A FOOT IN TWO WORLDS: EXPLORING ORGANIZATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL DUAL IDENTIFICATION

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Who am I? Who are you? Who are we? These are some of the fundamental questions that identity scholars have grappled with since the 1900s when researchers across multiple disciplines first began to theorize about the self, identity, and identification. While the benefits and consequences of singular identities has been largely studied, recent scholars have argued for the importance of multiple identity research, as multiple identities have become increasingly salient to individuals due to societal and organizational changes including globalization and technological advancements. An important phenomenon within multiple identity research is dual identification, of which I explore a specific type– identification with both one's organization and one's profession. Using a three-study, quantitative design spanning two industries, I studied the effects of dual identification and identity conflict on individual psychological outcomes, turnover intentions, and OCB engagement. Findings from these three studies, holistically, indicate that when individuals experience identity conflict between their organizational and professional identities, they experience negative outcomes. These negative outcomes – increased emotional exhaustion, psychological distress, and turnover intentions, in addition to reduced OCB engagement – have important ramifications for the individuals themselves and their organization. However, post-hoc results indicate that dual identification – through the main effects of organizational and professional identification – itself leads to positive outcomes. Thus, whether multiple identities are a boon or burden might be a result of whether an individual has reconciled these identities. Ultimately, this research adds to the identity literature by providing a more nuanced view of multiple identities and their outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Who am I? Who are you? Who are we? These are some of the fundamental questions that identity scholars have grappled with since the 1900s when researchers across multiple disciplines first began to theorize about the self, identity, and identification. Identity, which is defined as "the set of meanings that define who one is when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person" (Burke & Stets, 2009: 3), rose to prominence in the 1990s thanks to the work of Albert and Whetten (1985), Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994). Fast forward almost thirty years and identity is one of the most commonly studied constructs in the social sciences (Brubaker & Cooper, 2000; Cote, 2006) and the number of publications on the topic has steadily increased over time (Cote & Levine, 2014). There is no evidence of this trend reversing, as a study of trends regarding identity in organizations indicates that issues of identity are no longer a fringe concern, but rather central to the organizational field as a whole (Haslam, Postmes, & Ellemers, 2003). I posit that identity's popularity can be attributed to both the predictive power of a single identity on various individual and organizational outcomes, such as performance and extra-role behaviors (e.g. Blader & Tyler, 2009; Riketta, 2005), and to the broad applicability of theories of identity. Identity theories, in all their forms, seek to explain the meaning that individuals have for the multiple identities they claim, how these identities relate to each other, how these identities tie them to groups and society, and how these identities influence thoughts, behaviors, and feelings (Burke & Stets, 2009). Moreover, scholars have recognized that the concept of identity holds great promise as a

theoretical framework that can shed light on dynamics in organizations, including the individuals and groups within them (Blader, Wrzesniewski, & Bartel, 2012).

While identity scholars agree that there are different levels of self – the personal, the relational, and the collective (cf. Brewer & Gardner, 1996) – and that each level of self can have multiple identities within it (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009), researchers have tended to focus on only one identity at a time, even as scholars note the importance and prevalence of multiple identities (Ramarajan, 2014; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Multiple identities have become increasingly salient to individuals due to societal and organizational changes including globalization and technological advancements (e.g. Bartel et al., 2012; Poster, 2007). Another important topic that has increased the complexity of identity is diversity. Although diversity is increasingly embraced in organizations, there are still pressures to cover your subgroup identity and assimilate into the superordinate group (Yoshino, 2006). This causes the basic identity question to shift from "Who am I" to "Who are we" to "Who am I expected to be" (Blader et al., 2012). It is no surprise, then, that research has noted that individuals often engage in self-censorship because they believe that others in the same environment may hold different views (Avery & Steingard, 2008; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). This is a result of how groups can exert a strong pressure over individuals to conform to the views and expectations held by the majority of group (Hackman, 1992).

While researchers have begun to explore how individuals handle sub-groups within larger organizational identities, there is very little research on the consequences of an individual identifying with two identities nested within the same level of self. As scholars note, multiple identities can be salient at the same time, a construct termed *coactivation* (Ashforth & Johnson,

2001; Serpe & Stryker, 1987). When an individual identifies with two groups at the same time, this is termed *dual identification*. Interest in dual identification has increased over the last decade, although quantitative research on the subject is scant. Some scholars have explored identification with two different groups, but have empirically analyzed the data in a way where the identities were tested separately rather than together (e.g. Chen, Chi, & Friedman, 2013; George & Chattopadhyay, 2005), which, while reflective of multiple identity research, does not necessarily reflect the conceptualization of dual identification, which requires simultaneous identification (and ultimately simultaneous testing). An exception to this critique, however, is research on organizational and subsidiary dual identification within multinational corporations (Vora, Kostova, & Roth, 2007), where the authors group respondents into categories based on their magnitude of dual identification. Vora and colleagues (2007) found that dual identification had significant effects on important organizational outcomes. While this research is promising, there are many more situations in which an individual can dual identify with that warrant exploration, given the significant predictive validity of identification for organizational behavior (cf. Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). One type of dual identification that is important to explore further is the joint identification an individual holds with their organization and profession.

When it comes to identification research, organizational identification – or OID – is among the most popular targets for identification (Ashforth et al., 2008). OID is defined as "the perception of oneness with or belongness' to the organization" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989: 21) and has been linked to numerous organizational outcomes. For example, meta-analytic evidence illustrates the positive relationship between OID and employee performance at a broad level (e.g. Riketta, 2005; van Knippenberg, 2000). It has also been linked, more specifically, to increased

employee creativity (Hirst, van Dick, & van Knippenberg, 2009) and to organizational financial performance (Homburg, Wieseke, & Hoyer, 2009). OID is distinct from organizational commitment and is more strongly correlated with extra-role behaviors (like citizenship behaviors) and job involvement than organizational commitment (Riketta, 2005). While recent research has focused on the "dark side" of OID (e.g. Galvin, Lange, & Ashforth, 2015), the overwhelming body of research on OID indicates it is beneficial for organizations as well as for employees (Ashforth et al., 2008). But, in the current times, organizations are not individuals' only collective affiliation. Another important affiliation to individuals is their profession.

A profession is distinct from an occupation in that professionalization is a continuum that occupations fall upon, ergo all professions include occupations but not all occupations are classified as professions. Professions are demarcated from normal careers or jobs by the way of specialized education and skills based on theoretical knowledge (Hickson & Thomas, 1969). Because individuals do not become professionals overnight, their professional identities precede their organizational identities in their development (Aranya, Pollock, & Amernic, 1981). Thus, the outcomes of professional identification (PID) are important to explore for professionals. Research on the outcomes of professional identity is limited, although evidence does indicate it leads to positive outcomes for organizations. For instance, Mohtashami and colleagues (2015) found that professional identification was positively correlated to clinical competency for nurses. In the field of accounting, scholars have linked professional identification to organizational commitment (Kalbers & Fogarty, 1995). In summation, while PID is less explored than OID, both constructs have important implications for organizations and for the individuals themselves. Research on these two similar constructs, however, has occurred separately, with little research conducted on both forms of identification together since Gouldner's (1957) seminal work on

cosmopolitans (those who identified with their professions) and locals (those who identified with their organizations). While Gouldner (1957) argued that individuals fall on a continuum in regards to whether they identify with their profession or their organization, I take a dual identification approach to these identities, in that individuals can identify with both their organization and their profession at the same time (rather than a "one or the other" approach). Thus, while the evidence on OID and PID indicates, separately, they are beneficial to organizations, would examining the constructs from a dual identification perspective paint such a rosy picture?

Thus, the overarching purpose of this dissertation is to examine, "Are there any negative consequences to organizational and professional dual identification?" This train of thought echoes a theoretical view called the "too-much-of-a-good-thing effect" or TMGT effect (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013), which theorizes that even beneficial things can result in negative outcomes if taken too far. Using uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg, 2000; Hogg, 2007), which posits that individuals identify with larger collectives in order to reduce uncertainty in their lives, I argue that dual identification with both the organization and the profession may actually create more uncertainty for the individual, as the identities may provide different directions to the individual about the appropriate behavior at work. A possible negative consequence of these different directions is that the individual may experience an identity conflict, which is defined as an inconsistency in the make-up of two or more identities (Ashforth et al., 2008). I extend this thought further by defining and creating and validating a measure for organizational and professional identity conflicts (OPIC). I define OPIC as a psychological conflict that an individual perceives between who they feel they are supposed to be in their organization and who they feel they are supposed to be in their profession. This includes the perceived conflict

between both of the collective identities in regards to their goals, beliefs, values, stereotypical traits, and knowledge. Thus, the first research question I explore is, “How does dual identification relate to identity conflict?”

However, the relationship between dual identification and identity conflict might not be so straightforward due to individual variation in regards to how they conceptualize the identities involved and how they perceive the strengths of those identities. Thus, the second research question is, “What role does identity complexity and identity strength play in the dual identification – identity conflict relationship?” Additionally, I am interested in exploring the potential proximal and distal outcomes of identity conflicts. Thus, the third research question is, “What are the outcomes of identity conflict?” Lastly, I am interested the potential moderators of this the relationship between identity conflict and outcomes. Thus, my fourth and final research question is, “What constructs would moderate a relationship between identity conflict and both proximal and distal outcomes?” To this end, I explore the intractability of identity conflicts or IICs. IICs are conflicts that are protracted and resist resolution, often keeping an individual trapped in a conflict spiral from which they have difficulty extricating themselves (cf. Fiol, Pratt, & O’Connor, 2009). The research on IICs has largely been theoretical and qualitative, so an additional aim of this research is to create and validate a quantitative scale for this construct. To address these research questions and gain a greater understanding of the consequences of dual identification, I designed three studies. Study 1, using data from academic professionals, was designed to validate the measures and conduct initial tests of the posited relationships. Study 2, using data from health care professionals, was designed to conduct additional measure validation and test the entire theoretical model. Study 3, using data from hospital employees, was designed to further explore the interesting findings found in the prior to studies.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Identity: A Brief History

Research on identification dates back to the early 1900s before the concept was even coined. For example, Barnard discussed the coalescence between the individual and the organization (Barnard, 1938/1968), while Taylor (1914) argued that the interests of organizations and its employees should become identical through close cooperation. March and Simon (1958), however, were the first to formalize the construct, delineating identity's multilevel nature antecedents and outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2008). While research on identity spans the social sciences and has a rich history in fields such as sociology, where researchers have explored the roots of identity – including symbolic interaction (e.g. Stryker, 1980) and perceptual control theory (Powers, 1973) – social psychologists and organizational behavior scholars have been instrumental in articulating how individuals see themselves as group members (Burke & Stets, 2009). In fact, from this stream of research came social identity theory (Abrams & Hogg, 1990). Because this dissertation is centered on how individuals see themselves in groups, I will be focusing on identity as it relates to social psychology and organizational behavior instead of taking a sociological perspective.

