final sample included a total of 295 participants who successfully completed all three waves. Participants were 67.1% White, 54.6% female, and 30.9% had children. The average age was 36.8 years old (SD = 10.5) with participants working in various industries.

To address common method bias concerns, surveys were administered to participants across three waves with a two-week time-lag in between each administration (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al., 2003). In line with research recommendations around timing related research choices (Aguinis & Bakker, 2021), the two-week time lag is appropriate because it allowed for sufficient time to minimize carry over effects. The independent variable (e.g., IWSOP), as well as moderator variables (e.g., future work self salience and self-esteem), were collected at Time 1. Time 2 data collection included mediator variables (e.g., living authentically at work and psychological safety). Time 3 included the dependent variable in the hypothesized model, affective commitment.

Measures

Participants responded to study variables using a five-point Likert scale with anchors of (1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree,* unless otherwise noted. The scales used to measure each variable are as followed:

Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions

IWSOP were capture by a 11-item multidimensional scale developed by Jean and colleagues (2022). In their working paper, the scholars created a measure of IWSOP that was tested and validated across five independent samples. Sample items include "I can freely talk about my identity in my workplace." and "There are activities at work that let me showcase who I am to my colleagues" (α = .90).

Future Work Self Salience

Future work self-salience was measured using Strauss et al.'s (2012) adapted future work self 5-item scale. Sample items include "I can easily imagine my Future Work Self," and "I am very clear about who and what I want to become in my future work" (α = .93). Similar to prior

studies, participants also responded to an open-ended question where they were asked to "mentally travel into the future and to imagine the future work self they hoped to become" (e.g., King & Patterson, 2000; King & Raspin, 2004; King & Smith, 2004).

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem was measured using the five positively worded items from Rosenberg's (1979) self-esteem scale because of possible method effects associated with negative item phrasing for self-report surveys (DiStefano & Motl, 2006; Lindwall et al., 2012). Sample items include "I feel that I have a number of good qualities," and "I feel that I'm a person of worth" (α = .89).

Living Authentically at Work

Living authentically at work was measured using van den Bosch & Taris' (2014) 4-item authentic living subscale from the Individual Authenticity Measure at Work (IAM Work) measure. A sample item includes "I behave in accordance with my values and beliefs in the workplace" (α = .84).

Psychological Safety

Psychological safety was measured using the four positively worded items from Edmondson's (1999) team psychological safety scale adapted to the organization. Sample items include "It is safe to take a risk in this organization." and "Working with members of this organization, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized" (α = .78).

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment was measured using 4 items from Meyer and Allen's (1990) scale. A sample item is "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization" (α = .96).

Control Variables

Control variables included job characteristics such as organizational tenure and job

tenure, and demographic variables including age, race, and gender since they are believed to

support related constructs and affective commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001). I also collected a

measure of self-efficacy to be used as a control variable based on its association with self-esteem

(Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

Analysis

I used R (v. 4.0.3) to test the hypothesized relationships among variables. I used the

lavaan package (version 0.6-7) and the full-information maximum likelihood (FIML) function

within lavaan and used the psych package (version 2.0.12) to calculate alpha for each study

variable. Additionally, path analysis procedures recommended by Edwards and Lambert (2007)

were used to test the overall model using the lm function in the base stats package in R. I

obtained bootstrapped estimates of the indirect effect (IE) across levels of the moderators (e.g.,

future work self salience and self-esteem) to further test the hypotheses. Specifically, I used

bootstrapped estimates of 5,000 samples to construct bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals

(CI) around the indirect effects as suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2008).

To evaluate the construct validity of my study variables, I conducted confirmatory factor

analysis (CFA) on all variables of interest (IWSOP, future work self salience, self-esteem, living

authentically at work, psychological safety, and affective commitment). To reduce complexity

(per Little et. al, 2002, Little et. al, 2013; Marsh et al., 1998), because of the number of

parameters being estimated relative to the sample size, I used four parcels for IWSOP based on

the multidimensional nature of the construct. I used an item-to-construct balance approach to

construct parcels where scores for each subdimension were averaged and used as indicators of

latent constructs (Hagtvet & Nasser, 2004; Hall et al., 1999; Kim & Hagtvet, 2003; Little et al.,

2002; Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). Additionally, consistent with item parceling recommendations (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008), I assessed reliability, Cronbach's α, of each parcel (IWSOP: parcel 1: α = .83 | parcel 2: α = .93 | parcel 3: α = .86 | parcel 4: α = .85).

The hypothesized 6-factor measurement model showed good fit to the data, χ^2 = 615.40, df = 260, p < .001, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .05, CFI = .93, TLI = .92 and was a better fitting model when compared to two alternative models where (1) all measures were constrained to load on one factor (χ^2 = 3106.09, df = 275, p < .001, RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .17, CFI = .46, TLI = .41; Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test statistic = 2490.69, df = 15, p < .001) and (2) where the two strongly correlated moderators (e.g., future work self salience and self-esteem) were constrained to load on one factor (χ^2 = 1175.21, df = 265, p < .001, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .09, CFI = .83, TLI = .80; Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test statistic = 559.81, df = 5, p < .001).

Results

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities are presented in Table 3.1. Results of the path analysis are reported in Table 3.2. As can be seen in Table 3.1, there was a strong positive association between living authentically at work and affective commitment (r = .45, p < .01) and between psychological safety and affective commitment (r = .56, p < .01). Examination of the relationship between variables of interest in this study and control variables revealed a significant association between gender (male =1, female = 0) and psychological safety (r = -.14, p < .05). Self-efficacy also showed a strong positive association with study variables (IWSOP: r = .31, p < .01 living authentically at work: r = .41, p < .01; psychological safety: r = .25, p < .01; affective commitment: r = .26, p < .01). However, no significant relationships were found

between study variables and the remaining control variables. Analyses were run controlling for gender and self-efficacy.

Hypothesis Tests

I examined the standardized coefficient estimates for the paths depicted by the conceptual model in Figure 3.1 to determine the results of the hypotheses in this study. Results of the path analysis are presented in Table 3.2. Hypothesis 1 predicted the positive relationship between perceptions of IWSOP and affective commitment would be mediated by employee perceptions of living authentically at work and psychological safety. Bootstrap results (shown in Table 3.3) supported this hypothesis as the indirect effect for the path to IWSOP to affective commitment through living authentically at work was significant (indirect effect = .05, SE = .03, 95% CI [.01, .15]) and the indirect path from IWSOP to affective commitment through psychological safety was also significant (indirect effect = .14, SE = .04, 95% CI [.12, .31]). Interestingly, stronger indirect effect estimates were found for psychological safety as a mediating mechanism than living authentically at work (although both estimates were significant as indicated by bootstrapped confidence intervals).

After finding a significant mediation effect for the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment through living authentically at work and psychological safety, the next step was to determine whether the mediation was moderated by future work self salience and self-esteem in the first stage as predicted in Hypotheses 2 and 3, respectively. Hypothesis 2 predicted future work self salience would moderate the indirect effect of IWSOP on affective commitment through living authentically at work and psychological safety. I predicted higher levels of future work self salience would strengthen the positive indirect effect of IWSOP on affective commitment. As shown in Table 3.2, I did not find a significant interaction between

IWSOP and future work self salience on living authentically at work (β = -.06, p = ns) or psychological safety (β = .04, p = ns). I further explored the interactions by graphing the relationships between IWSOP and living authentically at work and IWSOP and psychologically safety at +/- 1 standard deviation of future work self salience to explore whether the form of the interactions, while not significant, aligned with my predictions in Hypothesis 2. The interactions are depicted in Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3, respectively. I also conducted a simple slope analysis to determine whether the slopes were significantly different than zero. The simple slopes for high and low levels of future work self salience revealed nonsignificant findings for both living authentically at work (high: b = .23, p = ns | low: b = .33 p = ns) and psychological safety (high: b = .45, p = ns | low: b = .38, p = ns). Thus, Hypotheses 2a and 2b were not supported. Essentially, I found no evidence that future work self salience moderated the positive relationship of IWSOP with either living authentically at work or psychological safety. In addition, I examined the indirect effects of the hypothesized mediators, IWSOP and affective commitment across levels of the moderator (e.g., future work self salience). The results of the test of the standardized indirect effect across high, mean, and low levels of future work self salience are presented in Table 3.4. As shown in Table 3.4, there was little variation in the indirect effects when future work self salience was low or high. For instance, the indirect effect for living authentically at work was .05 when future work self salience was low and .04 when future work self salience was high. Similarly, the indirect effect for psychological safety was .13 when future work self salience was low and .15 when future work self salience was high. Participants were also asked an open-ended question to "mentally travel into the future and to imagine the future work self they hoped to become". Interestingly, although the future work self salience prompt called for participants to imagine their best future work self, many participants

instead highlighted family or personal desires outside of work for their future selves. For instance, one participant said

> *"I am surrounded by love, living with a romantic partner and a dog. I live someplace near the water, there is room for our dog to run and play, and we are just outside the city. I can picture myself living on the East Side of Providence in Rhode Island. I have friends and good relationships with my coworkers at the artisan bread bakery I manage. I have a salaried career, a reliable car, and travel a good amount. I have explored much of the northeast, have been to the west coast, and I have gone to Europe at least once. I see my family in New York often, and they have come to visit me a lot, as well. I frequently socialize, go out to eat, try new artistic endeavors, go to concerts, and read."*

Although there is mention of work-related aspects such as good coworker relationships and a salaried career, the focus of that participant's best possible self was strongly tied to aspects of life outside of work. Similarly other participants began their imagined future scenario with things such as *"I'm married to a partner who respects and loves me"*, *"My best possible life would include my kids and my family again"*, and *"I am living in a penthouse in NYC and am happy in my relationships, both romantic and social. I am happy with my job and am also involved with something meaningful"*; suggesting individuals cannot (or may not want to) only consider their work identities when imagining their best future selves. Instead, participants may choose to integrate the boundaries between nonwork and work where nonwork successes are inputs for work successes and vice versa (Hyde et al., 2020; Porath et al., 2012). Essentially, future work self salience may not have shown strong effects because of the ways participants in this sample strongly linked their work and nonwork future selves. Combined with the

quantitative results noted above, these findings suggest participants consider many factors when imagining their future selves. As such, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Lastly, I examined the moderating effect of self-esteem on the indirect effect of IWSOP on affective commitment through living authentically at work and psychological safety. I predicted higher levels of self-esteem would strengthen the positive indirect effect of IWSOP on affective commitment. No evidence was found to support an interaction effect IWSOP and self-esteem on living authentically at work ($\beta = -.02$, $p = ns$) or psychological safety ($\beta = .01$, $p = ns$). Once again, I explored the interactions by graphing the relationships between IWSOP and living authentically at work and IWSOP and psychologically safety at +/- 1 standard deviation of self-esteem to explore whether the form of the interactions aligned with the proposed predictions in hypothesis 3. The interactions are shown in Figure 3.4 and Figure 3.5. I again conducted a simple slope analysis to determine whether the slopes were significantly different than zero. The simple slopes for high and low levels of self-esteem revealed nonsignificant findings for both living authentically at work (high: $b = .27$, $p = ns$ | low: $b = .30$, $p = ns$) and psychological safety (high: $b = .40$, $p = ns$ | low: $b = .38$, $p = ns$). Thus, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were not supported. I then explored the indirect effects with the hypothesized mediators between IWSOP and affective commitment across high, mean, and low levels of self-esteem (presented in Table 3.5). As reported in Table 3.5, there was little change among the indirect effect estimates when self-esteem was high or low. For example, low self-esteem produced an indirect effect estimate of .08 for living authentically at work and an estimate of .07 when self-esteem was high. Similar findings existed for psychological safety where the indirect effect was .18 when self-esteem was low and .19 when self-esteem was high. In sum, levels of self-esteem did not seem to impact the indirect relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment through living authentically at

work and psychological safety. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Taken together, the proposed moderators (e.g., future work self salience and self-esteem) did not seem to have a conditional effect on the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment through living authentically at work or psychological safety.

Discussion

This study investigated the impact of IWSOP on living authentically at work and psychological safety, as well as affective commitment. I predicted and found evidence to support that living authentically at work and psychological safety may operate as explanatory mechanisms for the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment. In fact, findings revealed psychological safety was a stronger mediating mechanism as compared to living authentically at work. This finding suggests perceptions around organizational support of identity work activities may have a greater impact on perceived safety in the organization. Essentially, employees may associate a lack of support for identity work activities by the organization as an indication that it is unsafe to take risks and make mistakes in the organization. The study further explored whether individual characteristics (e.g., levels of future work self salience and self-esteem) would moderate the relationship of IWSOP with the mediators. I predicted future work self salience would moderate the indirect effect IWSOP on affective commitment where higher levels of future work self salience would strengthen the positive relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment through living authentically at work and psychology safety. I further predicted self-esteem would moderate the indirect effect of IWSOP on affective commitment through the proposed mediators such that higher levels of self-esteem would strengthen the indirect relationship. However, the data did not show support for either future work self salience or self-esteem as boundary conditions in this study.

Theoretical Implications

The current study provides early evidence of the strong, positive relationship of IWSOP with living authentically at work, psychological safety, affective commitment. Further, the study identified strong and positive associations between IWSOP and individual characteristics such as future work self salience and self-esteem. Findings from this study provide evidence that employee perceptions around organizational support for identity-related activities relate to work outcomes, namely affective commitment and that this relationship occurs through living authentically at work and psychological safety. Employees with high IWSOP may show stronger commitment to the organization because of an increased affinity based on perceived support from the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades et al., 2001). That is, employees who perceive the organization as being supportive of identity work may believe the organization cares for them holistically, not just as an employee. Thus, employees high on IWSOP may also express higher affinity for the organization because of the perceived support.

The current study makes several noteworthy contributions to the identity and organizational support literatures. First, this study uniquely tests perceptions of organizational support for identity work using empirical data and a diverse sample of working professionals. Prior studies have largely utilized qualitative methods when examining identity work and, to date, no studies have investigated perceptions employees may have of organizational support for identity work occurring in the workplace. The present study also adds to organizational support literature by identifying and testing outcomes of IWSOP, a unique kind of organizational support centered around identity work. Consistent with prior research (see Kurtessis et al., 2017), the present study highlights organizational support as a determinant of employee (e.g., living authentically at work and psychological safety) and work (e.g., affective commitment) outcomes.