Identity, in the social psychology realm, was brought to the forefront in the 1990s due to the work of Albert and Whetten (1985), Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994). As with Miscenko and Day (2016), I believe it is important to demarcate identity and identification and view identity as referring to the meaning of a particular entity that is internalized as part of an individual's self-concept and thus internally-oriented (I also view identities as nested within the three levels of self, which I will elaborate on in a later section). In

contrast, identification is a cognitive, psychological, and/or emotional attachment that an individual makes with some entity (role, team, profession, organization, etc.). The term identification is also used to incorporate both the different ways individuals identify and the targets to which they identify. Moreover, identification describes the way individuals define themselves in terms of another individual, relationship, or group (Pratt, 1998). Before discussing the nuances of identity and identification, however, it is important to delineate two of the theories that underlie the concept of identity within social psychology: social identity theory (Tajfel, 1972) and self-categorization theory (Turner, 1985).

Social Identity Theory (SIT)

The idea of social identity theory was introduced in 1970s by Tajfel, who presented the idea to theorize how people conceptualize themselves in a group context. Tajfel and colleagues conducted a series of experiments in which participants were arbitrarily assigned groups and were told to assign points (which were meaningless) to individuals, either in their group (ingroup) or another group (outgroup). While the groups had no task, no interaction with other group members, and the outcome was meaningless, individuals tended to assign more points to the ingroup than the outgroup (Billig & Tajfel, 1973; Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, & Flament, 1971). While Tajfel and colleagues first argued that individuals were simply obeying a norm of competitive behavior, these experiments and the resulting theoretical questions ultimately led to social identity theory (Hornsey, 2008). Thus, social identity theory (SIT), derives from the concept of group identification, which is where individuals perceive themselves as intertwined with the fate of their group (Tolman, 1943). In other words, group members personally experience the success and losses of the group (Foote, 1951; Tolman, 1943) and this social

identification leads individuals to view non-members as dissimilar to oneself and to evaluate these non-members less positively and to view them as less trustworthy than group members (Jetten, Spears, & Manstead, 1996). Moreover, these negative evaluations of non-members are intensified when they belong to a competing group because perceived rivalry between groups serves to accentuate the perceptions of dissimilarity (Turner, 1985). This social comparison to other groups is a fundamental part of SIT, as the theory proposes that we only derive value from our group memberships to the extent that we can compare our group positively to other groups, which in turn motivates us to maintain a positive group distinctiveness from other groups (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Tajfel defined social identity as “the individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership” (Tajfel, 1972: 292). He posited that the groups we belong to create and define our own place in society. This social classification serves two different functions – it cognitively segments and orders the social environment and enables the individual to define themself in the context of that social environment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This theory was further developed to encompass ideas on social comparison, intergroup relations, and self-enhancement to form what is now called social identity theory (e.g. Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Moreover, SIT places self-conception as a group member (social identity) at the heart of its analysis of group life, as groups structure and define who we are, and social psychological dynamics associated with self-conception produce group and intergroup behaviors (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Not only do organizations themselves have identities, but they also encompass a myriad of subgroups and individual identities, which are structured around functional backgrounds, occupations/professions, and demographics including gender,

age, education level, and religious affiliation. These different identities come together in organizational contexts and establish for both individual and organizations the sense of who they are (Blader, 2012).

Self-Categorization Theory (SCT)

Self-categorization theory, or SCT, was a theory developed by Turner – who had been involved in the development of SIT – and his students (Turner, 1982; Turner et al., 1987) to elaborate and refine the cognitive element of SIT by focusing additionally on intragroup processes. As a consequence, some scholars refer to SCT as the intellectual child of SIT (Seyel & Swann, 2012). The distinction between SIT and SCT is that the former is a theory on intergroup relationships while the latter is a more general theory of the self and focuses on intergroup and intragroup processes (Schwartz, Luyckx, & Vignoles, 2012). According to SCT, individuals categorize themselves into groups due to both accessibility and fit (Oakes, 1987; Oakes, Turner, & Haslam, 1991), with prototypicality as an important topic. Group prototypicality refers to the extent to which an individual feels they embody the set of attributes that define the group and set it apart from other groups (Hogg, 2005). Thus, the group identity serves not just to describe what it is to be an ingroup member, but also sets the standard for the appropriate attitudes, emotions, and behaviors for members (Hornsey, 2008). This results in depersonalization, which is a cornerstone of SCT, and is when individuals start seeing group members more as models of the group prototype rather than as individuals.

Despite the nuances between SIT and SCT, both theories tend to share similar assumptions, such as that individuals adopt identities on the basis of social reference groups in order to both reduce uncertainty and enhance self-esteem (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001) and take

the same meta-theoretical perspective (Hornsey, 2008). Moreover, both SIT and SCT tend to make a similar assumption about identity stability. To clarify this point, there is a debate amongst identity scholars about whether identities are relatively stable sets of meanings (Stryker & Burke, 2000) or whether identities are not stable and enduring, but rather provisional and contested (Brown, 2015). Because SIT and SCT are in the social psychology realm (rather than the sociological realm), they both assume that identities are relatively set and that this stability is necessary for individuals to function effectively in their groups and roles (Stryker & Burke, 2000). As a result, scholars tend to collapse the theories together by referring to them instead as a social identity perspective or approach. While SIT and SCT are the most common identity theories utilized, there are additional identities theories nested within them. Relevant to this dissertation is uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg, 2007).

Uncertainty-Identity Theory

Uncertainty-identity theory, according to Hogg (2007), is a development of the motivational component of SIT. This theory explores why individuals strongly identify with groups or collectives. While SIT explores self-enhancement motives for identifying with groups – as SIT posits that we only derive value from our group memberships to the extent that we can compare our group positively to other groups, which in turn motivates us to maintain a positive group distinctiveness from other groups (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) –other motives for group identification exist, including optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991) and uncertainty reduction (Hogg, 2000). This latter motive is of most salience to the current discussion of multiple identities and identification. According to uncertainty-identity theory, individuals are motivated to reduce uncertainty in their lives (Hogg, 2000; Hogg, 2007), as

feeling uncertain about oneself is both uncomfortable and powerfully motivating. Individuals will thus strive to reduce uncertainties, which is where group memberships come in. Group memberships tell individuals how they should think, behave, and even how others will perceive and treat them. In other words, group identification is one of the most effective ways for an individual to reduce their uncertainty. Thus, because group memberships serve this uncertainty reduction motive, it is no surprise that individuals hold multiple group memberships at one time (e.g. dual identification, which is when an individual identifies with two identities at the same time), as each identity provides more information about who the individual is and thus reduces uncertainty for them. While this may at first glance appear positive – with these multiple group identities providing an individual with a schema to understand who they are and how they should behave – there is a potential for a negative consequence of holding these multiple group identities (such as dual identification), as a result of these group memberships and identities feeding the individual conflicting information and thereby increasing rather than reducing uncertainty.

Before discussing the popular conceptualizations and operationalizations within these theoretical frameworks, it is important to first discuss some of the nuances within the identity literature, including the different levels of self and multiple identities. Because, while SIT and SCT tend to focus on the collective level, proceeding work by identity scholars have noted that identity also exists at the relational and personal level, corresponding to the different levels of self. Before articulating the different levels of self, it is important to note that identity scholars tend to fall into two camps: those who use the terms "self" and "identity" interchangeably and those that believe that a person has one core identity that is composed of various selves (Ramarajan, 2014). I fall into the latter camp, and view the self as having three levels – the

personal, the relational, and the collective (cf. Brewer & Gardner, 1996) – where different identities are nested. Therefore, I will next discuss what the "self" is and delineate its three levels.

The Self and the Levels of Self

According to Mead (1934), the "self" develops from the mind as the mind interacts with the environment to sustain the individual that holds it. As the self emerges in social interaction within a society and because individuals occupy different positions within society, the self is differentiated into multiple components, which James (1890) calls multiple selves. Extending this notion, Brewer and Gardner (1996) posit that the individual self is composed of personal identities (including unique traits), relational identities (including important role-relationships with others), and collective identities (such as organizational groups). These three categories of self-concept have fundamental differences in how the person defines themselves. For example, if an individual reflects aspects of their individual self, they are using a personal identity orientation. In contrast, if someone sees themselves as part of a relationship, they are reflecting a relational identity orientation. Lastly, if someone sees themselves as part of a social group, like a profession or an organization, they are reflecting a collective identity orientation (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Flynn, 2005). In this dissertation, I focus on dynamics at the collective level of self.

Collective Self and Group Identities

The third level of self, and arguably the most studied level of self in social psychology, is the collective self and its corresponding group identities. The collective self has received the

most attention because social groups pervade almost every aspect of human existence (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). Groups provide the parameters for what we do on a day-to-day basis and provide the context for interpersonal relationships, as similarity and proximity have a strong impact on the friendships we develop and even the romantic partnerships we choose (Berscheid & Reis, 1998; Duck, 1992). Groups vary enormously in regards to the extent to which they are perceived as unique entities (Lickel, Hamilton, Wieczorkowska, Lewis, & Sherman, 2000), but also in regards to their size, configuration, permanence, purpose, and the spatial distribution of members. These groups also vary in their status, power, and prestige (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). Moreover, these groups can be nested within superordinate groups (with as departments within an organization). Relevant to this discussion on the levels of self, groups influence – either distally or deliberately – an individual's self-concept, or view they have of their self (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001).

But what is the collective self? Turner and colleagues define the collective self as a "shift towards the perception of self as an interchangeable exemplar of some social category and away from the perception of self as a unique person" (Turner et al., 1987: 50). Moreover, the collective identity orientation's basis of evaluation is the embodiment of group characteristics, the frame of reference is group-group comparisons, and the motive is group interest (Flynn, 2005). According to Sedikides and Brewer (2015), the collective self is achieved by inclusion in large social groups and through contrasting these groups with relevant out-groups or referent groups. Individuals tend to develop collective identities because of human beings' innate desire for connectedness with others or the need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Additional motives for fostering collective identities include a need for affiliation and other relatedness needs (Alderfer, 1969). Along with these motives, individuals have incentive to make sure that these associations are

satisfying, resulting in in-group favoritism and outgroup degradation (Messick & Mackie, 1989; Tajfel &Turner, 1989; Turner & Reynolds, 2003).

The collective identity is a type of social identity, which Tajfel (1978) defined as "the part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1978: 63). Thus, as a type of social identity, collective identities are both shared by members and distinguished between groups in contrast to personal identities, which are unique to individuals and serve to distinguish individuals (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). Shared social identities, moreover, lead to both coordination with others and the sharing of resources among fellow group members. In contrast, when groups lack a shared social identity, people hinder each other, resulting in ineffectiveness and burnout (Seyle & Swann, 2012). This level of self is the primary level of self that is explored through SIT and SCT. Additionally, the collective level of self incorporates the concept of prototypicality (Seyle & Swann, 2012). Prototypes are fuzzy sets of attributes that both define the group and help differentiate the group from other groups (Hogg, 2012). Prototypes strive to maximize entitativity, which is the extent to which the group is a distinct entity that is homogeneous, well-structured with clear boundaries, and has members that share a common fate (Campbell, 1958; Hamilton & Sherman, 1996). Therefore, prototypicality refers to the extent to which individuals feel that they embody the set of attributes that set the group apart as a distinct entity (Goldman & Hogg, 2016). Individuals are highly aware of how prototypical they and others in the group are (e.g. Haslam, Oakes, McGarty, Turner, & Onorato, 1995; Hogg, 2005).

Primacy of the Self Debate

One debate that exists between identity scholars is that of the primacy of these levels of self. Some scholars point to the evidence that supports the motivational primacy of the individual self (rather than the relational or collective) and the individual identity (e.g. Gaertner, Sedikides, & Graetz, 1999) and argue that an individual has stronger reactions to threats and enhancements regarding the individual self than to the collective self. To this point, a meta-analysis conducted by Gaertner, Sedikides, Vevea, and Iuzzini (2000) indicated that individuals were more displeased with threats to the individual self than with threats to the collective self, with the strength of in-group identification not significantly moderating the relationship. This led the scholars to argue that the individual self has a privileged status over the other levels of self. Thus, proponents of this approach argue that the individual self is the "home base" (Sedikides & Gaertner, 2015) and that the collective self only functions to help maximize gains for the individual self (Blader, 2012). The second level of self, the relational self, is also viewed by some scholars to be the most important, as interpersonal motivations are arguably more central and powerful than the motives of the personal and collective selves (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). Proponents of the primacy of the relational self argue that the need to belong is powerfully adaptive (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), pointing to humanity's evolutionary past, where one's odds of survival are higher in a group than by one's self (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). Additionally, proponents of this self essentially argue against the primacy of the personal self by negating the importance of self-esteem (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001).In my opinion, however, the argument for the primacy of the interpersonal or relational self is about belonging to a group. I argue, rather, that this is an argument for the primacy of the collective self.

Lastly, in contrast to proponents of the primacy of the individual self, other scholars argue for the primacy of the collective self by reiterating the findings that people make decisions that prioritize their group memberships and collective selves, even at a cost to their individual self (e.g. Branscombe & Ellemers, 1998; Brewer & Roccas, 2001; Brewer & Weber, 1994; Hogg, 2001). Examples of evidence supporting the primacy of the collective self include how individuals choose to remain in groups, even when they are stigmatized or unsuccessful and they can extricate themselves from the group (Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1997). Additionally, individuals feel guilt for the actions of their group, even if they did not participate in those actions (Spears, 2001). Further evidence for the primacy of the collective self comes from research showing that the *big fish in a little pond* or the *frog-pond effect* – which is a term used to describe a social comparison effect where individuals from higher-status social groups have more negative self-conceptions than equally capable individuals from less prestigious groups (cf. Marsh, 1987) – is attenuated among individuals who are highly identified with their collective groups because they are more focused on the group's overall performance than with their relative performance as individuals (McFarland & Buehler, 1995). Also, researchers note, because Western cultures tend to have a bias for the individual self, they tend to underestimate the importance and influence of the collective identity (Hogg, 2001). Moreover, as Blader and colleagues (2012) point out, despite the emphasis on individual motives in social science research, individuals are not nearly self-focused and self-interested as the plethora of research might indicate. Additionally, as Hogg argues, the collective self reigns sovereign because it is from the collective self that the individual and interpersonal selves emerge and are sustained (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). Because of this evidence, I argue that that while all three levels of self are important, the collective level of self is particularly crucial to explore and will thus be the

focus of my research. It is important to note, however, that I am not taking a stance on which level of self holds primacy – rather, I am acknowledging that all levels of the self are important but choosing to focus solely on the collective self for my dissertation.

Multiple Identities

Just as there are multiple levels of self, as explored above, an individual can have multiple identities – or stated another way, individuals can have multiple identities within a given level of self and at different levels of self (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009). Identity scholars have long argued for the existence of multiple identities within the same individual (e.g. Tajfel & Turner, 1979). As an example of this, two major theories in identity, SIT and role-identity theory, acknowledge that each individual can have multiple group memberships and occupy numerous roles simultaneously (Roccas & Brewer, 2002; Thoits, 1986). In fact, the idea of multiple identities is not even novel – social scientists and philosophers have discussed multiple identities for years (e.g. James, 1890; Simmel, 1950; Thoits, 1983). Individuals possess multiple identities because they occupy multiple roles, are members of multiple groups or collectives, and claim multiple individual characteristics (Burke & Stets, 2009). One concept underlying the notion of identity and multiple identities is that identities are a resource pool. Identities provide (or deny) individuals access to a variety of tangible and intangible resources, ranging from legitimacy to schemas to social networks (Caza & Wilson, 2009). Multiple identities allow individuals access to different pools of resources, which can serve as an evolutionary and social advantage, and even provide individuals social capital (cf. Coleman, 1990).

Despite the importance of multiple identities, research on identity has tended to focus on one level of self and one type of identity (McConnell, 2011). Stryker and Burke (2000) even

noted that little research has been guided by the notion of multiple identities, even though researchers acknowledge the existence of them. Moreover, trends in both society and organizations – such as increasing globalization, diversity, and communication technology – are making more identities salient for more individuals (Ramarajan, 2014). As a result, individuals concurrently develop, monitor, and manage these multiple identities. This makes it important to understand the implications of the multiple identities, especially as these different identities serve as inputs that an individual uses to construct their perception of self (Blader, 2012). To help understand multiple identities, scholars have generally taken one of five theoretical perspectives from which to view the issue.

Theoretical Perspectives on Multiple Identities

As Ramarajan (2014) noted, there are various ways that multiple identities have been conceptualized that can be broken down into five approaches: social psychology, microsociological, psychodynamic/developmental, critical, and intersectionality. First is the social psychology approach (social identity theory), which assumes that identities are activated when they are triggered. Moreover, this approach tends to think that one identity is activated at a time and considers group identities. Second, the microsociological approach (identity theory) assumes that identities are connected to roles and relationships and that these can be in conflict. Third, the psychodynamic/developmental approach considers that identities unfold over time and identity tensions are manifested at different levels. Fourth, the critical approach views the self as fragmented and with no single identity and views identity as constructed (either real or fake). Last, the intersectionality approach considers multiple group memberships, especially those that are marginalized, with some that might be chronically salient and some that are invisible

(Ramarajan, 2014). I am taking a social psychological approach to multiple identities, specifically because I am operating at the collective level with my research. Diverging from this approach, however, I am assuming that multiple identities can be activated or triggered at one time. This highlights a debate within identity scholars, where some scholars view SIT as having a single, salient identity that guides action and with other scholars holding the view that SIT acknowledges that individuals have multiple social identities (Scott, Corman, & Cheney, 1998). I take the latter stance and am assuming that the coactivation of two collective identities is possible. But, what is coactivation?

Coactivation

Coactivation refers to when more than one identity is salient at a time (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2012) and extends research that has demonstrated that different identities are salient in different roles and contexts (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Serpe & Stryker, 1987). The important distinction to be made about coactivation is that it does not necessarily mean that identities at different levels of self will be simultaneously salient. This is because some scholars have suggested that individuals move along a continuum in regards to identifying themselves as unique individuals (personal identity) to considering their roles and relationships (role identity) to viewing themselves as members of a particular social group (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). With this perspective, personal and collective identities can be viewed as "functionally antagonistic," which means that they are unlikely to be salient at the same time (Hornsey, 2008; Turner et al., 1987). This is because if individuals thinks of themselves primarily as unique people, they are less likely to think of themselves as part of social groups (Ramarajan, 2014). In contrast, it is possible for two collective identities to be coactivated, as they are at the same level of self and

thus have similar motives and basis for evaluation (cf. Flynn, 2005). The notion of coactivation – and the acceptance of it by identity scholars – has led to research on dual identification, which is when an individual identifies with multiple groups simultaneously. The subject of dual identification led to research that has explored how these pair of identities interact and are related to one another (e.g. Blader, 2012). Before discussing dual identification, however, it is important to discuss another subtopic within identity research that has explored how individuals organize their multiple identities called social identity complexity.

Social Identity Complexity

Social identity complexity is a function of how individuals cognitively organize their multiple identities (Caza & Wilson, 2009). It emerged from the faultline literature and can be defined as the degree to which individuals view their multiple identities as similar in regards to the prototypical characteristics of the group or how overlapping the groups are in terms of members (Ashforth et al., 2008; Lau & Murnighan, 1998). Roccas and Brewer (2002) proposed the construct, which described four alternate models for how individuals can represent their multiple identities. These four different models are intersection, dominance, compartmentalization, and merger. *Intersection* refers to when an individual views their identities as intersecting and, as result, views them together (e.g. a female attorney). *Dominance* refers to when an individual views one of the identities is the lens from which the other identity is viewed (e.g. the less dominant identity is subordinated). *Compartmentalization* views the identities as separate and *merger* is where an individual views both of their identities as important and salient across situations (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). An individual has low social identity complexity when they do not differentiate between their identities (merger), only focuses

on their intersection (intersection), or allows one identity to dominate (dominance) the other (Ashforth et al., 2008). In contrast, an individual has high identity complexity when the individual compartmentalizes (compartmentalization) their identities (Ashforth et al., 2008). In the context of multiple identities, dual identification, and its outcomes, social identity complexity matters because it may have an effect on whether dual identification leads to negative outcomes or not.