More research is needed, however, to explain individual differences that may influence the relationships among IWSOP, living authentically at work, psychological safety, and affective commitment. This study explored future work self salience and self-esteem as individual differences that might moderate the hypothesized relationship. However, no evidence was found to support that.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The results of this study provide further understanding of employee IWSOP, but additional research is needed to extend the implications of the construct and draw conclusions. Although the present study introduced two psychological processes that explain why IWSOP is linked to affective commitment, there are a couple limitations worth noting. First, this study provides a limited exploration of boundary conditions impacting the relationship between IWSOP and commitment. Specifically, the study focused on two individual characteristics, future work selves and self-esteem, as boundary conditions but did not consider other organizational factors such as team or leader dynamics that could affect the extent to which IWSOP influence commitment. For instance, the relationships found between employees and their team members or leaders may further represent a boundary condition to the effects of IWSOP on employee commitment. Team members may provide emotional support or help employees assess identity triggering experiences in the workplaces. These relationships, whether positive or negative, may influence the lens through which employees interpret their organizational experiences and respond to events in the workplace. Employees who feel they can engage in identity-related activities with their team members because they perceive greater support from team members may also report a psychological attachment to the organization (Meyer et al., 2002).

Similarly, employees who develop high-quality relationships with their team may also develop high-quality relationships with their leader (Banks et al., 2014). Employees who have high-quality relationships with their leaders are often more satisfied with their job, work harder in service to the organization, and show greater commitment to the organization (Liden et al., 1997). Therefore, in addition to considering the quality of employee relationships with team members, it may also be important to consider how leader relationships relate to IWSOP and commitment outcomes. It may be that the relationship between employees and their leaders or teams may work to moderate the effect of IWSOP on employee commitment by buffering against negative perceptions when high-quality relationships exist or by emphasizing the lack of support present in the organization when low-quality relationships exist between the employee and their leader or team. Thus, future research is needed to explore factors beyond individual characteristics that might affect the extent to which IWSOP lead to affective commitment.

Another limitation worth noting is that, while I used an established scale to evaluate future work self salience, this measure may not be the best indicator for measuring this phenomenon. The qualitative data from this measure seem to suggest further exploration is needed to understand how employees align present and future work selves and how imagined future selves influence individual perceptions and work outcomes. The responses offered by participants, as noted above, seem to introduce new dimensions not captured by the five-item scale. For instance, many participants seem to intertwine nonwork and work goals when imagining their future work selves. Survey items collected using the 5-item scale highlight strong relationships between self-reported future work self salience and the variables of interest in this study (e.g., IWSOP, living authentically at work, psychological safety, affective commitment); however, the qualitative data suggests participants may have also mostly considered nonwork

selves when imagining future work selves. Thus, the quantitative data in conjunction with the qualitative data suggest further exploration is needed to understand how individual characteristics impact IWSOP and work outcomes. Perhaps, future work self salience is best captured through qualitative study designs where the researcher can engage in greater probing and participants can further ideate to offer meaningful insights. Future research should consider implementing a multidimensional mixed methods design to specifically capture how employees envision their future careers while also investigating how participants envision future selves *outside of work* that could impact outcomes of IWSOP within the organization. Further, future research might include examining the salience of work and nonwork roles or related variables that highlight the balance between work and nonwork.

A third limitation of this study is the potential generalizability of findings from the present research. The study was limited to United States participants and the sample size was primarily made up of White Americans. Furthermore, the timing of the data collection may have had an impact on responses as the data was collected during the time of COVID19 when employees were returning to work and perhaps adjusting their lifestyles. Data were collected in 2021 following the removal of lockdown mandates and employees were beginning to return to offices. This could explain the overwhelming focus on nonwork-related future selves captured in the qualitative data because so many employees had been working from home. Future research should attempt to capture a broader non-US sample and pay special attention to societal events that could impact study outcomes. Such considerations may uncover new moderators of the relationships hypothesized in this study and strengthen the generalizability of study findings.

Finally, given findings in the qualitative data which suggest individuals consider both work and nonwork factors when imagining their future selves, future research may also consider

whether the composition of identities in identity networks (Bataille & Vough, 2020) is relevant to perceptions of organizational support for identity work. The framework presented in this research considers perceptions around identity work broadly, without regard for the specific identity being constructed. However, the saliency of different identities may be a factor that influences the IWSOP. Hierarchies amongst the different roles one occupies create identity salience where more prominent identities are enacted more frequently in different situations than others (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). Identity salience may be important to engagement in identity-related activities and in how people respond to IWSOP. For instance, a study of founder-run firms suggests founder salient identities drove firms' strategic response to adversity where the founders used their firms to construct or defend their identities (Powell & Baker, 2014). The salience of the founder identity magnified the identity threat and in turn directed the agenda for the founder-run organization. As such, the authors found identity salience impacted how founders responded in situations of identity threat. Similarly, identity salience may be relevant to how people's perceptions of the organization's support of identity constructing activities relate to outcomes such as commitment. Therefore, it may be interesting to uncover whether *any* identity-related organizational support shapes employee perceptions around identity work or are perceptions specifically formed by triggered salient identities.

Conclusion

The present study used a sample of full-time employees to examine the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment and the ways in which authenticity and psychological safety mediate this relationship. I further investigated the extent to which these mediated effects would be contingent on individual employee differences such as future work self salience and self-esteem. Findings supported predictions that living authentically at work

and psychological safety mediate the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment. Future research is needed to identify potential boundary conditions that might strengthen understanding around the influence of IWSOP in organizations.

Table 3.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Identity work supportive organizational perceptions (T1)	3.44	0.76	(.90)											
2. Future work self salience (T1)	3.94	0.82	.30**	(.93)										
3. Self-esteem (T1)	4.01	0.72	.33**	.51**	(.89)									
4. Living authentically at work (T2)	4.07	0.69	.42**	.39**	.37**	(.84)								
5. Psychological safety (T2)	3.46	0.79	.45**	.21**	.36**	.44**	(.78)							
6. Affective commitment (T3)	3.20	1.16	.57**	.29**	.30**	.45**	.56**	(.96)						
7. Race	5.00	1.52	.07	.06	-.02	.11	.05	.14*						
8. Gender	0.55	0.50	-.08	-.04	-.04	-.11	-.14*	-.08	.02					
9. Age	36.78	10.46	-.01	.14*	.12*	.11	.08	-.00	.12*	-.09				
10. Organization tenure	6.05	5.79	.04	.13*	.01	.05	-.00	.08	.14*	-.12*	.44**			
11. Job tenure	5.17	5.90	.02	.11	.06	.05	-.04	.02	.13*	-.12*	.44**	.76**		
12. Self-efficacy (T1)	3.95	0.66	.31**	.58**	.75**	.41**	.25**	.26**	.07	.02	.02	.00	.04	(.93)

Note. N = 295. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates presented on the diagonal. Gender = Male (1), Female (0). T1= time 1. T2= time 2. T3 = time 3.

*** $p < .001$.

** $p < .01$.

* $p < .05$.

Table 3.2

Path Analysis Coefficients for Hypothesized Model

	Living Authentically at Work (Time 2)		Psychological Safety (Time 2)		Affective Commitment (Time 3)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Constant	3.74 (.36)	4.20 (.31)	4.64 (.41)	3.30 (.37)	0.63 (.62)	.61 (.54)
Race	.06 (.02)	.06 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.01 (.27)	.09 (.03)*	.09 (.03)*
Gender	-.09 (.07)	-.09 (.07)	-.11 (08)*	-.12 (.08)*	.02 (10)	.02 (.10)
Age	.10 (.00)	.09 (.00)	.09 (.00)	.13 (.00)*	-.10 (.01)*	-.09 (.01)
Organizational tenure	-.00 (.01)	-.03 (.01)	.03 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.14 (.01)*	.12 (.01)
Job tenure	-.03 (.01)	-.02 (.01)	-.14 (.01)	-.13 (.01)	-.06(.01)	-.05 (.01)
Self-efficacy	.29 (.08)***	.23 (.06)***	-.08 (.09)	.13 (.08)*	-.05(.12)	-.04 (.10)
Identity work supportive organizational perceptions (centered)	.31 (.05)***	.31 (.05)***	.37 (.06)***	.39 (.06)***	.34 (.08)***	.33 (.08)***
Future work self salience (centered)		.14 (.05)*		.01 (.06)		.08 (.08)
Self-esteem (centered)	.03 (.08)		.30(.09)***		.07 (.11)	
Identity work supportive organizational perceptions X Future work self salience		-.06 (.05)		.04 (.06)		
Identity work supportive organizational perceptions X Self-esteem	-.02 (.05)		.01 (.06)			
Living authentically at work (Time 2)					.16 (.08)**	.15 (.08)**
Psychological safety (Time 2)					.34 (.08)***	.35 (.07)***
R^2	.29	.30	.28	.25	.47	.47

Note. N= 295. Values are standardized regression coefficients followed by standard errors in parentheses. Estimates were obtained from a path model where we obtained standard errors using the ML estimator.

$^{***}p < .001.$
$^{**}p < .01.$
$^*p < .05.$

Table 3.3

Indirect Effects of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment

	Indirect Effect	Standard Error	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work	.05	.03	0.01	0.15
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Psychological Safety	.14	.04	0.12	0.31

Note. $N = 295$. Standardized indirect effects are reported with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). All CIs are based on 5,000 empirical bootstrap samples. Indirect effects are significant when the CI does not include zero. LLCI = lower-level confidence interval. ULCI = upper-limit confidence interval.

Table 3.4

Conditional Indirect Effects of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment Through Mediators Across Levels of Future Work Self Salience

	Indirect Effect	Standard Error	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Living Authentically at Work				
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work at -1 SD of Future Work Self Salience	0.05	0.03	0.01	0.16
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work at mean level of Future Work Self Salience	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.14
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work at +1 SD of Future Work Self Salience	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.14
Psychological Safety				
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Psychological Safety at -1 SD of Future Work Self Salience	0.13	0.05	0.10	0.29
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Psychological Safety at mean level of Future Work Self Salience	0.14	0.04	0.12	0.31
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Psychological Safety at +1 SD of Future Work Self Salience	0.15	0.05	0.12	0.35

Note. $N = 295$. Standardized indirect effects are reported with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). All CIs are based on 5,000 empirical bootstrap samples. Indirect effects are significant when the CI does not include zero. LLCI = lower-level confidence interval. ULCI = upper-limit confidence interval.

Table 3.5

Conditional Indirect Effects of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment Through Mediators Across Levels of Self-esteem

	Indirect Effect	Standard Error	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Living Authentically at Work				
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work at -1 SD of Self-esteem	0.08	0.03	0.01	0.16
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work at mean levels of Self-esteem	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.15
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Authentically at Work at +1 SD of Self-esteem	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.16
Psychological Safety				
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Psychological Safety at -1 SD of Self-esteem	0.18	0.04	0.10	0.29
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Psychological Safety at mean levels of Self-esteem	0.19	0.04	0.10	0.28
Indirect effect of Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions on Affective Commitment through Living Psychological Safety at +1 SD of Self-esteem	0.19	0.04	0.01	0.30

Note. $N = 295$. Standardized indirect effects are reported with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). All CIs are based on 5,000 empirical bootstrap samples. Indirect effects are significant when the CI does not include zero. LLCI = lower-level confidence interval. ULCI = upper-limit confidence interval.

Table 3.6

OLS Regression Coefficients from Hierarchical Regression Models for Hypothesized Relationships

	Living Authentically at Work (Time 2)			Psychological Safety (Time 2)			Affective Commitment (Time 3)	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Constant	2.06*** (.28)	2.88*** (.38)	2.96*** (.39)	2.06*** (.33)	3.63*** (.44)	3.59*** (.45)	1.01 (.64)	1.02 (.66)
Race	.04 (.02)	.03 (.02)	.03 (.02)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.07** (.03)	.07** (.03)
Gender	-.15** (.07)	-.11 (.07)	-.12* (.07)	-.25*** (.09)	-.17** (.08)	-.17** (.08)	.05 (.10)	.04 (.10)
Age	.01 (.004)	.01 (.004)	.01 (.004)	.01* (.005)	.01 (.004)	.01 (.004)	-.01** (.01)	-.01** (.01)
Organizational tenure	.002 (.01)	-.002 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.004 (.01)	.005 (.01)	.02* (.01)	.02* (.01)
Job tenure	-.005 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	-.02* (.01)	-.02* (.01)	-.02* (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)
Self-efficacy	.43*** (.06)	.23*** (.09)	.22** (.09)	.31*** (.07)	-.09 (.10)	-.08 (.10)	-.14 (.13)	-.14 (.13)
Identity work supportive organizational perceptions (centered)		.27*** (.05)	.28*** (.05)		.39*** (.06)	.38*** (.06)	.50*** (.08)	.50*** (.08)
Future work self salience (centered)		.13** (.05)	.12** (.06)		-.02 (.06)	-.01 (.07)	.10 (.08)	.11 (.08)
Self-esteem (centered)		.01 (.08)	.02 (.08)		.33*** (.09)	.33*** (.09)	.10 (.11)	.09 (.12)
Identity work supportive organizational perceptions X Future work self salience			-.06 (.07)			.04 (.08)		.02 (.10)
Identity work supportive organizational perceptions X Self-esteem			-.004 (.06)			-.002 (.07)		-.03 (.09)
Living authentically at work (Time 2)							.24*** (.09)	.24*** (.09)
Psychological safety (Time 2)							.49*** (.08)	.49*** (.08)
R^2	.20	.30	.30	.10	.28	.28	.48	.48
Adjusted R^2	.18	.28	.28	.09	.26	.26	.46	.46
F Statistic	12.02*** (df = 6; 288)	13.63*** (df = 9; 285)	11.24*** (df = 11; 283)	5.58*** (df = 6; 288)	12.57*** (df = 9; 285)	10.25*** (df = 11; 283)	23.69*** (df = 11; 283)	19.92*** (df = 13; 281)

Note: N= 295. Values in the table represent unstandardized regression coefficients followed by their respective standard errors.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 3.1. Hypothesized first-stage moderated mediation model of identity work supportive organizational perceptions to affective commitment through living authentically at work and psychological safety.