Dual Identification

Scholars have given increasing attention to the issue of dual identification (which is when an individual simultaneously identifies with two identities), based on the recognition that an individual can identify with multiple social groups simultaneously (Chen, Chi, & Friedman, 2013; Riketta, 2005) and as employment relationships have become more complex, making dual identification more common (Lipponen, Helkama, Olkkonen, & Juslin, 2005). Dual identity research has focused on multiple identities within organizations, such as workgroups and departments (Riketta & van Dick, 2005); sometimes with individuals belonging to multiple organizations, such as with contract workers (George & Chattopadhyay, 2005); and also with the tension between intra-organizational and extra-organizational identities, such as with an individual's union membership clashing with their organizational identity (Angle & Perry, 1986). It is less common, however, for dual identity research to include identifications beyond a single organization (Chen et al., 2013). As a result of this fact, and in response to recent calls for more research on multiple identities (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2008), Chen and colleagues (2013) investigated the consequences of dual identification with sales employees in a department store. The authors found the relationship between organizational identification and performance to be

higher when department-store identification was higher (Chen et al., 2013). While this research is interesting, one weakness of the dual identification literature is that it has focused on how one identification can affect another identification's relationship with outcomes (e.g. Chen et al., 2013; van Dick, van Knippenberg, Hägele, Guillaume, & Brodbeck, 2008), rather than exploring the consequences of the dual identification. Therefore, I theorize (and will be treating) dual identification as a condition that, once established, can have important implications for individuals and organizations – and not just through one type of identification.

Moreover, while there has been research on identification with units outside of the organization, such as professions, with research establishing that health care workers identify with both their profession and organization (cf. Johnson, Morgeson, Ilgen, Meyer, & Lloyd, 2006), the outcomes of this specific type of dual identification have not been quantitatively assessed. Therefore, I will be focusing on dual identification in regards to the organization and the profession and the posited consequences. I believe that these two collective identities are of the upmost importance, as work-related identities have a unique importance to individuals, as they often influence their sense of self more profoundly than do personal characteristics, such as gender, race, or ethnicity (Hogg & Terry, 2001). Moreover, the movement towards team-based and networked organizations makes the issues of collective identity salient (Blader, 2012). Before exploring the potential consequences of this dual identification, I will delineate each type of identity and identification.

Organizational Identity and Identification

One of the more prominent areas where identity has been explored is through the construct of organizational identity and organizational identification. First, I will discuss

organizational identity. Organizational identities (OI), are macro-level identities that refer to the shared beliefs about what makes the organization central, enduring, and distinctive (Albert & Whetten, 1985; Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000). Pratt and Foreman (2000) extended the concept of OI by arguing that, in order for these shared beliefs to be an identity rather than culture, it must meet certain criteria. These criteria include that the beliefs must involve the cognition of the organizational members, it must refer to "who"-related questions, it must be relational, and it must involve sensemaking targeted inward (Pratt & Corley, 2012). Moreover, there can be multiple organizational identities which can be in conflict when they advocate different courses for strategic action (Pratt & Foreman, 2000). Pratt and Foreman (2000) argue that these multiple OIs can be managed by either increasing identity plurality or by reducing identity plurality.

One of the more prominent ways SIT has become explored is through the construct of Organizational Identification or OID. Ashforth and Mael (1989) – whose proposed SIT as a new paradigm for advancing research on OID, which had begun in the 1970s – defined OID as "the perception of oneness with or belongness' to the organization" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989: 21). OID is distinct from OI in that OI refers to the shared identity of the organization and OID refers to how an individual feels regarding their organization and belongingness. When people identify strongly with their organization, they perceive its qualities as self-defining (e.g. Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994) and therefore become personally invested in the organization's successes and failures (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), speaking in terms of "we" rather than "I." Ashforth and Mael (1989) further noted that since an individual's organization may provide an answer to the question "who am I," OID is a specific form of social identification. This means that members begin to assimilate organizational goals as their own (Simon, 1947) and become intrinsically motivated to contribute to the organization as a collective (Ashforth & Mael, 1989;

Dutton et al., 1994). Belonging to an organization is one way an individual can achieve a social identity (Tajfel, 1978).

OID should be important to organizations as it has been linked to individuals taking certain behaviors such as supporting organizational objectives, taking pride in their tenure, and defending the organization to outsiders (Lee, 1971). In fact, OID has been linked to a myriad of important outcomes, including cooperation and effort (Bartel, 2001), intention to stay (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998), and citizenship behaviors (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000), the latter of which is one of the three types of performance dimensions (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). The topic of OID is so popular, scholars have also expanded OID to include other facets and dimensions. For example, Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) proposed an expanded model of OID to include other facets of identification, including disidentification, ambivalent identification, and neutral identification. Additionally, Johnson, Morgeson, and Hekman (2012) proposed that OID should be separated into two components, cognitive and affective. Recent work has also sought to explore the "dark side" of OID through the construct of narcissistic OID (Galvin, Lange, & Ashforth, 2015). In conclusion, OID is one of the most studied and understood constructs of identification within the social identity perspective. There is, however, another important group identity that has been given less attention by identity scholars – that of an individual's occupational or professional identification.

Professional Identity and Identification

As discussed previously, SIT maintains that individuals classify themselves into various social groups. These groups include professional memberships and occupational groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Dutton et al., 1994). Researchers have tended to use the phrases "occupational

identity" and "professional identity" interchangeably, but, for simplicity's sake, I will use the terms professional identity and professional identification to discuss research on both terms. Technically, however, they are distinct terms. Occupations actually fall on a professionalization continuum, with occupations differing in terms of specialized education, skills based on theoretical knowledge, and other characteristics (Hickson & Thomas, 1969). Thus, not all occupations are professions. But, as previously noted, I will be using the "professional" terminology. The distinction between OID and professional identification is important because as Aranya and colleagues (1981) argue, professional affiliation is both separate from and happens before the development of an individual's belonging and subsequent identification to any particular organization (Aranya, Pollock, & Amernic, 1981). Johnson and colleagues (2006) highlight the importance of the professional identity, as professionals possibly identify more strongly with their profession and are more committed to their profession than their organization.

Professional identity refers to an individual's perception of their profession's interests, abilities, goals, and values (Kielhofner, 2007). Additionally, it represents a complex structure of meanings in which individuals link their motivations with acceptable career roles (Meijers, 1998). It has also been conceptualized as a major component of one's overall sense of self or identity (Kroger, 2007; Skorikov & Vondracek, 2007). Although professional identity and professional identification is not as popular as OI and OID, over the past 50 years research has explored the structure, functions, and development of these identities, with the majority of research conducted within the field of vocational psychology, in contrast to the field of organizational behavior where OI/OID research has been conducted (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2012). In these 50 years, important observations about the nature of professional identities have been made. For instance, they are characterized by both continuity and change; it is shaped by

the interpersonal relationships around which it is constructed; individuals are very involved in constructing this identity; they are constrained by socioeconomic structures; and there is considerable variance in the salience of professional identities (Brown, Kirpal, & Rauner, 2007). Unfortunately, while scholars have discovered much about the nature of professional identities, including its functions, development, and formation influences (cf. Skorikov & Vondracek, 2012), less it known about professional identities and professional identification and their relationship to important individual and organizational outcomes. This, however, is beginning to change, with scholars recognizing the importance of occupations and professions in regards to identity and identification (Obodaru, 2017; Welbourne & Paterson, 2017).

Identity Strength

Something that is important to note before discussing identity conflicts, however, is that the identities an individual holds (e.g. organizational identities and professional identities) may differ in terms of their cohesiveness, a concept that is called identity strength. Because of the prevalence of organizational identity research, some scholars have used the terms "identity strength" and "organizational identity strength" interchangeably. OI strength, or identity strength, is defined as the extent to which identity perceptions are both widely held and deeply shared (Cole & Bruch, 2006; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). An important distinction to make about this construct is strength is not meant as a unit-level characteristic where interrater agreement needs to be present (cf. Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002). In contrast, identity strength refers to an individual's perceptions that there is a clarity around the identity. For example, Kreiner and Ashforth's (2004) scale to measure identity strength includes items such as "There is a common sense of purpose in this organization" and "This organization has a clear and unique

vision." Most importantly, research has linked individuals' identity strength perceptions to job attitudes and behaviors (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Milliken, 1990).

Identity Conflicts

As Hornsey (2008) noted in his review of SIT, groups are not islands and become real psychologically when they are contrasted to other groups. Group members also strive for a positive social identity, so members are motivated to think and act in ways that achieve or maintain a positive distinctiveness between groups. What happens then, when there are two groups/identities (i.e. coactivation) involved and dual identification is present? One potential outcome is that the individual will experience an identity conflict. This is supported by identity scholars who note that while individuals with too few identities can be ill-equipped to handle challenging social situations (Hoelter, 1985), individuals with too many identities are prone to role overload and conflict (Pratt & Corley, 2012).

As Ashforth and Mael (1989) noted, an individual can have as many social identities as they have group memberships and these identities can conflict with one another. In other words, when an individual holds two identities as important, they can conflict. In fact, this notion of identities conflicting has been popular for decades. Research on identity conflict first emerged in the 1950s, when scholars began wondering how employees managed their multiple identities – particularly how professionals handled the multiple loci of work identification. Gouldner (1957), was the first to problematize this issue by arguing that employees either identify with their profession or organization at the expense of the other. Specifically, Gouldner (1957) created terms to indicate where individuals fell on the continuum in identifying with their profession or organization. When individuals identified with their organization over their profession, they were

termed “locals.” In contrast, when individuals identified with their occupation, they were termed “cosmopolitans” (Gouldner, 1957). Although current research on multiple identities indicates that identifying with the profession and identifying with the organization are not on a continuum – individuals can identify with both simultaneously – there is an overall sense that a conflict between the two still exists (Caza & Wilson, 2009). Despite some research that has critiqued the robustness of Gouldner’s (1957) work and the research that has argues some of this conflict between professional and organizational identities could be reconciled with professional values and behaviors (Caza & Wilson, 2009), this conflict is still concerning, especially as research on work-family conflict has found that multiple identities have a negative impact of psychological health (Biddle, 1986). Thus, a conversation on identity conflict – especially between professional and organizational identities – is still both relevant and timely.

An identity conflict is conceptualized as an inconsistency between the contents of two or more identities (Ashforth et al., 2008) and has also been conceptualized as what occurs when two identities become salient to the individual in a specific context, with the behavioral expectations of these identities diverging (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Identity conflicts are argued to be pervasive in organizational life (Ashforth et al., 2008). In fact, research in psychology on multiracial social identities has come up with the “marginal man” theory (Shih & Sanchez, 2005), which describes a consequence of multiple social identities whereby an individual is caught between two cultures but, as a consequence, is truly a member of neither group. Taking this perspective into organizational life, this research suggests that the more complex an individual’s work identities, the more marginal they become and the less supported they feel (Caza & Wilson, 2009). This highlights an underlying assumption of the identity conflict literature, which is that individuals have a fixed amount of resources available to them and

balancing multiple identities is likely to result in role overload and strain (Marks, 1977; Rothbard, 2001). In support of the latter, research has shown that individuals can experience conflict between multiple work identities because they feel that they cannot satisfy both other's expectations and their own (Settles, 2004). As a result, individuals feel that they must give precedence to one identity over the other in order to satisfy identity expectations and therefore cannot validate the other identity they hold (Ashforth et al., 2008; Burke & Stets, 2009; Hewlin, 2009).

Moreover, identity conflict can exist between the different identities, such as personal vs. relational, relational vs. collective, or even – as with the focus of my dissertation – between two collective identities. Specifically, in this dissertation I am focusing on an individual's dual identification with both their organization and their profession, which I posit can lead to perceptions of identity conflict. I coin this specific type of conflict OPIC, or organizational and professional identity conflict. I define OPIC as the psychological conflict that an individual perceives between who they feel they are supposed to be in their organization and who they feel they are supposed to be in their profession. This includes the perceived conflict between both of the collective identities in regards to their goals, beliefs, values, stereotypical traits, and knowledge.

Fortunately, most identity conflicts an individual experiences are minor enough that an individual can routinely live with a considerable amount of it (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). However, identity conflict can become problematic, according to Burke (2003), when it meets three criteria – a latent conflict becomes manifest, it is nontrivial, and the individual identifies sufficiently with each identity, resulting in dissonance being experienced. Because identity conflicts can become problematic, research on the subject has focused on how individuals can

cope with the conflict (e.g. Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Breakwell, 2015; Pratt & Doucet, 2000), including renegotiating identity demands, decoupling identities, and establishing a hierarchy of identities. However, less research on identity conflict has focused on the consequences of the conflict for the individual. Before I discuss some of the potential consequences of identity conflict (OPIC specifically), it is important to address a theoretically similar construct: identity interference (Settles, 2004).

Identity Interference

The premise of identity interference, like with identity conflict, is based on the assumption that individuals have multiple identities. Sometimes, these multiple identities can provide benefits to the individual: opportunities for social engagement, economic mobility, and even the accrual of a variety of skills and abilities (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). But, sometimes these multiple identities cause problems for individuals – one of these problems is identity interference. Identity interference refers to when the pressures of one identity interferes with the enactment on another identity (Settles, 2004; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). Settles (2004) provides an example of this by stating a female science student may feel that she needs to minimize her gender to fit in with her peers. This is an example of identity interference because the individual cannot express her gender identity when she is enacting her scientist identity. Scholars who have studied identity interference have linked it to variety of negative individual psychological and physical outcomes (e.g. Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Moreover, research on this topic has tended to concentrate on the incompatibility between work and family identities (Settles, 2004). The main distinction between identity interference and identity conflict is that the former is about one identity

impeding the other while the latter is about inconsistencies between the identities. Despite the importance of identity interference, my dissertation will focus on identity conflict as I am theoretically more interested in the inconsistencies between identities and what the potential consequences are because of these inconsistencies.

The Consequences of Identity Conflict (OPIC)

While research on identity conflict and their effects on individuals is limited, there has been some research done on the topic. Burke (2003), for example, has noted that identity conflict can cause an individual to experience cognitive dissonance. Other scholars have noted that the pressure to behave inauthentically, which can in turn cause psychological stress, can be a result of identity conflicts (e.g. Hewlin, 2003; Higgins, 1989; Settles, 2006; Settles, Sellers, & Damas, Jr., 2002). Moreover, this identity conflict is more likely to occur when the identities in question have more significance to the individual (Settles, 2004), leading to the concept of "identity work" to reduce this conflict using cognitive resources (Fried, Ben-David, Tiegs, Avital, & Yeverechyahu, 1998). The consequences of identity conflict have been most frequently explored in the literature on role conflict and role-identity conflict. Role conflict can occur within an individual (intra-individual) and between two individuals (Biddle, 1979). Due to the psychological nature of this research, I will be highlighting the research on intra-individual role conflict. Researchers who have explored this type of role conflict have emphasized how it creates distress for the individual (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Specifically, role conflict is negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to tension, anxiety, and intentions to leave their organization (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Based on this research on role conflict (e.g. Floyd & Lane, 2000; Jackson & Schuler, 1985) and the work by Burke (2003) on identity

conflict more broadly, I will focus specifically on the proximal outcomes of emotional exhaustion and psychological distress and the more distal measures of performance, including OCB engagement and turnover intentions. While relevant, I will not be exploring cognitive dissonance as an outcome of identity conflict, due to the design of this study. Cognitive dissonance is best measured in an experimental design through manipulations (Sweeney, Hausknecht, & Soutar, 2000) and is not as conducive to self-report, which is the design of this study.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion emerged from Maslach's (1982) model of burnout as one of its three parts. In some ways, the construct has come to replace job burnout entirely, as conceptually it best captures the core meaning of burnout (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Additionally, emotional exhaustion has been found to have stronger relationships to salient outcomes than the other two components, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment (Lee & Ashforth, 1993). According to Maslach (1982), emotional exhaustion is a chronic state of both emotional and physical depletion. Extending this research, scholars have noted that it "closely resembles traditional stress reactions that are studied in occupational stress research, such as fatigue, job-related depression, psychosomatic complaints, and anxiety" (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001: 499). Because of this, emotional exhaustion has been conceptualized as a type of strain that is caused by workplace stressors (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003).

Emotional exhaustion has been linked to a variety of negative outcomes including physiological problems, depression, and family difficulties (Kahill, 1988; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Emotional exhaustion also matters for organizations, as research has found that exhausted

workers exhibit lower organizational commitment than their unexhausted counterparts. Moreover, they are more likely to intend to leave their organization (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Additionally, using social exchange theory, scholars found a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational citizenship behaviors, both organizationally and supervisor-directed (Cropanzano et al., 2003).

Importance of Authentic Display

When discussing identity conflict in its relationship to proximal outcomes like emotional exhaustion, it is important to address the importance of authentic emotional display to the individual. This is because an undercurrent of the emotional labor and emotional exhaustion/burnout literature is that individuals experience these feelings because they cannot express their true emotions (Hochschild, 1983). Thus, an unstated assumption is that individuals value being authentic with others and expressing their true emotions. Therefore, it is important to incorporate how important an individual feels about being authentic as it might affect whether they experience emotional exhaustion as a result of the identity conflict. Specifically, if an individual values authentic displays, they are more likely to experience negative consequences of identity conflict such as emotional exhaustion, due to feeling like they cannot be authentic to both identities at the same time. Before moving on to discussing psychological distress, it is important to make the distinction between the importance of authentic display and the similar constructs of impression management and self-monitoring. While theoretically similar, the importance of authentic display refers to the felt importance of authenticity (e.g. behaving in a way that is consistent with the self), whereas self-monitoring refers to the extent to which individuals observe and control their self-presentations with others (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986).

In other words, self-monitoring is other-focused while the importance of authentic display is self-focused. Likewise, impression management is other-focused and as such, refers to the process by which an individual attempts to control the impressions that others form of them (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Thus, in the context of emotional exhaustion where it is the self (rather than others) that matter, as Pugh and colleagues (Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2011) note, the individual difference of the importance of authentic display is what is important due to the underlying assumption of emotional exhaustion.

Psychological Distress

Despite the prevalence of research on psychological distress in both the counseling psychological literature and the health care literature, the concept is not clearly defined. It is generally viewed as embedded within the context of strain, stress, and distress (Knapp, 1988) and is generally viewed as non-specific (Kessler et al., 2002). Ridner (2004: 539) defined psychological stress as "the unique discomforting, emotional state experienced by an individual in response to a specific stressor or demand that results in harm, either temporary or permanent, to the person." In contrast to emotional exhaustion, which is explored in the context of work (e.g. Pines & Aronson, 1988), psychological distress expands beyond the work context and is a general a state experienced in response to a stressor. As a result, it is relevant to the concept of identity conflict.

Citizenship Behaviors

Originally defined as individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective

functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988), the definition has evolved so that OCB refers to performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place (Organ, 1997). In its original conceptualization, it is viewed as having five dimensions (Organ, 1988). These dimensions are altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. *Altruism* refers to the helping of others with an organizationally-relevant task. *Courtesy* aims to prevent work-related problems with others. Conversely, *sportsmanship* is a willingness of an employee to work under less than ideal circumstances without complaining. *Civic virtue* relates to the participation in, and concern about, the life of the company. Lastly, *conscientiousness* is behavior that goes well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization. A study by MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) found that these five dimensions are empirically distinct from one another. Subsequent research has distinguished between those citizenship behaviors which aim at helping other individuals (OCB-Is) and those which aim at the organization (OCB-Os) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Studies by Van Dyne and her colleagues (Graham & Van Dyne, 2006; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001) suggest that employee personality traits (e.g., agreeableness and self-esteem) and perceptions (e.g., justice beliefs) have different relationships with helping behaviors (a form of OCB-I) than they do voice behaviors (a form of OCB-O). In line with this recent approach, in this dissertation I focus on OCB-Is and OCB-Os.

But why do OCBs matter? According to Rotundo and Sackett (2002), OCB engagement is one of three performance dimensions. Moreover, OCBs have been linked to organizational performance and effectiveness, leading to a dearth of research on its antecedents. Scholars have explored antecedents such as personality traits (e.g. Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Ryan, 1995), employee attitudes (Bateman & Organ, 1983;

Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995), employee perceptions of fairness (LePine, et al., 2002; Moorman, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), leader behaviors (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Podsakoff, et al., 1990), and various task characteristics (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). While these antecedents are important, research has not explored how identity conflict, and its subsequent proximal outcomes, can effect OCB engagement.

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions – also referred as intentions to leave or by its converse, intentions to remain or intentions to stay – is a subset of turnover research. Turnover has been studied for decades and continues to capture widespread interest from both academics and practitioners (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010). This is indicated by several meta-analyses on the subject (e.g. Carsten & Spector, 1987; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Turnover is defined as the departure of an employee from their organization (March & Simon, 1958) and has been demarcated into both functional and dysfunctional turnover and individual and collective turnover (e.g. Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011), among others. Turnover intentions specifically refers to an individual's intention to leave their company, generally within a specified time frame such as a year. In fact, turnover intentions has been shown to be the best predictor of actual turnover (Hom et al., 1992) and is, therefore, the best way to capture possible future turnover behaviors in a self-report study. Related to identity conflicts, emotional exhaustion, and psychological stress, turnover models indicate that strain is a distal antecedent of turnover intentions (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007).