Figure 3.2

Interaction Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions and Future Work Self Salience on Living Authentically at Work

Figure 3.3

Interaction Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions and Future Work Self Salience on Psychological Safety
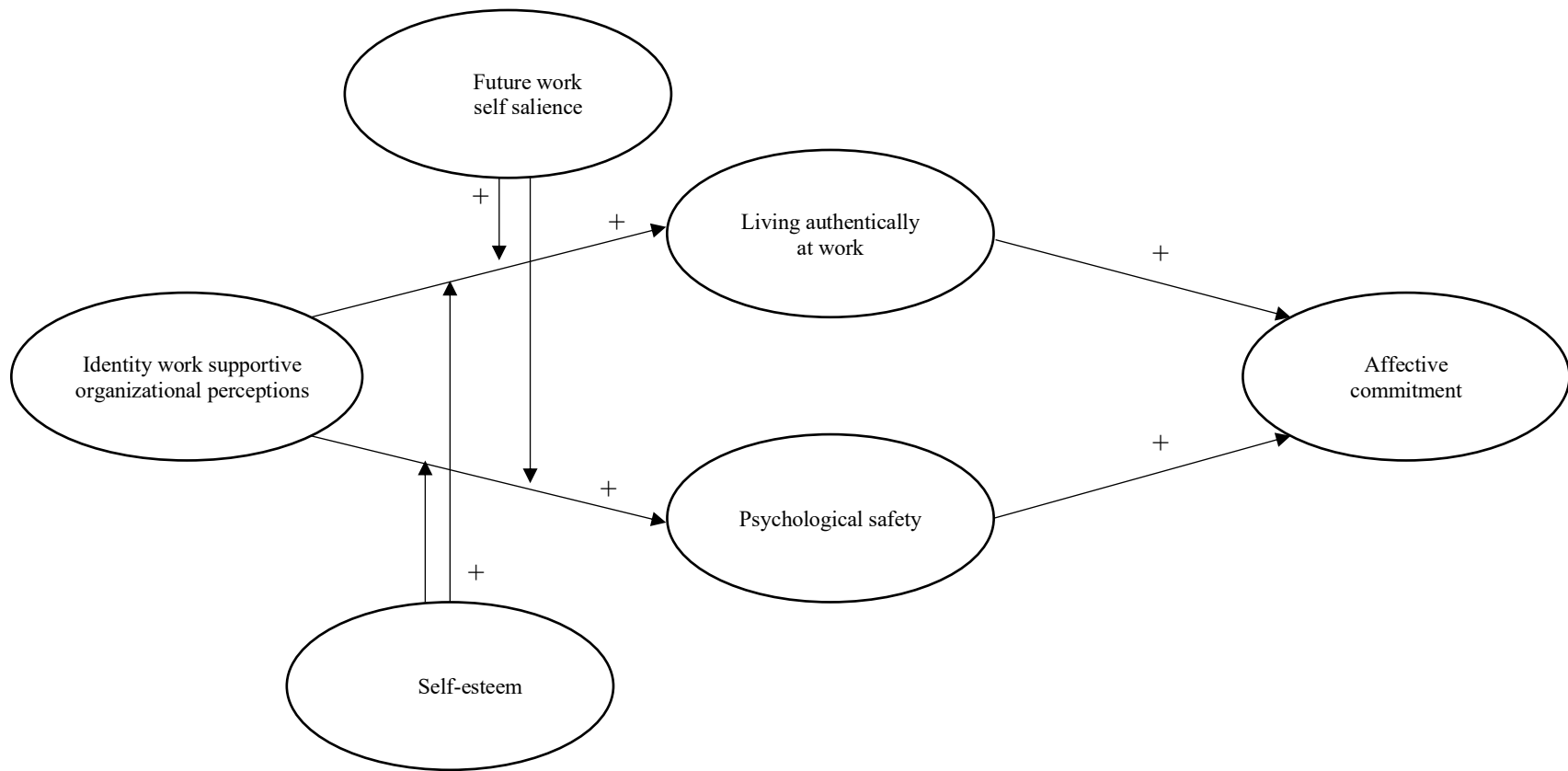
Figure 3.4

Interaction Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions and Self-esteem on Living Authentically at Work

Figure 3.5

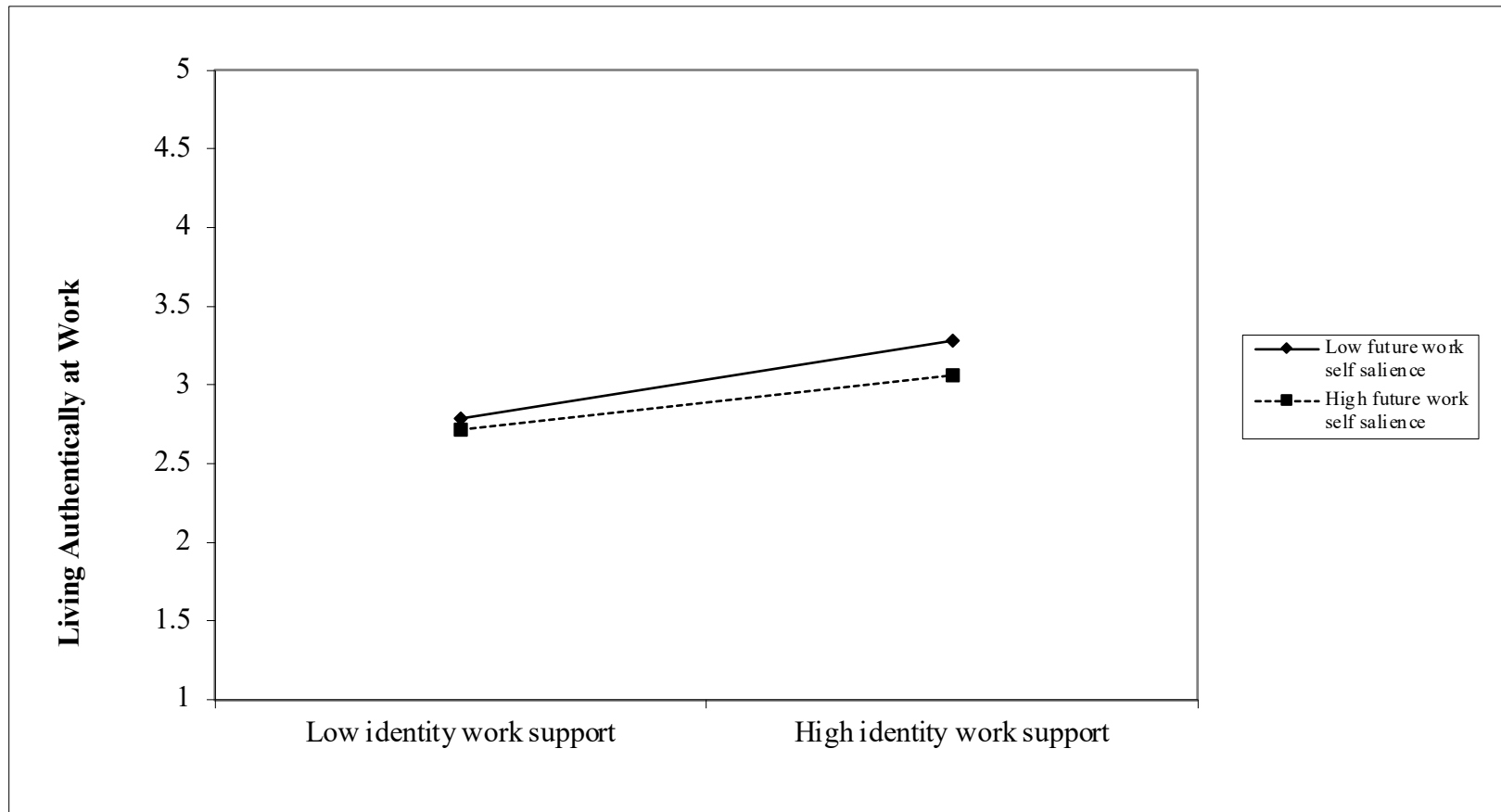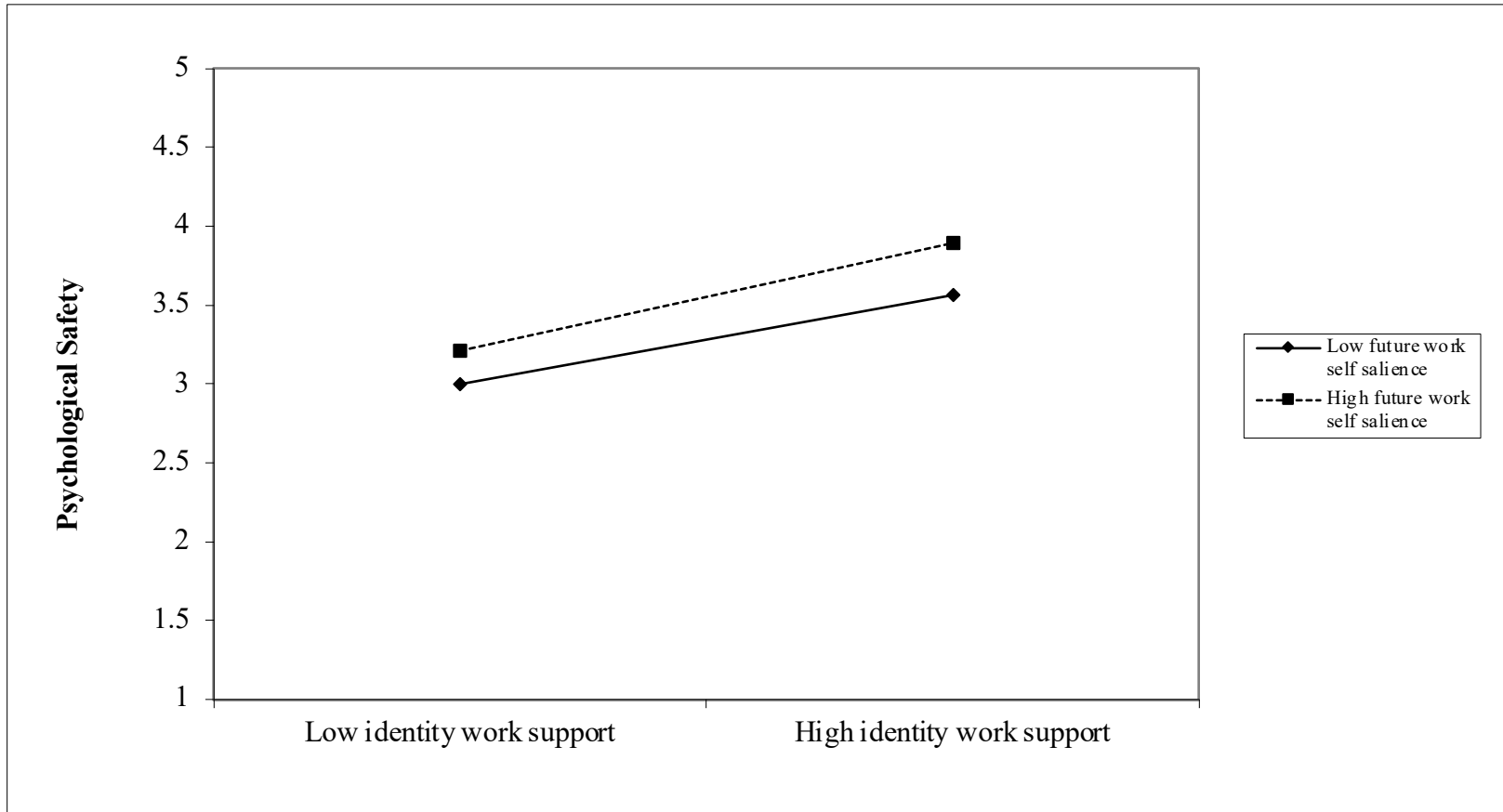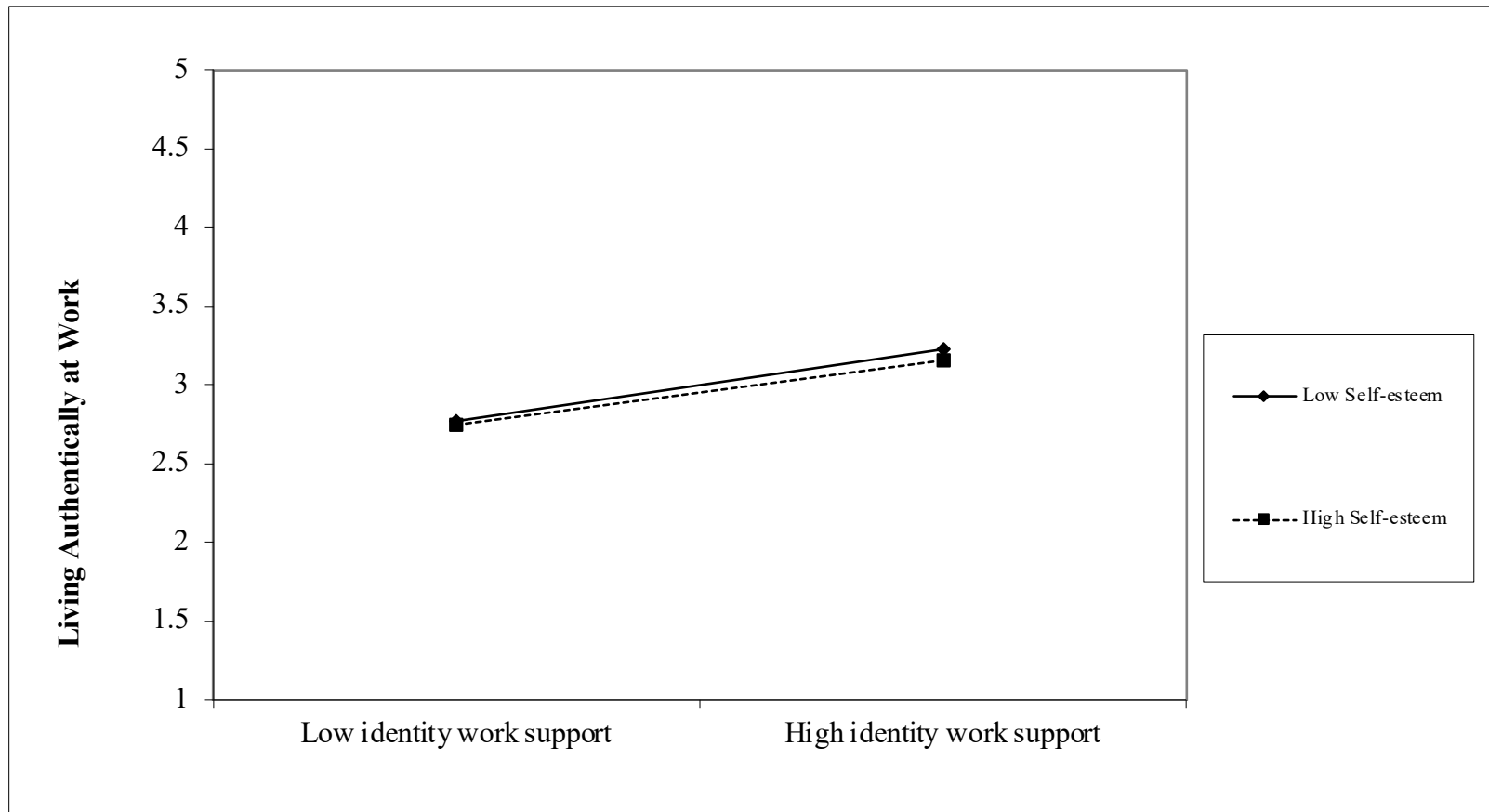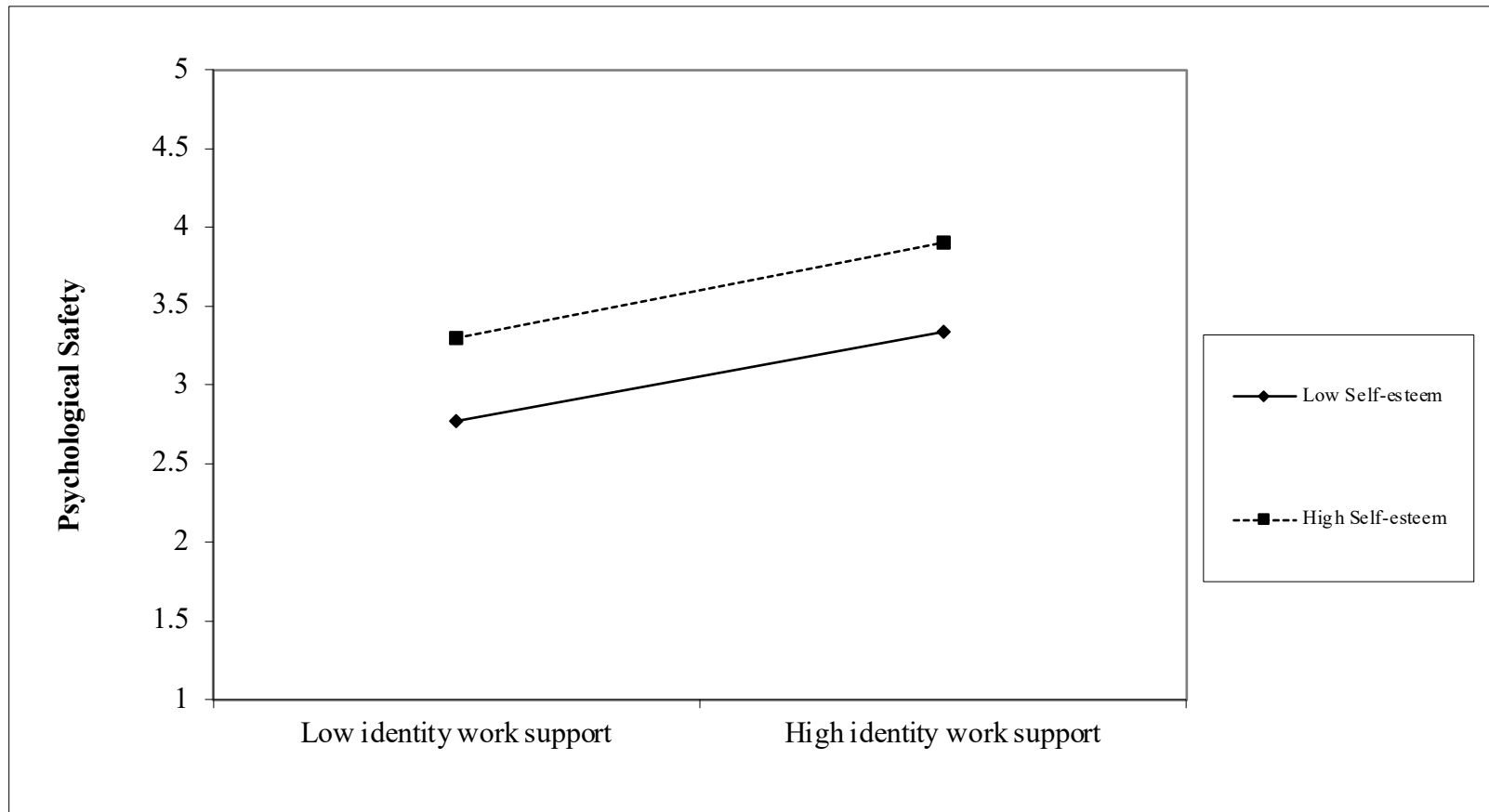*Interaction Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions and Self-esteem on Psychological Safety*