Intractability of Identity Conflicts

When discussing identity conflict, it is important to address the concept of intractable identity conflicts (cf. Fiol, Pratt, & O'Connor, 2009). This topic, however, has its roots outside of the management literature and in the conflict literature. The concept of intractable conflicts refers to conflicts that are intense and deadlocked, in addition to being difficult to resolve (Coleman, 2000). Intractable conflicts are common, and some scholars estimate that close to 900 million people belong to disadvantaged groups that are either in conflict or on the verge of it (Parakrama, 2001). Many of these intractable conflicts are historical, such as the hostilities in both Northern Ireland and Cyprus, which have persisted for centuries. The majority of international wars have even emerged from enduring country rivalries (Coleman, 2000). As history indicates, intractable conflicts have great significance. Likewise, identity scholars have posited that intractable *identity* conflicts should also have implications for organizations. Many researchers posit that identity is implicated in intractable conflicts (Fiol et al., 2009).

Intractable identity conflict, or IICs, stems from the idea that once identities are implicated in a conflict, the conflict tends to escalate (e.g. Northrup, 1989; Rothman, 1997; Rouhana & Bar-Tal, 1998) and then the involved individuals become trapped in a conflict spiral from which they have difficulty removing themselves (e.g. Coleman, 2003; Diehl & Goertz, 1993; Zartman, 2005). IICs are thus protracted and social conflicts that are difficult to resolve and even resist resolution (Burgess & Burgess, 2006; Northrup, 1989; Pruitt & Olczak, 1995; Putnam & Wondolleck, 2003). Intractability, specifically, is viewed as a dynamic property of intergroup relations (e.g. Burgess & Burgess, 2006; Fiol et al., 2009; Putnam & Wondolleck, 2003). According to Fiol and colleagues (2009), there is considerable consensus about the characteristics of IICs. The characteristics are that IICs are *long-standing* (e.g. Coleman, 2003;

Goertz & Diehl, 1993; Rouhana & Bar-Tal, 1998; Zartman, 2005), *pervasive or chronically salient* to those involved (Putnam & Wondolleck, 2003; Rouhana & Bar-Tal, 1998), involve *simplifying stereotypes* and *zero-sum conceptualizations* (Azar, 1986; Coleman, 2003; Kelman, 1999, 2006; Putnam & Wondolleck, 2003; Zartman, 2005), and involve a state of *mutual disidentification* (Sen, 2006).

The characteristic *long-standing* refers to the fact that IICs can last for years or even generations (Coleman, 2003; Diehl & Goertz, 1993; Rouhana & Bar-Tal, 1998; Zartman, 2005). An example of this characteristic is in the airline industry, where conflicts between unions and airline management have persisted over 20 years (Bradsher, 2000). The second characteristic is that IICs are *pervasive or chronically salient* to those involved (Putnam & Wondolleck, 2003; Rouhana & Bar-Tal, 1998). This means that these identity conflicts are always on the forefront of the minds of those involved and even infiltrate the non-work spheres of life (Rothman, 1997). An example of this characteristic is the relationship between CEOs of hospitals and their relationship with their physicians, which was cited as a top concern amongst CEOs in a survey – second only to financial concerns (Evans, 2007). Thirdly, *simplifying stereotypes* and *zero-sum conceptualizations* refer to when one individual's identity is dependent on demeaning the other group's identity (Zartman, 2005). IICs are relevant to this conversation on dual identification and identity conflict as the intractability of the conflict can enhance the problematic nature of identity conflict, enhancing the negative relationship between the conflict and psychological distress.

While IICs were originally theorized as a construct that relates to intergroup conflict (Fiol et al., 2009), I am adapting the construct to apply to the individual level as a psychological construct between identities. Essentially, I am theoretically adapting IIC from an inter-individual construct to an intra-individual construct. The conflict literature has long recognized the

legitimacy of intra-individual conflict, especially when it has implications for organizational performance (Pondy, 1967). Moreover, conflict scholars note that intra-individual conflict can exist when an individual has multiple, competing goals (Locke, Smith, Erez, Chah, & Schaffer, 1994). Thus, because intra-individual conflict exists, it is appropriate to apply the notion of intractability to intra-individual identity conflicts.

Conclusion

In summation, I have explored the importance of multiple identities and highlighted the subtopic of dual identification, which I am applying to two collective identities: the organization and the profession. I am exploring dual identification of the organization and the profession and how it relates to a potential psychological conflict between the two identities, which I term organizational and professional identity conflict (OPIC). I have also explored relevant constructs which relate to this relationship (identity strength and identity complexity), the potential outcomes of this identity conflict (psychological distress, emotional exhaustion, turnover intentions, and OCBs), and the constructs that might enhance these relationships (the importance of authentic display and IICs). Next, I will hypothesize the directionality of the relationships under an uncertainty-identity framework.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

Now that I have discussed the relevant constructs, I explore the relationships I posit between them. I explore these relationships through the lens of uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg, 2007), which is a theoretical extension of SIT.

Antecedents of OPIC

According to uncertainty-identity theory, individuals are motivated to reduce uncertainty in their lives (Hogg, 2000; Hogg, 2007), as feeling uncertain about oneself is both uncomfortable and powerfully motivating. Individuals desire to know who they are and how they are located in the social world in order to cognitively orient themselves (Hogg & Adelman, 2013). Individuals will thus strive to reduce uncertainties, which is where group memberships come in. Group memberships tell individuals how they should think, behave, and even how others will perceive and treat them. Moreover, identities provide a set of lenses, such as behavioral scripts and normative prescriptions, which inform the individual of the proper decisions and also help serve to regulate social interactions (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000). In other words, group identification is one of the most effective ways for an individual to reduce their uncertainty. This identity motive has received empirical support across multiple studies and contexts (e.g. Grieve & Hogg, 1999; Mullin & Hogg, 1998; Reid & Hogg, 2005). Thus, because group memberships serve this uncertainty reduction motive, it is no surprise that individuals hold multiple group memberships at one time (e.g. dual identification), as each identity provides more information about who the individual is and thus reduces uncertainty for them. Although

uncertainty-identity research has been centered around a single identity, scholars recognize that the theory applies to multiple identities (Grant & Hogg, 2012).

However, under uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg 2000; Hogg, 2007), I posit that while these identities separately may reduce an individual's uncertainty about who they are, if an individual's group identities are inconsistent in regards to how they expect the individual to think and behave, this will result in a psychological conflict which will, ironically, create more uncertainty for the individual as they strive to balance the competing expectations of two important identities. At the more macro-level, this posited relationship is supported by research on multiple organizational identities, which scholars have argued create problems for the individual when they are not synergistic due to the identity clashes (identity conflict) and the subsequent draining of resources (Pratt & Foreman, 2000). Therefore, I posit:

> *Hypothesis 1: Dual identification with the organization and the profession positively influences perceptions of organizational and professional identity conflict (OPIC).*

One factor that might affect the relationship between dual identification and OPIC is how the individual conceptualizes their identities. According to social identity complexity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002), individuals can conceptualize their identities in four different ways, which fall into two categories: intersecting (where the identities have some overlap or one identity is dominant) and compartmentalized (where the identities are cognitively separate and distinct). Identity complexity is considered high in the latter case (Ashforth et al., 2008). With uncertainty-identity theory, high identity complexity should enhance the positive relationship between dual identification and OPIC, due to the inconsistent messages this complex conceptualization sends to the individual, as the individual experiences their identities as separate and distinct rather than related. Because of these inconsistent messages, individuals will be more uncertain about how

they should behave, thereby enhancing the relationship between dual identification and this psychological identity conflict. Therefore,

> *Hypothesis 2: Identity complexity moderates the relationship between dual identification and OPIC, such that the positive relationship is stronger when identity complexity is high rather than low (e.g. when identities are compartmentalized rather than intersecting).*

A secondary factor that should affect the relationship between dual identification and OPIC is the strength of each identity. As identity scholars have noted (e.g. Cole & Bruch, 2006; Kreiner & Ashforth 2004), not all identities are created equal, as some identities differ in terms of their cohesiveness. In other words, identities can differ in the extent to which perceptions are widely and deeply shared (Cole & Bruch, 2006; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004) – also known as identity strength. Arguably, if an identity is present but not strong in terms of the sharedness of the perceptions, it might affect the relationship between the identity and outcomes less strongly than when an identity has identity strength. The converse is also true, as clarity around an identity should only serve to enhance the identity's relationship with outcomes. This aligns with uncertainty-identity theory, in that when identity perceptions are clear (strong) the identity will provide more information to the individual about how they should behave and think. But, as noted previously, this also has a "dark side" in that the stronger the identities are, the greater the likelihood is that dual identification will lead to identity conflict, as the clearer the identities are the more likely an individual is to see conflict between them. Thus, perceived identity strength of both the organization and the profession should both serve, separately, to enhance the relationship between dual identification and OPIC. Moreover, there might also be a three-way interaction, whereby the perceived joint strength of the organizational and professional identities might together serve to enhance the aforementioned relationship. Therefore,

Hypothesis 3a. Perceived identity strength (organizational) moderates the relationship between dual identification and OPIC, such that the positive relationship is stronger when perceived identity strength (organizational) is stronger rather than weaker.

Hypothesis 3b. Perceived identity strength (professional) moderates the relationship between dual identification and OPIC, such that the positive relationship is stronger when perceived identity strength (professional) is stronger rather than weaker. Consequences of OPIC.

Now that I have explored the relationship between dual identification and OPIC, I explore the potential proximal and distal outcomes of this conflict. Identity scholars have noted that identity conflict can result in many negative outcomes for the individual, including cognitive dissonance (Burke, 2003). Additionally, role conflict scholars have noted that it creates distress for the individual (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). These proximal outcomes of conflict also have more far-reaching consequences for organizations, as role conflict has also been related to reduced job satisfaction, increased tension and anxiety, and increased turnover intentions (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Although OPIC is distinct from role conflict – as OPIC is at the collective level of self and is between two collective identities rather than between two interpersonal identities – it is similar in that it is a conflict that is within the individual (intra-individual). As such, findings from the more studied construct of role conflict may provide insight into the outcomes, both proximal and distal, of OPIC.

Consequences of OPIC

Emotional Exhaustion

An important proximal outcome to explore as a consequence of OPIC is emotional exhaustion – a facet of job burnout (Maslach, 1982) – that is defined as a chronic state of physical and emotional depletion (Maslach, 1982). As scholars from a variety of disciplines have noted, conflict is positively associated to felt emotional exhaustion, including role conflict

(Babakus, Cravens, Johnston, & Moncrief, 1999) and work-family conflict (Nitzsche et al., 2017). The underlying premise of this association, made by scholars, is that these competing demands cause an individual to use and deplete resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg, 2000; Hogg, 2007), provides an alternative explanation for why conflict – in this case, organizational and professional identity conflict – may lead to emotional exhaustion at work. If an individual has two identities that are in conflict, this creates uncertainty for the individual about how they should behave. Instead of orienting and providing guidance to the individual, these identities now cause the individual to spend more time making decisions and balancing competing demands, while also feeling that no matter what they do they are betraying one identity. This leads to a chronic state of physical and emotional depletion for the individual while they are at work. Therefore, I posit:

Hypothesis 4: OPIC is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

An underlying assumption of this logic, however, is that the individual who experiences this identity conflict is bothered by the push and pull between their two salient identities. In reality, there may be some individual differences that moderate this relationship. Moreover, recent research has noted that individual differences (neuroticism and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation) influence the amount of emotional exhaustion experienced by an individual (Kammeyer-Mueller, Simon, & Judge, 2016). Pugh and colleagues (2011) argue that an individual difference that matters in the context of emotional exhaustion is the importance of authentic emotional display. The scholars posit that (and find empirical support for) individuals differ in the degree that they care about expressing their true, authentic emotions at work. While I focus on the importance of authentic display more broadly to focus on behavior (rather than just emotions), the same logic – that not all individuals place the same value on authenticity in

regards to their self-concept – still applies. Likewise, in the context of uncertainty-identity theory, some individuals might care more than others about their identities providing differing guidance for their behaviors. Similarly, researchers have noted that individuals differ in their need for self-consistency (e.g. Cross, Gore, & Morris, 2003; Kitayama & Markus, 1998) Thus, like Pugh and colleagues (2011), I posit that the importance of authentic display has a moderating effect on relationships with emotional exhaustion. Specifically, I theorize that the importance of authentic display to the individual will have an enhancing effect on the relationship between OPIC and emotional exhaustion, in that if an individual values behaving in a way that is authentic to both of their identities (professional and organizational) but their identities are in conflict, they cannot act in accordance with both identities at the same time causing an individual to feel inauthentic, thereby exacerbating the physical and emotional depletion they feel. Therefore,

Hypothesis 5: The importance of authentic displays to the individual moderates the relationship between OPIC and emotional exhaustion, such that the positive relationship is stronger when the importance of authentic displays is higher rather than lower.

Additionally, emotional exhaustion affects more distal, organizationally-relevant individual outcomes, as physical and emotional depletion at work should serve to reduce an individual's cognitive resources, resulting in reduced performance. Specifically, as research has established, emotional exhaustion is negatively related to OCB engagement (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003) and positively related with turnover intentions (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Cropanzano, 1998). Therefore, I expect emotional exhaustion to be negatively related to (a) OCB engagement and positively related to (b) turnover intentions. Thus,

Hypothesis 6(a): Emotional exhaustion is negatively related to OCB engagement.

Hypothesis 6(b): Emotional exhaustion is positively related to turnover intentions.

Based on these arguments and the proposed relationships expounded in H4, H6(a), and H6(b), I argue that emotional exhaustion mediates the relationship between OPIC and these three distal outcomes. Thus,

> *Hypothesis 7: Emotional exhaustion mediates the relationship between OPIC and (a) OCB engagement and (b) turnover intentions.*

Moreover, I also propose a conditional indirect relationship (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) in which importance of authentic displays influences the effect of OPIC on emotional exhaustion, which in turn affects engagement in OCBs and turnover intentions. Thus,

> *Hypothesis 8: The importance of authentic displays to the individual moderates the mediated relationship between OPIC and (a) OCB engagement and (b) turnover intentions.*

Psychological Distress

Another important proximal outcome to explore as a consequence of OPIC is psychological distress – which is an emotional state that is the product of a stressor or demand the individual experiences which results in harm to them (Ridner, 2004) – as role conflict has been linked to distress (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Moreover, Vora, Kostova, and Roth (2007) explored dual organizational identification and role conflict and argued that the identities may have different goals and practices which may be incompatible, resulting in a conflict between the two identities. As a consequence, they posit, an individual may experience stress. Likewise, under uncertainty-identity theory, I posit that when identities are in conflict, these identities create more uncertainty for the individual, rather than reduce it. I posit that this uncertainty causes an individual to experience psychological distress as they grapple with how to handle this conflict and the conflicting messages and demands from the identities. Research on the antecedents of psychological distress supports this perspective. For example, work-family

conflict has been shown to have a reciprocal relationship with psychological distress (Westrupp, Strazdins, Martin, Cooklin, Zubrick, & Nicholson, 2015). Therefore, I posit:

Hypothesis 9: OPIC is positively related to psychological distress.

Recent work on identity conflicts, however, has found that not all identity conflicts are created equal. While conflicts, including identity conflicts, are pervasive throughout organizations (Fiol et al., 2009), not all (intergroup, psychological) conflicts are intractable – or protracted and social conflicts that resist resolution (e.g. Burgess & Burgess, 2006). Some conflicts may be temporary, resolving in a matter of days or weeks. And some conflicts might not be pervasive or chronically-salient, in that the conflict is not omnipresent for the individuals involved. In these cases, the identity conflict probably has less of an impact on individual and organizationally-relevant outcomes. In contrast, when identity conflicts are intractable – referred to as intractable identity conflicts or IICs (Fiol et al., 2009) – they are more likely to have an enhancing effect on identity conflict and outcomes. In the context of uncertainty-identity theory, the relationship between OPIC and psychological distress is more likely to be exacerbated when the individual perceives the conflict does not have a quick or easy resolution. In this case, the individual will perceive that this uncertainty will never abate, leaving them locked in this perilous psychological state, which is embedded in the context of strain and distress (e.g. Knapp, 1988). Further evidence supports the relationship between conflict, such as role conflict, and stress or distress (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991; Coverman, 1989). Therefore, I posit:

Hypothesis 10: Intractability of the identity conflict moderates the relationship between OPIC and psychological distress, such that the positive relationship is stronger when the intractability of the identity conflict is higher rather than lower.

Additionally, psychological distress should affect more distal, organizationally-relevant individual outcomes, as this negative psychological state should serve to reduce an individual's

cognitive capacity to function at a high level, resulting in reduced performance. Although research on psychological distress and distal outcomes is more limited, there is some evidence to suggest a negative relationship between psychological distress and OCB engagement (Kumar & Prabakar, 2016) and a positive relationship with turnover intentions (Jiang, Hong, McKay, Avery, Wilson, & Volpone, 2015). Therefore, I theorize that psychological distress will be negatively related to (a) OCB engagement and positively related to (b) turnover intentions. Thus,

Hypothesis 11(a): Psychological distress is negatively related to OCB engagement.

Hypothesis 11(b): Psychological distress is positively related to turnover intentions.

Based on these arguments and the proposed relationships expounded in H9, H11(a), and H11(b) I argue that psychological distress mediates the relationship between OPIC and these three distal outcomes. Thus,

Hypothesis 12: Psychological distress mediates the relationship between OPIC and (a) OCB engagement and (b) turnover intentions.

Based on these arguments, I also propose a conditional indirect relationship (Preacher et al., 2007) in which the intractability of the identity conflict influences the effect of OPIC on psychological distress, which in turn affects engagement in OCBs and turnover intentions. Thus,

Hypothesis 13: Intractability of the identity conflict moderates the mediated relationship between OPIC and (a) OCB engagement and (b) turnover intentions.

A visual representation of the model and hypotheses is found in Figure 1..

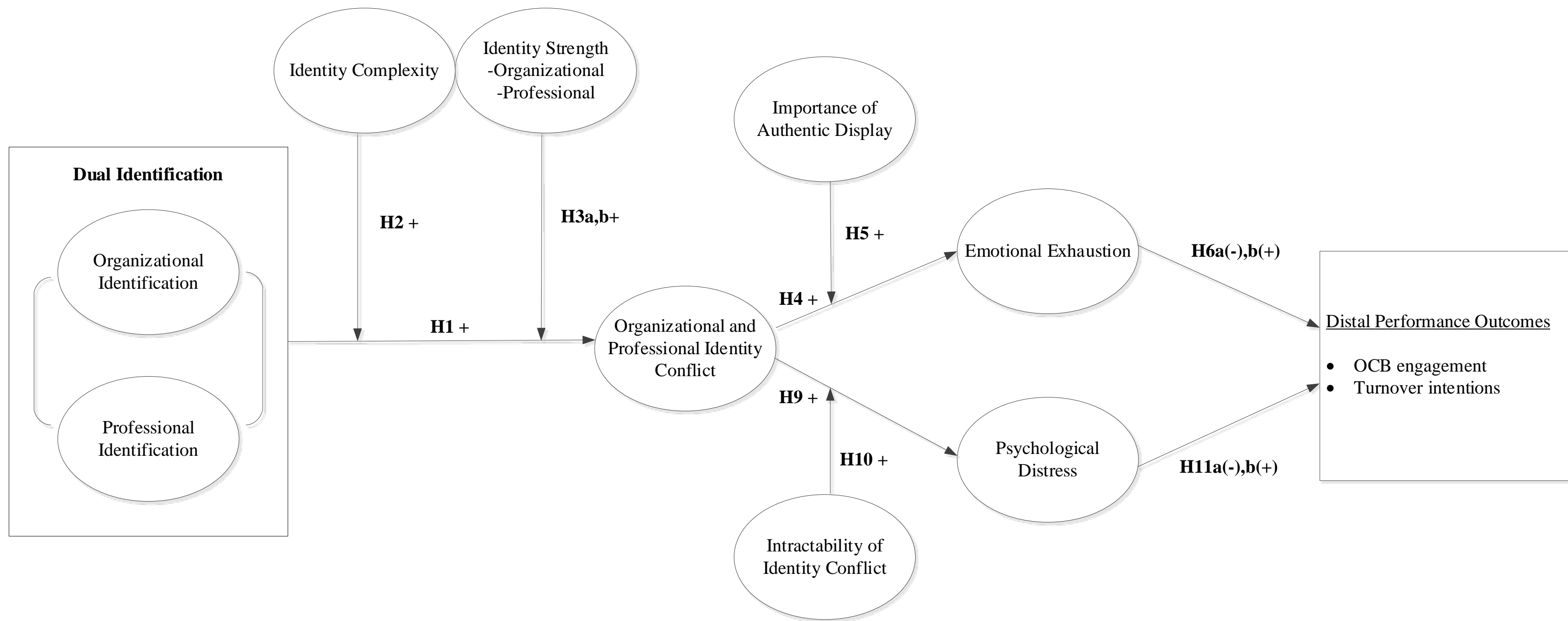


Figure 1. Theoretical model.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Research Plan

Dual identification was hypothesized to be significantly related to perceptions of organizational and professional identity conflict (OPIC), which in turn would lead to proximal outcomes (psychological distress and emotional exhaustion). These proximal outcomes were hypothesized to influence important organizationally-relevant constructs, including turnover intentions. The research plan involves a three-study, quantitative design across two industries where dual identification of the organization and profession is both apparent and potentially problematic. These populations of interest are academia or higher education (Study 1) and health care (Study 2 and Study 3).