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT FOR IDENTITY WORK

AND JOB CHOICE-RELATED OUTCOMES AT DIFFERENT CAREER STAGES

Esther L. Jean

Chapter 4: The Relationship Between Organizational Support for Identity Work and Job Choice-Related Outcomes at Different Career Stages

Abstract

Today's job seekers seem to expect organizations to care about more than their role as an employee, but to also consider the various identities they bring to their work. The present research contends individuals may be attracted to organizations that allow space for them to develop their own sense of self while at work. Organizational support for identity work may signal a match between the job seeker and the organization since support of identity work may indicate support for the individual and the multiple identities the job seeker may bring to the work setting. The present study used an experimental design to investigate whether organizational support for identity work would influence whether the job seeker also perceived the organization as an attractive place to work and influence the job seeker's job pursuit intentions. Findings revealed organizational support for identity work influenced organizational attractiveness but not job pursuit intentions. Future research is needed to investigate the boundary conditions by which this relationship holds true.

Keywords: identity work support, organizational attractiveness, job pursuit intentions, career stages

The Relationship Between Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions and Job

Choice-Related Outcomes at Different Career Stages

Today's job seekers are beginning to expect more from organizations, whether it be position flexibility or even lifestyle benefits (Dickler, 2019). Job seekers seem to expect organizations to care about more than their role as an employee, but to also consider the various identities they bring to their work (Jackson & Tran, 2020). Thus, the present research contends individuals may be attracted to organizations that allow space for them to develop their own sense of self while at work. Consequently, organizations that fail to allow opportunities for such identity exploration, construction, or development may be viewed as undesirable places to work (Ogunnaike, 2020) and therefore may be deemed as less attractive organizations.

Research suggests organizations may play a key role in providing opportunities for individuals to engage in activities that allow for strengthening, maintaining, revising, or establishing identities (Ashforth & Pratt, 2003; Brown, 2015; Kreiner & Sheep, 2009). Generally, identities are the self-definitions used to answer the question "Who am I?". Complex and multifaceted, identities can be based on personal attributes, group membership, or internalized roles (Stryker & Burke, 2000; Tajfel 1982). In the work context, individuals are constantly constructing their identities such as when assimilating to a new company or when transitioning roles (Beyer & Hannah, 2002; Ebaugh & Ebaugh, 1988; Ibarra, 1999; Pratt et al., 2006). As such, there is growing interest in understanding how individuals construct their identities while at work. Identity work, which captures identity construction that occurs in the workplace, considers the activities individuals may engage in to form, affirm, maintain, strengthen, reject, or revise their identities or self-meanings (Caza et al., 2018; Snow & Anderson, 1987; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). For example, experiences at work may lead

individuals to question an identity (or multiple identities) and therefore engage in identity work to resolve the question. Similarly, a front-line worker promoted to middle manager may question whether they embody the leadership identity required for the role while also grappling with how to manage coworker relationships given the new leader role. Indeed, the organization may be integral to employee's identity work and how individuals create and maintain their self-meanings.

Self-categorization theory suggests identities are added to one's identity network based on a social referent group to manage uncertainty and strengthen self-esteem (Hogg & Terry, 2001; Turner, 1985). Ashforth and Mael (1989) contend social identification is the result of individual categorization and that this leads to identity congruence, the strengthening of one's identity, and ultimately a commitment to organizations or groups which espouse similar identity characteristics. As such, individuals evaluating whether to join an organization will likely consider their own network of identities and the extent to which the identities within their network will be supported by the organization. In fact, many of the ways in which organizations encourage employees to "bring their whole self to work" and organizational efforts to manage diversity may be constructed by employees as organizational support for identity work. Perceptions around whether an organization will provide space and opportunity to engage in identity work are captured by identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP). IWSOP is defined as *the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to think about, talk about, or display aspects of their work and non-work related identities, or to engage in activities that foster understanding and sharing of their identities.* In the context of seeking new job opportunities, job seekers can learn about whether organizations support identity work through conversations with current employees. Job

seekers may associate an organization's support of identity work as a sign of personal support for their own unique identities. As such, I suggest that organizational support for identity fosters organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions.

In this study, I argue organizations that support identity work are viewed as more attractive and foster behavioral intentions to pursue jobs among job seekers. Organizational support for identity work will signal a match between the job seeker and the organization since support of identity work may indicate support for the individual and the multiple identities the job seeker may bring to the work setting. For instance, Chapter 2 (Essay 1) provides evidence of a positive and significant relationship between perceived organizational support and identity work supportive organizational perceptions. Therefore, organizations that support employees' identity work activities should be seen as more attractive and job seekers may show a stronger interest in pursuing future employment with that organization.

This research further argues individual differences among job seekers will exist based on the prevalence of non-work versus work identities in the job seeker's identity network. According to Bataille & Vough (2020), identity work activities aimed at revising or strengthening identities seldom operate in isolation where only one identity is worked on at a given time. Instead, scholars suggest identities are worked on concurrently and attempts at revising one identity may also affect other identities within the network of identities (Ladge et al., 2012). While identity work addresses revisions to and the strengthening of single identities, intra-identity work looks at the relationships among all identities in the identity network (Bataille & Vough, 2020). Based on the recognition that a network of interrelated identities relates to work outcomes (Ramarajan, 2014), individuals who have more salient non-work identities in their identity network likely place greater emphasis on organizational support for identity work.

This is because work identities may already be assumed to be supported because such identities are necessary to satisfy the associated responsibilities of the role. But similar assumptions may not exist for non-work identities that are not directly tied to work functions.

Finally, career stage might also influence the relationship between organizational support for identity work and their job choice-related decisions. In this study, I argue career stage will moderate the relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related variables (e.g., organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions) such that the relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related attitudes and behavioral intentions will be stronger for early career job seekers as compared to job seekers who are in later stages of their career. The study combines research around identity work, job choice, and career stages to examine how organizational support for identity-related activities relates to pre-employment behaviors and job seekers' evaluation of the organization. The present research addresses the following questions: *"How might organizational support for identity work affect organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions?"* and *"To what extent is the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes contingent on the job seeker's identity network composition or career stage?"*

This research makes several contributions. First, the present research advances identity work research by considering how perceptions of organizational support for identity work might influence individuals prior to joining the organization. To date, research around identity work in organizations largely focuses on current employees (Brown, 2015). This research considers how organizational signals related to identity work support offered by a prospective employer might impact job search behaviors *prior* to joining an organization. Second, understanding factors that impact a job seeker's decision to choose an organization as their employer is meaningful for

organizational recruitment efforts. Finally, this research uncovers individual differences among applicants, specifically network composition and career stage, that might impact the extent to which support for identity work relates to job choice-related outcomes. As scholars and organizations alike attempt to identify strategies for attracting and retaining employees (DeGrassi, 2019; Forbes Coaches Council, 2020; Keller & Meaney, 2018; Yu, 2014), this research presents identity and job seeker perceptions of organizational support for identity work activities as one such strategy for recruiting top talent.

Hypothesis Development

Job seekers who are evaluating the attractiveness of an organization and whether to pursue future employment with the organization are influenced by a variety of factors (Chapman et al., 2005). Organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions are often evaluated jointly as distinct but related job choice-related variables (Aiman-Smith et al., 2001). Organizational attractiveness describes an individual's positive attitudes or affects towards an organization, where the organization is viewed as a desirable place to work (Aiman-Smith et al., 2001). Related, job pursuit intentions reflect a job seeker's desire or willingness to pursue a position with an organization (Aiman-Smith et al., 2001).

When considering organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions, characteristics of the organization are used by job seekers as a signal confirming personal fit with the organization (Cable & Judge, 1994; Lievens et al., 2001). Signals are a way for job seekers to examine organizational factors and make judgments on whether these factors align with their own values, goals, and/or beliefs. According to signaling theory, individuals will use any information they have available to determine the characteristics of the organization (Spence, 1973; Turban, 2001). A job seeker will take in information about the organization during the

recruitment and selection process and infer what the organization's environment is like. The job seeker will use the information to compare themselves with the organization to determine whether there is a match or fit (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes et al., 1991). A match or fit between the organization and the job seeker is a key consideration the job seeker might use for job choice-related perceptions and intentions such as organizational attractiveness or job pursuit intentions (Cable & Judge, 1994; Cable & Judge, 1996). A job seeker may perceive an organization as more attractive if the characteristics of the organization match the job seeker's personal values or individual characteristics (Ehrhart & Ziegart, 2005). Support for identity work activities can serve as one such factor signaling a match between the characteristics of the organization and the job seeker's personal characteristics and values. When making job choice-related decisions, job seekers who believe there is support for identity work activities may perceive a stronger match between themselves and the organization since support for identity work may also signal support for the personal identities of the job seeker. Based on this perceived match, resulting from perceived support of identity work, job seekers may rate the organization as more attractive and display stronger job pursuit intentions.

In addition to job seeker beliefs around fit and match based on the support of identity work, job seekers who think an organization is supportive of their identity work may also feel confident in their ability to meet the expectations of the organization. If a job seeker feels confident in their probability of success in a given position, that confidence may influence their job choice-related decisions (Hackett & Betz, 1995) where they may view the organization as more attractive and may show greater interest in pursuing employment with the organization. However, if the job seeker does not believe they are capable of meeting organization expectations, they may doubt their ability to succeed in the role, and their interest in the

organization may decline (Hackett & Betz, 1995). Consequently, when there is a mismatch between job seeker's identities and organizational expectations, the job seeker may engage in identity work to resolve the mismatch between their identities and the expectations of the organization (Creed et al., 2010). As such, in the case of pre-employment, if a job seeker receives signals leading them to believe identity work activities are discouraged by the organization, the job seeker may question whether they will face challenges in aligning their valued identities with organization expectations. Questioning the match between job seeker identities and organization expectations based on organizational support for identity work could threaten the attractiveness of the organization as well as decisions to pursue employment with the organization. Therefore, I posit:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Organizational support for identity work is positively related to *(a)* organizational attractiveness and *(b)* job pursuit intentions.

According to the theoretical work of Bataille and Vough (2020), the construction of identities does not operate in isolation where each identity is worked on separately; instead, identity construction is thought of as interconnected with revisions to multiple identities happening simultaneously. Multiple identities are believed to exist as interconnected networks where one identity could potentially support or reinforce another identity in the network (Bataille & Vough, 2020). Similarly, hierarchies are believed to exist among identities where one or more identities can be more salient than others in the identity network (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). The interconnectedness of identities challenges notions of identity work activities focused on one identity at a time given the arguments of (1) revisions to one identity influencing other identities or that (2) identity revisions can change salience hierarchies within the network (Bataille & Vough, 2020). An example of the interconnectedness of identities and the challenges of single

identity work activities could include an individual's personal identities such as a parent influencing the ways in which the employee activates their salient role identity as a working professional. For instance, a new parent may engage in identity work to make sense of their new parent identity. However, if that parent is also a working professional, they may explore their parent identity while also attempting to maintain their identity as a working professional. Essentially, as one identity is affirmed or rejected (e.g., a conflict between the personal identity and the role identity), implications exist for the position and salience of other identities within the identity network (e.g., the personal identity moves up the hierarchy as most salient because of its increasing effect on the role identity). Therefore, it is important to evaluate identity networks, not just single identities, when considering identity work. Identity work, or perhaps inter-identity work that is "targeted at addressing the relationships between identities" (Bataille & Vough, 2020: 14) can aid in aligning identity tensions between work and non-work identity domains. The examination of identity networks is important because multiple identities can create an authenticity struggle where the individual grapples with feeling simultaneously authentic in both work and personal contexts (Caza et al., 2018). Inter-identity work can help to resolve authenticity struggles among multiple identities; however, organizational structures can aid or hinder the reconciliation process of competing identities based on their support or rejection of identity-related activities (Bergers et al., 2017).

As previously described, organizational support for identity work could signal a match (or mismatch) between job seekers and the organization. However, the composition of the job seeker's identity network could influence job choice-related outcomes differently depending on the domain of the most salient identities in the identity network. Identities can fall into several domains such as work, family, or leisure (Bataille & Vough, 2020); however, the present

research confines identity domains to work-related and non-work-related identity domains. Work-related identities are "the aspects of identity and self-definition that are tied to the participation in the activities of work (i.e., a job) or membership in work-related groups, organizations, occupations, or professions" (Dutton et al., 2010: 266) while non-work identities are all other identities that fall outside of the work domain, including family, personal, and leisure identities. For example, a school principal might report their work-related identities as teacher, leader, or manager while reporting nonwork-related identities as volunteer, parent, or woman. The composition of a job seeker's identity network will include both work and non-work identities. When a job seeker's identity network shows non-work versus work-related identity domains as most salient, I expect job seeker identity networks comprised of mostly non-work identities will have more of an influence on the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes. Specifically, the relationship between organizational support for identity work activities and organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions is stronger when identity networks consist of mostly non-work identities as compared to networks containing mostly work identities. It has been argued that individuals believe work-related identities are more important than identities based on personal characteristics (Johnson et. al, 2006); however, I argue people's priorities differ (Antonacopoulou, 2000). Therefore, some will have an identity network with more salient work identities while others will have identity networks with more nonwork identities.

Additionally, many non-work identities exist as cross-cutting identities within the identity network (Ashforth & Johnson, 2002). Cross-cutting identities are those identities that exist beyond the organization such as external committee membership, family ties, or demographic group membership (Ashforth & Johnson, 2002). Found in the non-work identity domain, cross-

cutting identities are especially salient in the identity network because they are often universal and interconnected with other work and non-work identities. When cross-cutting identities are present in a job seeker's identity network, the job seeker may be especially susceptible to cues of identity work support from the organization. The job seeker may minimally expect the organization to support work-related identities because of the formal links to role responsibilities (e.g., an employee expecting the organization to allow them to attend a leadership training class because of their role as a supervisor). However, job seekers with identity networks comprised of mostly salient non-work identities may favor organizations perceived as supportive of identity work more than job seekers with identity networks comprise of mostly work-related identities. This is because nonwork identities are not directly tied to work objectives; thus, organizational support for identity work around these identities is viewed as going above and beyond what is expected. Therefore, when the organization is believed to support identity work activities, I argue job seeker identity networks consisting of mostly salient non-work identities will strengthen the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes. Therefore, I posit:

> *Hypothesis 2:* Job seeker identity network composition moderates the relationship between organizational support for identity work and *(a)* organizational attractiveness and *(b)* job pursuit intentions such that identity networks comprised of more non-work identities, as compared to work identities, will strengthen the relationship.

Moderating Role of Career Stages

The career stage model (Super, 1957) may offer additional considerations for evaluating the relationship between organizational support for identity work and organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. Research has suggested individual career stages can

impact work attitudes and outcomes such as commitment, satisfaction, turnover, and performance (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Flaherty & Pappas, 2002; Gould & Hawkins, 1978; Lynn et al., 1996). In fact, the career stage has been found to interact with attitudes towards human resource practices to influence employee commitment (Conway, 2004). Thus, it stands to reason career stages may also influence individuals' job choice-related attitudes and behaviors across various levels. Job seekers at varying career stages may exhibit different attitudes, goals, and motivations when assessing job choice factors (Mehta et al., 2000). For instance, Boswell and colleagues (2012) found new and employed job seekers differed in their job search behaviors, objectives, and outcomes.

Various operationalizations exist to characterize career stages in research (Cooke, 1994). The career stage model identifies career life cycles as early career, mid-career, and late-career stages. Career stage has been characterized by both organizational tenure and year of age where the early stage represents workers who are under 30 years old or have less than 2 years of work experience, mid-stage are workers between ages 31-40 or with 2-10 years of experience, and late-career stage represents workers who are 41+ years old or who have more than 10 years of work experience. An early career stage job seeker will emphasize exploration and learning, while the mid-career stage job seeker focuses on growth and stability. Meanwhile, the late-career stage job seeker may identify a need to maintain job interest by finding new areas to get involved at work (Ornstein et al., 1989). Career stage may influence job seekers' expectations of the organization because of the different values held by job seekers across career stages. According to the life-span, life-space model, early-career workers may be experimenting with possible future careers while late-career workers may have settled into a focused career trajectory (Super, 1980). As such, compared to mid-career or late-career job seekers, early career job seekers may

place a greater emphasis on identity-related activities and appreciate organizations that support

identity work activities since they are in the exploration phase themselves. Further, newer

generations of employees, who are also early-stage workers, are believed to require greater

flexibility from the organization since they often balance competing priorities across work,

family, and leisure identity domains (Finegold et al., 2002); therefore, organizational support for

identity work may further influence their job choice-related decisions.

Evidence of differing attitudes towards work across career stages (Allen & Meyer, 1993;

Mehta et al., 2000) may also show support for potential differing effects of the relationship

between organizational support for identity work and organizational attractiveness and job

pursuit intentions across career stages. Prior research suggests job seekers are attracted to

organizations based on alignment with their own goals (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Early career

job seekers tend to focus on career planning and may show greater effort in finding the right

position while late-career job seekers with more skills to leverage may pursue opportunities to

improve specific goals (Boswell et al., 2012). An early career job seeker exploring their personal

and work identities may identify more with an organization where there are signals of identity

work support because the early career job seeker may see this as an opportunity to develop their

own identities. However, later-stage job seekers may not look to the organization to provide

these opportunities because they are past the exploration point in their careers. Thus, the early

career stage may strengthen the relationship between organizational support for identity work

and job choice-related outcomes while these same effects may not hold for late-career workers

who have already achieved careers with which they identify. Specifically, late-career stage job

seekers may place less emphasis on organizational support for identity work when evaluating

decisions related to job choice because the longevity of their career tenure may have allowed

them to identify with the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) and therefore may negate any potential threats to identity signaled by support for identity work.

> *Hypothesis 3:* Career stage moderates the relationship between organizational support for identity work and *(a)* organizational attractiveness and *(b)* job pursuit intentions such that the relationship is stronger for early career stage job seekers compared to job seekers at later career stages.

Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants with varying work experiences in the United States were recruited via the online platform, Prolific (www.prolific.co). For inclusion in the study, participants were required to be at least 18 years of age. The participant pool was appropriate because it was reflective of individuals at varying career stages (24% early career, 25% mid-career, 51% late career) who previously engaged in job search activities. Thus, participation in the study was familiar to them and made it possible to elicit realistic responses (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002). Based on a power analysis (Faul et al., 2009), a sample size of 94 individuals per group was needed to have sufficient power (.80) to detect a small effect (R^2 = .09; r = .30) with an α of .05, which led to the recruitment of 197 participants. The participants in the final sample were mostly female (52%) and White (73%). The average age was 41 years old (SD= 15) and most did not have any children (72%). Table 4.1 provides descriptive statistics of the final sample of participants.

The study utilized an experimental vignette methodology to enhance realism and address validity concerns (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). It required participants to engage with a fictitious employee carefully crafted by the researcher using a video vignette. Participants then made explicit job choice-related decisions based on this interaction. In this experimental design,

participants met an individual with direct experience with the organization through a pre-recorded video vignette crafted as an employee review video of the organization. Participants listened to the employee sharing their experiences of working for a fictitious company, Consumer Solutions. In the pre-recorded videos, an employee of Consumer Solutions described an organizational experience that depicted either high or low support for identity work from the fictitious organization. Specifically, the Computer Solutions employee expressed a desire to work on and explore their identity as a volunteer and described how the organization supports (high condition) or fails to support (low condition) such explorations. Once participants viewed one of the two employee review videos, they completed a survey of all measures. Survey measures prompted participants to make decisions on whether they would pursue employment with the organization and whether they found Consumer Solutions attractive as a place to work. Participants were compensated $2 for completing the study in its entirety.

Design and Manipulation

The study used a between-subjects experimental design with two levels (high and low) of support for identity work to test the hypothesized relationships. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions in the study. Two video vignettes were developed for random distribution to study participants in varying conditions. As recommended by previous scholars (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014), the video vignettes were modeled after actual company review videos sourced online to increase realism. Using random assignment, participants were exposed to either low support for identity work ($n = 99$) or high support for identity work ($n = 98$).

Each participant was asked to consider the organization as a potential job seeker. Participants viewed a brief description of the organization that included a purpose statement and

a description of organizational values. Since the study utilized a between-subjects design, the brief description provided contextual background information about the organization before participants viewed the vignettes (Aguinis & Bradely, 2014). Participants then viewed one of the two video vignettes designed for this study. Video vignettes were used instead of written descriptions to increase participants' level of immersion and the overall realism of the study (Aguinis & Bradely, 2014; Aiman-Smith et al., 2002).

The experimental vignettes in this study were created to reflect an organization that strongly supports identity work activities or one that shows a lack of support for identity work activities. In the low support for identity work conditions, the employee shared their experiences working at Consumer Solutions and included an example of the lack of identity-related activities supported by the organization. The vignette for the high support for identity work condition included the same script as the low condition, but the employee shared an experience of how the organization did support an identity-related activity by allowing them to participate in a volunteer-related activity which affirmed their volunteer identity. Some research suggests volunteerism may elicit certain feelings across varying demographics (Wilson, 2012). Therefore, participants also responded to demographic measures such as race, gender, and political ideologies to be used as statistical controls. Appendix C and D provide the text scenario and organization description viewed by study participants. Additionally, complete scripts for each video vignette are provided in Appendix E.

Manipulation Check and Data Quality

Following the completion of the study survey, participants received a post-survey measure of identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP) aimed at assessing the effectiveness of the manipulations. Specifically, to evaluate whether the manipulation of

organizational support for identity work was successful, participants responded to the IWSOP

scale developed and tested in Chapter 2 (Essay 1). To aid in preventing possible hypothesis

guessing, the manipulation check items appeared after all measures were completed.

Additionally, in line with scholar recommendations, three attention check items were used to

assess data quality (Berinsky et al., 2014). Attention check items required participants to select a

specific rating (e.g., strongly agree) along a Likert scale. A sample attention check item includes

"Please select 'strongly disagree' for this statement if you are paying attention." A total of $n= 23$

participants were removed from the final sample for failing one or more attention check items.

Measures

Participants responded to study measures using a five-point Likert scale with anchors of

(1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree,* unless otherwise noted. Study variables were

measured as followed:

Career Stage

Career stage was measured by a single item that asked participants "How would you

describe your current career stage?" and provided anchors of (1) New professional (0-2 years of

work experience), (2) Mid-level professional (3-10 years of work experience), and (3)

Experienced professional (10+ years of work experience). New professionals or workers in the

early career stage represented less than 2 years of work experience, 2-10 years represented the

mid-career stage or mid-level professionals, and 10+ years represented the late-career or

experienced professionals. Past research has measured the career stage based on the individual's

number of years of work experience as proposed by Lam and colleagues (2012) and used by

Kooij and Boon (2018). However, career stages and life stages have historically been difficult to

disentangle (Ornstein et al., 1989). Based on the lack of consensus around the measurement of career stages, career stage was measured in terms of self-reported career stage.

Organizational Attractiveness

Organizational attractiveness was measured using Aiman-Smith, Bauer, and Cable's (2001) five-item measure ($\alpha = .92$). Sample items include: "This would be a good company to work for" and "I find this a very attractive company."

Job Pursuit Intentions

Job pursuit intentions were measured using Aiman-Smith, Bauer, and Cable's (2001) six-item measure ($\alpha = .91$). Sample items include "I would attempt to gain an interview with this company" and "I would actively pursue obtaining a position with this company."

Identity Network Composition

Identity network composition was measured by a single item stating, *"In the space provided, please list your top five identities that best describe you."* Responses were coded based on those identities directly related to work functions (work identity) and identities that may influence work but are not directly related to work functions (nonwork identity). Samples of nonwork identities reported by participants include Woman, Father, Asian American, Christian. Samples of work identities reported by participants include Manager, Writer, Administrator, Firefighter. Participants were allowed to write a maximum of five identities but were required to submit a minimum of one identity. The total number of nonwork identities reported was divided by the total number of identities listed to create a proportion of nonwork identities indicator. This proportion of nonwork identities was used as a proxy for identity network composition. In short, identity network composition was operationalized as a proportion of the nonwork identities (e.g., spouse, friend, female) and the total number of identities reported by the participant. It is

important to note most participants reported nonwork, as opposed to work identities, as most salient. Further examination of the salient identities reported by participants revealed that the nonwork-related identities reported were primarily centered around personal characteristics (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity) or relational roles (e.g., mom, friend, fiancé).

Controls Variables

Control variables include demographic variables such as age, race, gender, salary, and organizational tenure to capture possible correlates of job choice-related decisions (Cable & Judge, 1996).

Analyses

OLS regression analysis procedures in R (v. 4.0.3) were utilized to examine the relationship between organizational support for identity work, identity network composition, career stage, organizational attractiveness, and job pursuit intentions. A series of regressions were conducted using support for identity work conditions (high, low) as the independent variable, career stages and identity network composition as moderator variables, and organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions as the dependent variables. Lastly, I used the lavaan package (version 0.6-7) and the psych package (version 2.0.12) to calculate alpha for each dependent variable in the study.

<div align="center">

Results

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Manipulation Check

I assessed the efficacy of the manipulation by regressing participants' IWSOP scores on the support for identity work condition (coded as low and high). The identity manipulation was a significant predictor of IWSOP scores ($b = -.31$, $R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$) such that participants in the low support for identity work condition reported lower IWSOP than those in the high condition.

These findings suggest that participants accurately interpreted the manipulated employee review videos.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 provide the means, standard deviations, reliability estimates, and correlations among the variables in this study. As seen in Table 4.1, the support for identity work condition was positively related to organizational attractiveness ($r = .36$, $p < .01$) but no significant relationship was found with job pursuit intentions ($r = .12$, $p = $ ns). Examination of correlations between control variables and the dependent variables in this study showed the number of children at home was significantly correlated with organizational attractiveness ($r = .18$ $p < .05$) and job pursuit intentions ($r = .15$ $p < .05$). No other statistically significant relationships were found between the dependent variables and control variables.

Test of Hypotheses

To test my hypotheses, I used OLS regression to examine the relationship between support for identity work, identity network composition, career stage, organizational attractiveness, and job pursuit intentions. Hypothesis 1a and 1b predicted that organizational support for identity work would positively relate to organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. OLS regression results revealed (see Table 4.2) that low support for identity work was negatively related to organizational attractiveness ($b = -.46$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$). No relationship was found for support for identity work and job pursuit intentions ($b = -.10$, $SE = .12$, $p = $ ns). Thus, low support for identity work support may negatively relate to organizational attractiveness for job seekers; however, a job seeker's decision to pursue employment with the organization may not be influenced by support for identity work. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was supported but Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b predicted job seeker identity network composition would moderate the relationship between organizational support for identity work and organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. I used regression analysis to examine whether the interaction between support for identity work and identity network composition impacted job choice-related outcomes such as organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. As reported in Table 4.2, Model 2, the interaction between support for identity work and organizational attractiveness was nonsignificant ($b = -.14$, $SE = .66$, $p = $ ns), failing to support Hypothesis 2a. For job pursuit intentions, Model 4 showed the interaction term for support for identity work and identity network composition was also nonsignificant ($b = -.27$, $SE = .71$, $p = $ ns), indicating a lack of support for Hypothesis 2b predictions. Based on the nonsignificant findings, it was not necessary to plot the interactions. In sum, the results of the regression analysis indicated both Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2b predictions were not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes (e.g., organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions) would be moderated by the job seeker's career stage. I predicted there would be a stronger relationship for early career stage job seekers (e.g., new professionals) compared to job seekers at later career stages (e.g., mid-level or late-stage job seekers). OLS regression results (see Table 4.3, Model 2) showed the interaction of organizational support for identity work and career stage was also not significant in predicting organizational attractiveness ($b = -.15$, $SE = .12$, $p = $ ns). Thus, Hypothesis 3a was not supported since I predicted organizational support for identity work would influence job seekers in the early career stage more than job seekers at later career stages. When evaluating job pursuit intentions (Model 4), the interaction of support for identity work and career stage was non-significant ($b = -.17$, $SE = .13$, $p = $ ns). Specifically, a change in career

stage for each identity work support condition did not predict job pursuit intentions. Essentially, organizational support for identity work combined with a job seeker's career stage had no significant effect on job pursuit intentions. Given these findings, Hypothesis 3b was also not supported.

Post hoc Hypotheses and Analysis of Individual Differences

Although an a priori hypothesis was not offered for individual differences that might impact the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes, the question emerged of whether other individual differences might account for differences in the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related attitudes and intentions. As highlighted earlier, many participants noted personal identities such as race and gender as their most salient identities. Based on the emphasis on salient race and gender identities reflected in the qualitative data, I explored whether race and gender would moderate the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes. Specifically, I expected a stronger effect for participants who identify as a racial minority or female as compared to nonracial minorities and men, respectively. I used post hoc analysis to examine moderated effects of demographic differences on the relationship of support for identity work with outcomes. Interestingly, post hoc regression analysis (see Table 4.4) revealed a positive significant main effect for race, specifically racial minorities, and job pursuit intentions (Model 6) but not for organizational attractiveness (Model 2). Additionally, the interaction terms for support for identity work and race (Model 2: $b = -.15$, $SE = .22$, $p =$ ns) and support for identity work and gender (Model 4: $b = -.29$, $SE = .20$, $p =$ ns) were nonsignificant for organizational attractiveness; however, there was a significant interaction between support for identity work and race in predicting job pursuit intentions (Model 6: $b = -.41$, $SE = .23$, $p <$

.05), suggesting racial minorities who believe an organization will not provide identity work support are less likely to report job pursuit intentions. The interaction of support for identity work and gender did not predict job pursuit intentions (Model 8: $b = -.15$, $SE = .21$, $p = $ ns).

Discussion

The present study used an experimental design to investigate whether organizational support for identity work would influence whether the job seeker also perceived the organization as an attractive place to work and influence the job seeker's job pursuit intentions. Findings from this study revealed job seekers may be more attracted to an organization that showed support for identity work activities; however, support for identity work activities from an organization did not necessarily influence the job seeker's intentions to pursue employment with that organization. The reverse is true, however, once race is specified in the relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes. In this instance, when support for identity work support is low, racial minorities (as compared to non-racial minorities) may report less job pursuit intentions in instances of low support for identity work.

I also tested the prediction that career stage could influence the extent to which support for identity work influenced job choice-related attitudes and behaviors such as organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions. I predicted, but did not find evidence to support the hypothesis, that there would be a stronger effect for job seekers in the early stages of their career (e.g., new professionals) than those in later career stages (e.g., mid-level or experienced professionals). Essentially, the relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related attitudes and behaviors (e.g., organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions) did not differ across career stages. It may be that job seekers, regardless of career stage, have some interest in support signals from the organization which would explain the lack of findings in this

study. This is consistent with research that suggests concerns in one career stage may also exist in other career stages as well (Super & Hall, 1978). For instance, a job seeker in their early stage may be interested in exploring self when identifying an organization to work for; however, the same could be true for a late-stage job seeker starting over in their career or reevaluating their career trajectory. Thus, this could explain why differences across career stage were not found.

Additionally, I evaluated the extent to which the specific composition of a job seeker's identity network might affect the relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes. I did not find support for my hypothesis which stated a stronger relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes would be found among job seekers with mostly salient nonwork-related identities in their network. However, these findings should be interpreted with caution given the lack of variance between participants reporting salient nonwork-related identities as opposed to work-related identities. Lastly, an additional post hoc hypothesis and analysis of the extent to which race or gender might influence the effect of support for identity work on job choice-related outcomes revealed race, but not gender, as a boundary condition for the relationship between support for identity work and job pursuit intentions. Interestingly, race nor gender was found to have a significant impact on the relationship between organizational support for identity work and organizational attractiveness.

One interesting finding in the data was how some participants understood and reported on their own identities. When asked to identify their most salient identities, several participants highlighted personal values or personality descriptors instead of identity labels. For instance, one participant listed their most salient identities as *"Dependable, Friendly, Open minded, Independent"*. Another listed *"kind, thoughtful, cooperative, team player, focused"*. Some participants used personal characteristics such as *"Caring, Compassionate, Kind, Funny,*

Moody" or *"loyal, generous, good listener, helpful, friendly"* as their salient identity labels. These responses were labeled as missing since they did not align with the identity label definition proposed in the current study. These findings show that although research might specify personal values as an input for defining identities (Albert et al., 2000), some individuals may view personal values and identity labels as interchangeable. It is also plausible some participants may not have understood or connected with the term "identities" suggesting a need to further explicate the definition and meaning of "identity" (Brubaker & Cooper, 2000).

Prior research has relied almost exclusively on qualitative methods to explore how individual identity work impacts employee work outcomes; however, I uniquely implore experimental design to test how organizational support for identity work might impact a job seeker's decision to pursue employment with the organization. In doing so, my results shed light on organizational considerations when recruiting job candidates: primarily, my findings uncover support for identity work as a key contributor to job seeker attraction to an organization.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although my findings offer preliminary evidence of a potential link between organizational support for identity work and job choice-related attitudes and intentions, there are a few limitations worth noting. One limitation of the present study is the mode by which the influence of support for identity work and job choice-related were assessed. While I find encouraging results in terms of support for identity work and attractiveness, the experimental manipulation design may not have been a strong enough assessment of the extent to which support for identity work will drive job pursuit intentions or, specifically, *behaviors*. The ability to drive those types of intentions through this research design is limited by an individual's need to collect several inputs before deciding whether to pursue employment with an organization.

Specifically, job seekers use several indicators to decide if they will work for an organization, and identity work support is only one such indicator. For instance, one participant noted in the comment section of the study that: *"I would need way more information to decide if I want to work for this company… there's a lot more I care about"*. Essentially, people like an organization more when there is evidence of support for identity work by the organization; however, such support for identity work alone may not be enough to drive behavioral outcomes. This is particularly relevant given the timing of the data collection which coincided with the largest recorded employee resignation spike that has been termed "The Great Resignation" (Sheather & Slattery, 2021). Predominantly discussed in the United States, the Great Resignation describes the increase in employees leaving or changing jobs following a period of stress and exhaustion due to increased workloads brought on by the impacts of COVID19 (Sull et al., 2022). This mass exodus of employees reflects a changing workforce where individuals are carefully evaluating their options when choosing an organization and using various signals to determine whether to accept a work position (Hopkins & Figaro, 2021; Tessema et al., 2022). Given the new knowledge that will surface around job choice-related decisions in the wake of the Great Resignation, future research should consider exploring a manipulation that incorporates additional job choice factors and test whether support for identity work impacts work outcomes above and beyond other job choice factors. Most effective, however, would be to capitalize on a mixed method design approach that can help to understand both attitudes and behavioral intentions as it relates to job choice and support for identity work. Further, future research should capitalize on various identity-related activities to help establish responses that were truly based on support for identity work and not the specific identity used in the design (e.g., volunteerism).

Another design limitation worth noting is the design choices of (1) which variables were measured and (2) how variables were measured. First, although this experiment allowed me to draw conclusions about the causal effects of organizational support for identity work on job choice-related outcomes, I did not measure variables that capture why support for identity work relates to job choice-related outcomes. The present study is limited by the inability to test theorized variables that were omitted from the simplified experimental design. Essentially, the present study capitalized on a simplified model to test the relationships of interest; however, theorizing included potential mediators that were not measured and tested such as P-O fit and confidence. For instance, the present research theorizes that person-organization (P-O) fit is the mechanism linking organizational support for identity work with organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions, yet job seeker beliefs around P-O fit were not captured in the experimental design. Future research should offer a more robust design that directly measures P-O fit and confidence to test these variables (and other explanatory mechanisms) as mediators. Second, the operationalization of identity network composition was a limitation of this study. The proportion of nonwork identities was used as a proxy for identity composition networks. Most participants, however, reported nonwork identities which impacted the overall variance for this variable. Future research should work to develop a stronger measure of identity network composition that captures greater variance across job seekers.

Another limitation of this study is the small sample size that could have impacted my ability to find effects for individual difference variables such as identity network composition. Although power analysis provided evidence of the current sample size being sufficient for finding small effects overall, when testing the interaction effect of identity network composition there may not have been enough variation of work and nonwork-related identities among

participants to detect the true effect of identity network composition on the relationship between support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes. The findings reported in this study should be implemented with caution because the analysis may have lacked power given 90% of the useable sample identified nonwork-related identities as most salient as opposed to work-related identities. Future research should further explore the extent to which the composition of an individual's identity network influences job choice-related decisions by capturing a larger sample size that allows for more variation among salient participant identities. Limitations withstanding however, the present study emphasizes the potentially increasing importance for organizations to support identity exploration activities and how job seeker perceptions of this support could impact job choice in a changing workforce. The insights offered in the present research suggest the organization's role in providing space for identity work activities to occur may impact individuals outside of the organization (e.g., job seekers).

A further implication of the present study is the idea that individuals can develop perceptions of support for identity work from the organization as a third-party member (e.g., job seeker). Research suggests identity work often occurs through interactions with others as individuals work to revise or strengthen their identities (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012). As such, identity-triggering experiences at work may be shared with external members such as friends or family members. Thus, support for identity work may have third-party implications where the target experience affects third-party perceptions as well. For instance, an employee who holds an athlete identity may express positive feelings towards an organization that offers fitness benefits to their employees. That employee may share this experience with a friend who may then assess the extent to which the organization supports their employee's identity construction as an athlete by offering an opportunity to affirm this identity. In the current experimental design, the

narrative suggested an employee engaged in an identity-defining experience (i.e., volunteerism), and shared the experience with others (via a review video), which then impacted how the job seeker's (i.e., third party) attitude toward the organization. Similar examples could be found across other identities. For instance, a Muslim employee who is encouraged to adjust work breaks to participate in the religious custom of noonday prayers may express appreciation to a friend who is job searching. When this happens, the friend may then also develop positive perceptions of support for identity work from the organization and hold positive feelings about the organization as a result. The examples presented above, and the experimental design used in this study offers evidence for how organizational support for identity work could extend to third parties who develop perceptions of the organization through secondhand recollections of identity construction experiences. Future research could further explore third-party implications of support for identity work to advance research understanding of the organization's influence on individual identity work.

Conclusion

The present study explored what could happen if organizations fail to allow opportunities for identity exploration, construction, or development. Specifically, I investigated whether organizational support for identity-related activities at work would influence a job seeker's intent to pursue employment with that organization and if such support would attract job seekers and help them view the organization as a desirable place to work. The study revealed organizational support for identity work influenced organizational attractiveness but not job pursuit intentions. Future research is needed to investigate the boundary conditions by which this relationship holds. Further, given the relatively small sample size for this study, additional testing is needed to confirm the findings from this study.

Table 4.1

Means, standard deviations, and correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Support for identity work condition	0.50	0.50										
2. Identity network composition	0.85	0.17	-.04									
3. Organizational attractiveness	3.60	0.72	.36**	.02								
4. Job pursuit intentions	3.71	0.73	.12	.02	.81**							
5. Career stage	2.27	0.82	.08	-.33**	.01	.02						
6. Race	0.27	0.44	.03	.12	.02	.09	-.05					
7. Gender	0.52	0.50	.05	.14	.07	.02	.02	-.04				
8. Age	41.05	15.14	-.02	-.23**	-.01	.01	.65**	-.13	.04			
9. Salary	3.10	1.80	.19**	-.15	.11	.09	.30**	.05	-.08	.09		
10. Number of children	0.43	0.79	.21**	-.00	.18*	.15*	.04	.03	.10	-.12	.13	
11. Organizational tenure	7.00	8.17	.01	-.12	.06	.01	.48**	-.09	.06	.56**	.19**	-.08

Note. $N = 197$. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates presented on the diagonal. Race= (1) Minority; (0) Non-Minority. Gender =(1) Female; (0) Male.

*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 4.2

OLS Regression Results for Moderated Effects of Organizational Support for Identity Work Condition and Identity Network Composition on Job Choice Related Outcomes

	Organizational Attractiveness		Job Pursuit Intentions	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	3.65*** (.39)	3.60*** (.46)	3.58*** (.41)	3.48*** (.49)
Race	.01 (.13)	.004 (.13)	.07 (.13)	.07 (.14)
Gender	.05 (.11)	.05 (.11)	.03 (.12)	.03 (.12)
Age	-.003 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	-.003 (.01)	-.003 (.01)
Salary	.01 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)
Number of children	.08 (.07)	.08 (.07)	.11 (.07)	.11 (.07)
Organizational tenure	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Identity work support condition (low)	-.46*** (.11)	-.34 (.57)	-.10 (.12)	.13 (.61)
Identity network composition	.13 (.34)	.19 (.45)	.08 (.36)	.20 (.48)
Identity X Network composition		**-.14 (.66)**		**-.27 (.71)**
R^2	.14	.14	.04	.04
Adjusted R^2	.09	.09	-.01	-.02
ΔR^2		.00		.00
F Statistic	3.04*** ($df = 8$; 155)	2.69*** ($df = 9$; 154)	.74 ($df = 8$; 155)	.67 ($df = 9$; 154)

Note. $N = 164$. Bolded coefficients represent hypothesized relationships (Hypothesis 2).
Race= (1) Minority; (0) Non-Minority. Gender =(1) Female; (0) Male.
*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 4.3

OLS Regression Results for Moderated Effects of Organizational Support for Identity Work Condition and Career Stage on Job Choice Related Outcomes

	Organizational Attractiveness		Job Pursuit Intentions	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	3.81*** (.20)	3.61*** (.25)	3.58*** (.22)	3.36*** (.27)
Race	.02 (.11)	.02 (.11)	.14 (.12)	.14 (.12)
Gender	.06 (.10)	.07 (.10)	.01 (.11)	.03 (.11)
Age	.0005 (.005)	.001 (.005)	.002 (.01)	.003 (.01)
Salary	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)
Number of children	.10 (.06)	.10 (.06)	.12* (.07)	.12* (.07)
Organizational tenure	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.0004 (.01)	.001 (.01)
Identity condition (low)	-.48*** (.10)	-.13 (.29)	-.12 (.11)	.27 (.31)
Career stage	-.08 (.08)	-.003 (.10)	-.04 (.09)	.05 (.11)
Identity (low) X Career stage		**-.15 (.12)**		**-.17 (.13)**
R^2	.15	.16	.04	.05
Adjusted R^2	.12	.12	-.0002	.004
ΔR^2		.01		.01
F Statistic	4.20*** (df = 8; 188)	3.93*** (df = 9; 187)	.99 (df = 8; 188)	1.08 (df = 9; 187)

Note. $N = 197$. Bolded coefficients represent hypothesized relationships (Hypothesis 3).
Race= (1) Minority; (0) Non-Minority. Gender =(1) Female; (0) Male.
*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 4.4

OLS Regression Results for Moderated Effects of Organizational Support for Identity Work Condition and Individual Differences on Job Choice Related Outcomes

	Organizational Attractiveness				Job Pursuit Intentions			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Constant	3.76***(.19)	3.74***(.20)	3.76***(.19)	3.71***(.20)	3.56***(.21)	3.50***(.21)	3.56***(.21)	3.53***(.21)
Age	-.002 (.004)	-.002 (.004)	-.002 (.004)	-.002 (.004)	.001 (.004)	.002 (.004)	.001 (.004)	.001 (.004)
Salary	.01 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.003 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.02 (.03)
Number of children	.09 (.06)	.09 (.06)	.09 (.06)	.10 (.06)	.12* (.07)	.11 (.07)	.12* (.07)	.12* (.07)
Organizational tenure	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	-0.0000 (.01)	-.001 (.01)	-0.0000 (.01)	.0004 (.01)
Gender (Female)	.06 (.10)	.06 (.10)	.06 (.10)	.20 (.14)	.02 (.11)	.02 (.10)	.02 (.11)	.09 (.15)
Identity (low) X Gender				**-.29 (.20)**				**-.15 (.21)**
Identity condition (low)	-.48***(.10)	-.44***(.12)	-.48***(.10)	-.33** (.14)	-.12 (.11)	-.01 (.12)	-.12 (.11)	-.04 (.15)
Race (Minority)	.02 (.11)	.09 (.15)	.02 (.11)	.02 (.11)	.13 (.12)	.33**(.16)	.13 (.12)	.14 (.12)
Identity (low) X Race (Minority)		**-.15 (.22)**				**-.41*(.23)**		
R^2	.15	.15	.15	.16	.04	.06	.04	.04
Adjusted R^2	.12	.11	.12	.12	.004	.01	.004	.002
ΔR^2		.00		.01		.02		.00
F Statistic	4.68*** ($df = 7$; 189)	4.14*** ($df = 8$; 188)	4.68*** ($df = 7$; 189)	4.39*** ($df = 8$; 188)	1.12 ($df = 7$; 189)	1.37 ($df = 8$; 188)	1.12 ($df = 7$; 189)	1.04 ($df = 8$; 188)

Note. $N = 197$. Race= (1) Minority; (0) Non-Minority. Gender = (1) Female; (0) Male.
*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. • $p < .10$.

Figure 4.1. Hypothesized moderation model of organizational support for identity work condition, organizational attractiveness, and job pursuit intentions.
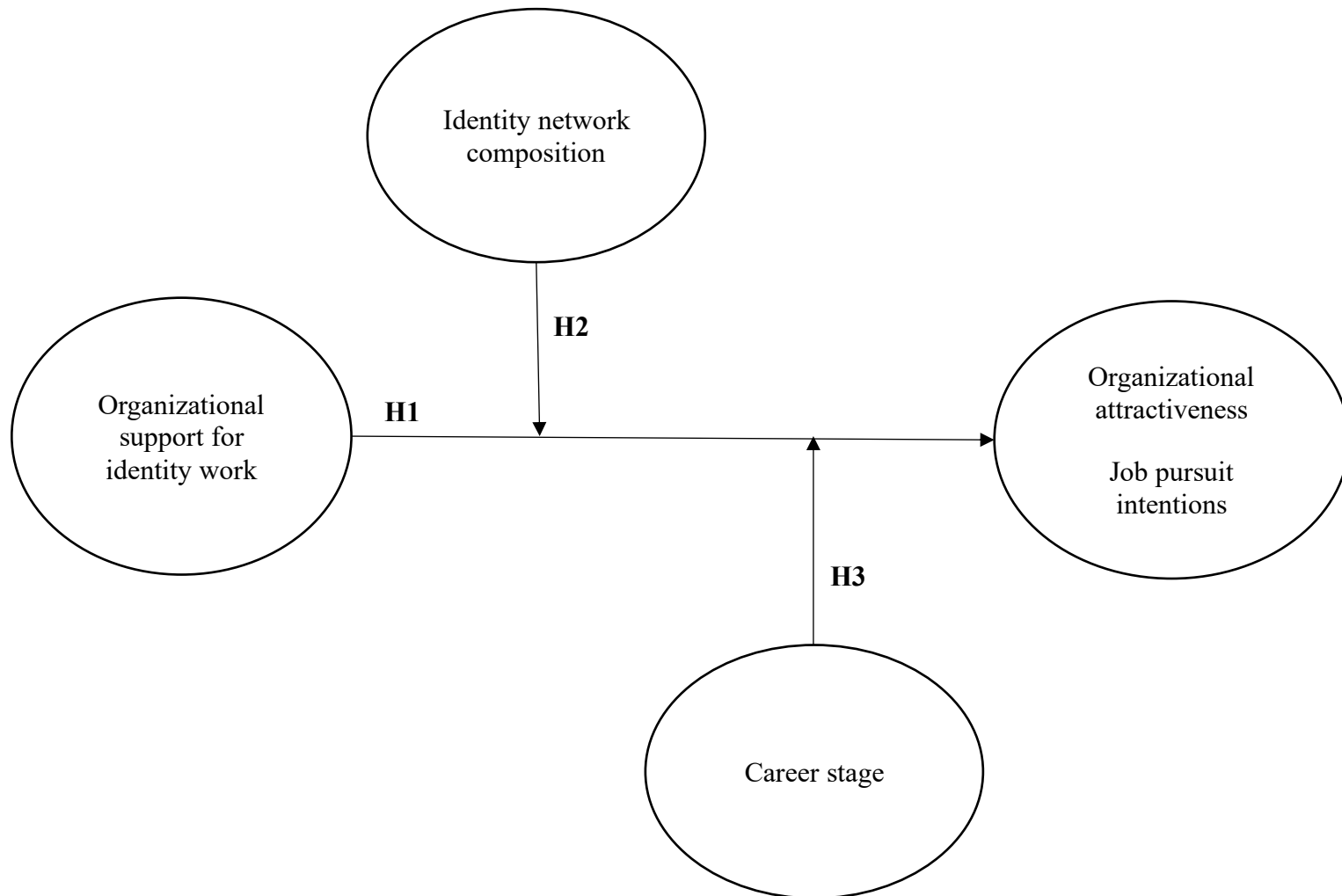
Chapter 5: General Discussion & Closing

Research on how individuals construct their identities spans disciplines and contexts, yet our understanding of organizations' role in employee identity construction is not well-understood. To date, research on the role of organizations focus primarily on how organizations control or manage employees' identities (e.g., Bardon et al., 2017; Boussebaa & Brown, 2017; Wasserman, & Frenkel, 2011) with little consideration for how the organization could support identity-related activities and processes. Presently, the organization's influence on identity-related processes has largely been relegated to identity regulation and other control mechanisms used to influence identity development for the purposes of meeting organizational needs and standards (Bardon et al., 2017; Thornborrow & Brown, 2009). An investigation of employees' beliefs about the organization's role in supporting identity work – that is, perceived organizational support for identity work – in facilitating identity-related activities is virtually nonexistent in current literature.

In this dissertation, I argue that identity work supportive organizational perceptions (IWSOP) may affect employee work outcomes. Specifically, IWSOP may relate to positive attitudinal responses towards work and the organization and may inspire greater commitment from employees. Taken together, across the three essays in this dissertation, I introduce IWSOP as a construct (Essay 1), examine its relationship to attitudes and work outcomes for current employees (Essays 1 and 2), and consider its implications for job choice-related decisions for job seekers (Essay 3). Essay 1 lays the foundation for IWSOP by conceptualizing the construct and creating a valid and reliable measure of IWSOP using five independent samples of working professionals. Essay 1 conceptualizes IWSOP as the degree to which employees perceive that their organization encourages, allows, or provides the opportunity to engage in reflectional,

conversational, kinesthetic, or observable identity work. The essay further demonstrates the psychometric properties of the IWSOP measure by providing evidence of content and discriminant validity. Essay 2 utilizes the measure developed in Essay 1 to evaluate the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment through the explanatory mechanisms of authenticity and psychological safety. Findings from a sample of working professionals supported predictions that living authentically at work and psychological safety mediate the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment. Finally, Essay 3 uses an experimental design and a sample of 197 internet workers to examine how organizational support for identity work impacts job seekers' attraction to the organization and intentions to pursue employment with the organization. The experiment revealed that among job seekers, signals of organizational support for identity work influenced organizational attractiveness but not job pursuit intentions. Additionally, race was a boundary condition for the relationship between organizational support for identity work and job pursuit intentions.

Primarily, findings from this dissertation uncovered a strong association between employee perceptions of organizational support for identity work and affective commitment. Essentially, when employees believe their organization provides space and opportunity to engage in identity work, they may show greater commitment to the organization based on their emotional attachment. More general perceptions of organization support have been found to relate to commitment (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2017); however, this dissertation highlights a specific type of support (e.g., support for identity work) that also relates to affective commitment. Thus, this research highlights the implications of particular kinds of support shown by the organization, thereby contributing to organizational support literature. Consistent with Kurtessis and colleagues' (2017) meta-analytic review of perceived

organizational support, the present research identified perceived organizational support for identity work was positively related to affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, in addition to several other work outcomes. My dissertation answers earlier scholars' questions about the practical implications of perceived support from the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Specifically, this research shows that organizational support for identity work may impact certain employees' decisions to pursue employment with that organization and whether current employees *want* to stay with the organization. Understanding how organizational support for identity work relates to work outcomes is critical because employees seem to expect organizations to care about more than their work selves (Jackson & Tran, 2020). They may also view organizations that fail to allow identity exploration opportunities as undesirable workplace places (Ogunnaike, 2020). The present research indirectly showcases identity work as a specific area of support individuals care about and directly demonstrates how support for identity work influences critical workplace outcomes. In particular, identity work supportive organizational perceptions are shown to relate to work outcomes above and beyond perceived organizational support. Therefore, the present research introduced and established support for identity work as a unique type of organizational support that has implications for individual work outcomes.

In addition to the direct relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment, this dissertation further identifies an indirect relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment through authenticity and psychological safety. When employees perceive an organization as being supportive of identity work, they also report higher authenticity and feelings of psychological safety while at work. These positive mental states are related to greater affective commitment to the organization. Interestingly, although there was evidence that both authenticity and psychological safety mediate the IWSOP-commitment relationship, psychological safety was

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a stronger linking mechanism. This suggests that while employees may express a greater sense of authenticity based on perceived identity work support from the organization, the stronger attitudinal response of these perceptions is the psychological safety employees achieve when they believe an organization will support them in engaging in identity-related activities. These findings offer a critical lens for understanding how individuals make sense of perceived identity work support. While support may aid in aligning behaviors for authenticity, the safety and security one experiences based on perceived support may be a stronger determinant of behaviors. Based on the present conceptualization of IWSOP, organizations may unconsciously provide space and opportunities for employees to engage in identity; however, the finding of psychological safety linking IWSOP to work outcomes suggests it may be in the organization's best interest to pursue conscious efforts to support identity work because of the safety employees report.

In addition to the direct relationships identified in the three essays, Essay 2 and Essay 3 also attempted to identify boundary conditions that further explicate how IWSOP relates to work outcomes. Specifically, Essay 2 hypothesized future work self salience and self-esteem would moderate the IWSOP- authenticity relationship and the IWSOP-psychological safety relationship such that future work self salience and self-esteem would strengthen these relationships. Essay 3 hypothesized identity network composition and career stage would moderate the relationship between perceptions of support for identity work and job choice-related outcomes (e.g., organizational attractiveness and job pursuit intentions). I predicted the relationship would be stronger for nonwork-related (as opposed to work-related) salient identities and for early career stage job seekers (as compared to mid-level and late-career stage job seekers). However, in both Essays 2 and 3, no evidence was found to support the moderation relationships hypothesized.

These non-findings suggest the extent to which individual characteristics affect the relationship between identity work support and work outcomes may be more nuanced than initially proposed in this dissertation. The individual characteristics utilized may have been unsuccessful because they did not consider the conscious or unconscious process that produces perceptions of organizational support for identity-related activities. For instance, the act of completing the IWSOP measure developed in Essay 1 may in fact trigger identity work because the individual is prompted to think about the identity-related activities they've engaged in while at work and whether the organization supported such activities. Thus, using the measure makes the process of identity work, and associated perceptions of support for identity work, more conscious than subconscious. However, identity work, and perceptions related to identity work, may not always be conscious. For instance, Creed and Sully (2000) described how unconscious identity work occurs in an example of heterosexual individuals casually referencing their husband, wife, boyfriend, etc. In this instance, these casual references could unintentionally spark an identity event for a gay or lesbian colleague. Similarly, Essay 3 takes an unconscious approach to support for identity work by introducing participants to the identity-related scenario and then measuring job choice-related factors. This process is proposed more subconsciously since participants are not directly made aware that an identity work process is occurring. Instead, it is subtly alluded to by the employee in the experiment, and perceptions of support for identity work are assumed to be drawn. In these essays, support for identity work is constructed as both conscious and unconscious. However, the consciousness of IWSOP is an underlying factor that was not considered in the selection of moderators. For instance, in the experiment (Essay 3), it may have been useful to (1) capture whether participants were aware of the identity work being described to (2) measure IWSOP based on the scenario. This would allow an exploration of the

consciousness of identity work and the perceptions developed because of it. Similarly, Essay 2 assumes identity work is conscious and related perceptions are conscious based on the act of completing the new measure; however, the study did not capture the extent to which the participants were aware of the existence of identity work or that it was occurring. Future research should consider both the conscious and unconscious properties of the construct (e.g., IWSOP) when identifying individual characteristics as moderating variables.

One reason I may have failed to identify significant relevant boundary conditions for the relationship between IWSOP and work outcomes is that I did not consider social factors that may have successfully moderated the proposed relationships. Given identity work is sometimes a social experience, utilizing social factors as a boundary condition may offer an alternate insight into how IWSOP relates to work outcomes. For example, how employees relate to one another at work could impact the extent to which perceptions of support for identity work relate to work outcomes because relationships could change how one perceives support in the first place. While past literature suggests identity work may stem from organizational control efforts such as identity regulation strategies in organizations (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Pratt et al., 2006), this research suggests perceptions around identity work processes may also be a product of positive organizational influences such as support or encouragement from the organization to engage in identity construction activities. However, such positive encouragement may be rated differently based on whether the employee attributes the support to the organization. Essay 1 identifies leader and team member relationships as predictors of IWSOP; however, it may be possible that these relationships serve as moderators as well. Factors such as leader relationships or relationships with coworkers could impact the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment because relationships could filter how employees interpret work experiences and

develop perceptions around support. Since high-quality relationships with leaders are viewed by employees as a form of social support (Thomas & Lankau, 2009), employees may interpret the positive relationship with their leader as support from the organization as well (Eisenberger et al., 2014). In this instance, IWSOP may be entangled with perceptions associated with leader relationships that reinforce the employee's belief of being supported by the organization. Similarly, past research findings demonstrated relationships with team members have a unique and relevant impact on organizational commitment beyond the relationships that exist between employees and leaders (Banks et al, 2014). Employees who report strong, positive relationships with coworkers often enjoy mutual trust, respect, and support (Liden et al., 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1994), are more likely to identify with their coworkers, and more likely to experience a sense of belonging (Farmer et al., 2015). As shown in Chapter 2 (Essay 1), coworker relationships are also found to predict IWSOP; however, it may be possible that coworker relationships moderate the relationship between IWSOP and affective commitment. Strong relationships between employees and their coworkers may improve the employee's experience with the organization and therefore curb any negative repercussions of low IWSOP.

The extent to which IWSOP influences affective commitment may be more nuanced and complex considering the many factors that could affect this relationship. However, such explorations to identify relevant factors are both necessary and important given (1) the continued relevance of identity in workplaces and (2) the current lack of research around perceptions employees form regarding organizational support for identity-related activities. Indeed, the prevalence of identity-related activities at work may be increasingly rampant as individuals seek to align their identities with the goals of the organization for personal fulfillment, career advancement/survival, or life satisfaction (Gini, 2000). Future research around IWSOP and the

factors influencing its effect on commitment (and other relevant work outcomes) is ripe for

exploration.

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Appendix A

31 Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions Items

1. I can make sense of who I am in my workplace.
2. I am able to spend time reflecting on who I am at my workplace.
3. I often reflect on who I am due to my workplace.
4. My identity in my workplace allows me to understand who I am in relation to others.
5. My experiences at work force me to think about who I am in relation to others.
6. My workplace helps me define my identity in relation to others.
7. Being in my organization helps me make sense of who I am.
8. At work, I am able to talk to others about who I am.
9. I am able to show pride in who I am through self-expression in my workplace.
10. I can freely talk about my identity in my workplace.
11. My workplace allows me to discuss who I am with my colleagues.
12. Talking with my colleagues at work helps me understand my self-meaning.
13. Group discussions at work help me learn more about myself.
14. My work team can spend time talking about our identity as a group.
15. I personally connect with the jargon used in my organization.
16. The words and jargon used by members of my organization help me understand who I am.
17. In my workplace, I can display pictures or items that show who I am.
18. I can display materials in my workspace that say something about who I am.
19. I can convey who I am through my work attire.
20. I can display items that show my pride in my work role.
21. My team can display items in our work space that say something about who we are.
22. It is important that my team and I are able to present a workspace that reflects who we are.
23. At work, I can use my physical appearance to influence others perceptions of me.
24. There are activities at work that let me showcase who I am to my colleagues.
25. My organization allows me to participate in activities that teach me about who I am.
26. I can read or listen to things at work that express who I am.
27. The tasks I take on at work reflect who I am as an individual.
28. My actions at work help people in my field understand who I am.
29. My performance at work is a reflection of who I am.
30. I can engage in specific behaviors at work to help others understand who I am.
31. My organization promotes work activities that teach me about other cultures.

Appendix B

Final 19 Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions Items

1. I can make sense of who I am in my workplace.
2. **I often reflect on who I am due to my workplace.**
3. **My experiences at work force me to think about who I am in relation to others.**
4. **My workplace helps me define my identity in relation to others.**
5. **At work, I am able to talk to others about who I am.**
6. **I can freely talk about my identity in my workplace.**
7. **My workplace allows me to discuss who I am with my colleagues.**
8. Talking with my colleagues at work helps me understand my self-meaning.
9. Group discussions at work help me learn more about myself.
10. The words and jargon used by members of my organization help me understand who I am.
11. **In my workplace, I can display pictures or items that show who I am.**
12. **I can display materials in my workspace that say something about who I am.**
13. I can convey who I am through my work attire.
14. **There are activities at work that let me showcase who I am to my colleagues.**
15. **My organization allows me to participate in activities that teach me about who I am.**
16. The tasks I take on at work reflect who I am as an individual.
17. My actions at work help people in my field understand who I am.
18. My performance at work is a reflection of who I am.
19. **I can engage in specific behaviors at work to help others understand who I am.**

Note. Bolded items represent final eleven item measure.

Appendix C: Essay 2 Survey Measures

All survey items were anchored on a Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Identity Network Composition
<u>Open ended question</u>:
In each box provided <u>on the right</u>, please list your top five identities that best describe you. Then rank order these identities in the <u>boxes on the left</u> starting with the most important identity ranked as 1 and least important ranked as 5.
If you do not have 5 identities you wish to list, please write "none" for any unused spaces and still rank the unused space(s).

Identity Work Supportive Organizational Perceptions *(Jean et al., 2022)*
1. I often reflect on who I am due to my workplace
2. My experiences at work force me to think about who I am in relation to others.
3. My workplace helps me define my identity in relation to others.
4. At work, I am able to talk to others about who I am.
5. I can freely talk about my identity in my workplace.
6. My workplace allows me to discuss who I am with my colleagues.
7. There are activities at work that let me showcase who I am to my colleagues
8. My organization allows me to participate in activities that teach me about who I am.
9. I can engage in specific behaviors at work to help others understand who I am.
10. In my workplace, I can display pictures or items that show who I am.
11. I can display materials in my workspace that say something about who I am.

Future Work Self Salience *(King & Raspin, 2004; Strauss et al., 2012)*
<u>Open ended question</u>: We would like you to consider the life you imagine for yourself in the future. What sorts of things do you hope for and dream about? Imagine your life has gone as well as it possibly could have. You have worked hard and achieved your goals. Think of this as your ''best possible life'' or your ''happily ever after.''

In the space below write a description of the things you imagined. Be as specific as you can.

Keeping this mental image in mind, rate the importance of the future work self you imagined.

1. I can easily imagine my Future Work Self.
2. The mental picture of this future is very clear.
3. This future is very easy for me to imagine.
4. I am very clear about who and what I want to become in my future work.
5. What type of future I want in relation to my work is very clear in my mind.

Self-Esteem *(Rosenberg, 1979)*
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
2. At times I think I am no good at all.
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I certainly feel useless at times.
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. All in all, I am inclined to think that I am a failure.
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Living Authentically at Work *(van den Bosch & Taris, 2014)*
1. I am true to myself at work in most situations
2. I behave in accordance with my values and beliefs in the workplace
3. I find it easier to get on with people in the workplace when I'm being myself
4. At work, I always stand by what I believe in

Psychological Safety *(Edmondson, 1999)*
1. If you make a mistake in this organization, it is often held against you. (R)
2. Members of this organization are able to bring up problems and tough issues.
3. People in this organization sometimes reject others for being different. (R)
4. It is safe to take a risk in this organization.
5. It is difficult to ask other members of this organization for help. (R)
6. No one in this organization would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts.
7. Working with members of this organization, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized. (R)

Affective Commitment *(Meyer & Allen, 1990)*
1. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
2. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
3. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
4. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Demographic & Control Variables
1. What is your race?
2. What is your gender?
3. What is your age in years?
4. How long have you worked for your current organization in years?
5. (For example, two and a half years would be 2.5)
6. How long have you worked in your current position in years? (For example, two and a half years would be 2.5)

Appendix D: Essay 3 Survey Measures

All survey items were anchored on a Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Identity Network Composition
<u>Open ended question</u>:
In each box provided <u>on the right</u>, please list your top five identities that best describe you.
Then rank order these identities in the <u>boxes on the left</u> starting with the most important identity ranked as 1 and least important ranked as 5.
If you do not have 5 identities you wish to list, please write "none" for any unused spaces and still rank the unused space(s).

Career Stages *(Lam et al., 2012; Kooiji& Boon, 2018)*
1. How would you describe your current career stage?
   a. New professional (0-2 years of work experience)
   b. Mid-level professional (3-10 years of work experience)
   c. Experienced professional (10+ years of work experience)

Organizational Attractiveness Scale *(Aiman-Smith et al., 2001)*
1. This would be a good company to work for
2. I would want a company like this in my community
3. I would like to work for this company
4. This company cares about its employees
5. I find this a very attractive company

Job Pursuit Intentions Scale *(Aiman-Smith et al., 2001)*
1. I would accept a job offer from this company
2. I would request more information about this company
3. If this company visited campus I would want to speak with a representative
4. I would attempt to gain an interview with this company
5. I would actively pursue obtaining a position with this company
6. If this company was at a job fair I would seek out their booth

Demographic & Control Variables
1. What is your race?
2. What is your gender?
3. What is your age in years?
4. How long have you worked for your current organization in years?
5. (For example, two and a half years would be 2.5)
6. How long have you worked in your current position in years? (For example, two and a half years would be 2.5)
7. Self-efficacy *(Chen et al., 2001)*
   a. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
   b. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
   c. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
   d. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.

e. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
f. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
g. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
h. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Appendix E: Essay 3 Experimental Description

Experiment Scenario Description and Instructions

In this study, we are going to introduce you to a fictitious company: Consumer Solutions.

A current employee of Consumer Solutions will share their honest review of the company via

video. Then, you will be asked to tell us what you think about Consumer Solutions based on the

employee review.

You are browsing the internet reviewing job advertisements posted on Glassdoor. You come

across a job ad for a position with Consumer Solutions that piques your interest. You also

discover an employee review video showcasing an employee testimonial about what it is like

working at Consumer Solutions.

Appendix F: Essay 3 Organization Description

CONSUMER SOLUTIONS

Consumer Solutions is a Fortune 500 multinational corporation committed to providing clients with excellent service, strong accuracy, and innovative solutions.

About Us

At Consumer Solutions, we inspire confidence in all that we do and challenge ourselves to bring our absolute best to clients every single day. Our passion, pride, and expertise set us apart as industry leaders worldwide. Our values allow us to bring out the best in our employees, give us a shared vision, and promote purposeful collaborations across teams. We work with talented professionals who enable us to leverage their knowledge and expertise globally.

Our Values

Our values drive our day-to-day behaviors and inform our decisions. Our values are:

> **Integrity**: We operate honestly, doing what is right
> **Excellence**: We remain committed to improving.
> **Confidence**: We think and act boldly, always.
> **Purpose**: We believe in what we do and we do what matters.

This is what it means to work with and for Consumer Solutions.

Appendix G: Essay 3 Video Vignette Scripts

Identity Support Conditions

Vignette 1: High support for identity work

Hi, my name is Chris and this is an honest review of working at Consumer solutions! I've been working at Consumer Solutions for about 5 years now as a team leader. I like working here because I feel like I can use my expertise to accomplish a lot and get valuable work experience in the process. One really great thing about this company is that they are invested in helping me learn about myself and who I am. One quick example, volunteering is an important aspect of my identity and Consumer Solutions supports me by allowing me to take time off to go volunteer. The company even allows me to organize donation toy drives every year. That kind of support is something to think about if you're considering working for Consumer Solutions.

Vignette 2: Low support for identity work

Hi, my name is Chris and this is an honest review of working at Consumer solutions! I've been working at Consumer Solutions for about 5 years now as a team leader. I like working here because I feel like I can use my expertise to accomplish a lot and get valuable work experience in the process. Even though I like Consumer Solutions, I wish the company invested more in helping me learn about myself and express who I am. One quick example, volunteering is an important aspect of my identity. But the company doesn't really allow me to find ways to express that part of who I am. Other companies offer employees time off to go volunteer or give employees the freedom to organize toy drives every year. That kind of support is something to think about if you're considering working for Consumer Solutions.