Study 1 was designed to validate two new measures (OPIC and the intractability of the identity conflict or IIC) and establish the basic relationships, but with a pared-down model (see Figure 2 for the model analyzed). Study 2 was designed to validate a new, continuous measure for dual identification in addition to testing the entire theoretical model, utilizing a sample of health care workers who were enrolled in a health care MBA program across two waves. Study 3 was also conducted in the health care industry, but through an organizational sample to account for the effects of the organization. This study was treated as a post-hoc study to test the interesting findings found in Study 2. This constructive replication design provides an opportunity to contribute to the literature by increasing confidence in the validity of hypothesized relationships being tested and, furthermore, to enrich and bolster theory (Eden, 2002; Schmidt, 2009).

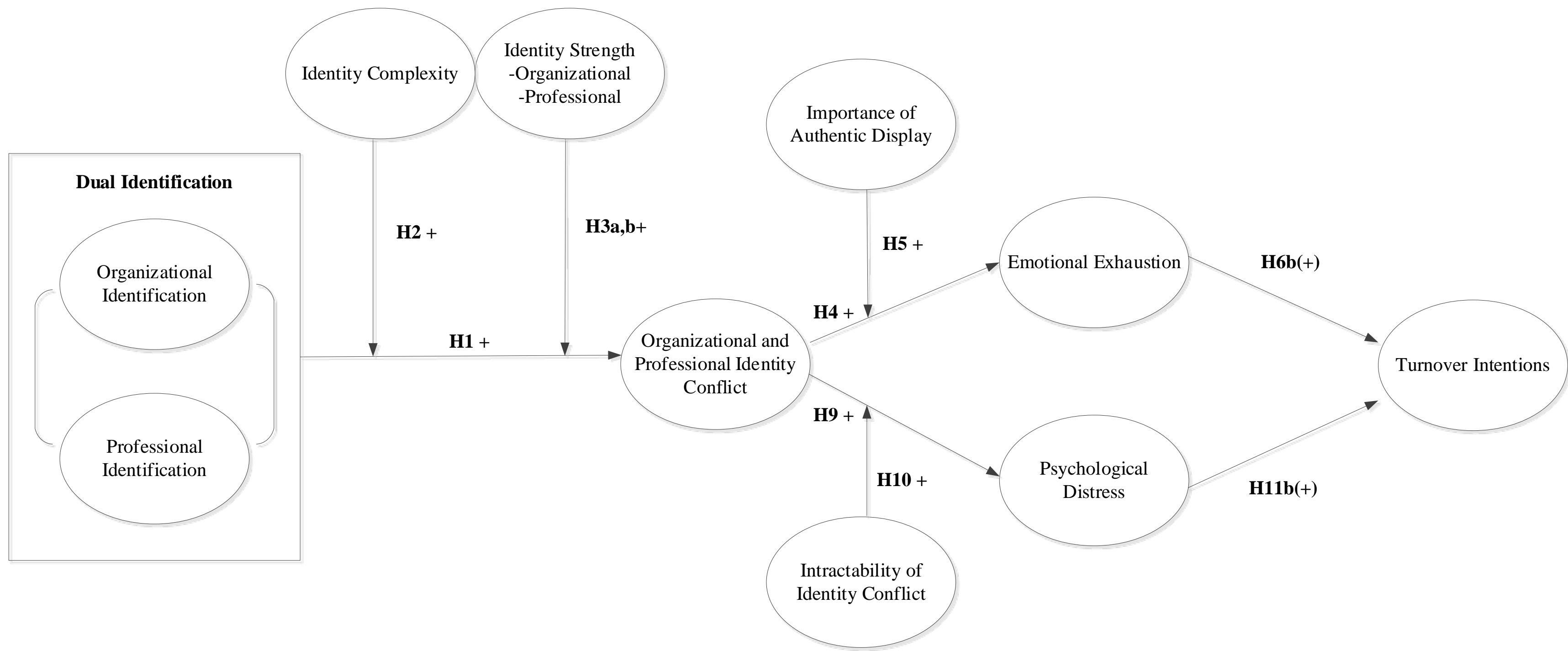


Figure 2. Study 1 model.

Study 1

Participants and Procedure

The survey was distributed to two separate samples. The first sample includes the faculty, staff, and doctoral students in a College of Business from a large public university in the southwestern United States (n = 49). The second sample includes academics who are members of the Academy of Management (AOM) and who are receiving emails from various AOM Listservs (n = 176). For both samples, the online survey was distributed via email. To test whether there was a significant difference between these samples, an independent two-sample t-test with unequal variances was conducted. The group statistics for both groups were compared for two of the dependent variables (emotional exhaustion and psychological distress) and the means and standard deviations were not significantly different. According to Levene's test with equal variances assumed (p = 0.733, 0.361), the means are not significantly different, with the p-values for both dependent variables greater than 0.05 (p = 0.069, 0.077). As a result, the two samples were subsequently combined into one. This final sample size had an n of 225. Respondents were 41.3% male and ranged in age from 24 to 77 (M = 45). Respondents included doctoral students (24.4%), post-doctoral researchers (4.9%), staff (5.8%), lecturers (4.9%), adjuncts (4.0%), assistant professors (19.4%), associate professors (9.3%), and full professors (15.1%), and other (12%), which included respondents who wanted to select more than one category (e.g. doctoral students and public sector employee).

Measures

The majority of measures, unless otherwise indicated, were based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5) with *neither agree nor disagree*

(3) as the midpoint. For a complete list of the items used in Study 1, please refer to Appendix A. The following paragraphs briefly describe the measures related to this study.

- "I am" statements: Although not used as a variable in this study, respondents were asked to respond to five statements (I am supposed to be _______) for each identity. This is a modification of the Grace and Cramer (2003) "who am I" approach to identity measurement. The purpose of the statements was to prime respondents to think about each identity and what the expectations were of them in each identity before answering questions regarding identification and identity conflict.

- Dual identification: Dual identification of the organization and profession was measured by measuring the level of identification with each collective identity. Ashforth and Mael's (1992) six-item scale for OID was utilized. The scale was also adapted for identification with the profession (PID) by substituting the word "profession" for "organization." The Cronbach's alpha for the scales were 0.84 and 0.87, respectively. A sample item for OID includes, "When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult." A sample item for PID includes, "When someone criticizes my profession, it feels like a personal insult." A composite score for each construct (OID and PID) was created and the means for each were determined. Based on the means (3.55 and 3.71, respectively), OID and PID were coded for each individual as either being *below the mean* or *at or above the mean*. In order for an individual to be engaged in dual identification, they had to be at or above the mean for both OID and PID. A similar categorical approach to measuring dual identification was used by Vora, Kostova, and Roth (2007). Of the 225 respondents, only 35.1% (n = 79) were classified as engaged in dual identification.

- OPIC: OPIC was measured using a 12-item scale developed based on the premise of conflict as a misalignment between the identities in regards to the dimensions of identity, which includes goals, beliefs, values, stereotypical traits, and knowledge (cf. Ashforth et al., 2008). Information on the scale creation process and the scale validation procedure can be found in the measure development section below. For this scale, respondents were asked to think about who they are supposed to be within their profession and within their organization. The Cronbach's alpha for the 12 items was 0.92. A sample item includes, "The common characteristics of those in my profession are not well aligned with the common characteristics of those in my organization."

- Identity strength: Identity strength was measured using the four-item scale from Kreiner and Ashforth (2004). Identity strength was assessed for both the organizational identity and the professional identity. As the identity strength scale was created to reflect the strength of the organizational identity, the scale was adapted with the referent changed from the organization to the profession. A sample item for identity strength (organizational) includes, "There is a common sense of purpose in this organization." A sample item for identity strength (profession) includes, "There is a common sense of purpose in this profession." The Cronbach's alpha for these scales were 0.89 and 0.89, respectively.

- Social identity complexity: Social identity complexity was measured by four different visual models (Ashforth, 2012). Ashforth (2012) refers to these four models as ways to conceptualize the embeddedness of identities. Respondents were asked to select which one of the four models presented the relationship between their professional and organizational identities. Three of these four models represented identity in which the identities were either intersecting or configured in a way where one identity was dominant. One model depicted the identities as

separate and compartmentalized. According to social identity complexity, in the former case, this exemplifies low identity complexity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). In contrast, when the identities are conceptualized as compartmentalized or separate, that is viewed as high identity complexity (Ashforth et al., 2008). Respondent choices were subsequently recoded dichotomously as either low identity complexity (1) or high identity complexity (2).

- Importance of authentic display: This construct was assessed by adapting Pugh, Groth, and Hennig-Thurau's (2011) four-item scale to focus on behaviors instead of just emotions. The Cronbach's alpha for the four items was 0.78. A sample item includes, "When I act in a way that does not correspond to what I really feel inside, I often feel tense and pressured."

- Emotional exhaustion: Emotional exhaustion was measured with five items from the Pines and Aronson (1988) job burnout scale, following Pugh et al. (2011). Respondents were asked to think about how often they experienced each state at their job. The five-point Likert scale points for this measure ranged from *never* (1) to *all of the time* (5), with *some of the time* (3) as the midpoint. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.87 and a sample statement includes, "Feeling rejected."

- IIC: IIC was measured with a scale created based on Fiol and colleagues' (2009) theoretical paper. Information on the scale creation process and the scale validation procedure can be found in the measure development section below. For this scale, respondents were asked to think about who they are supposed to be within their profession and within their organization and any resulting conflict. They were asked to rate their level of agreement (1-5) with statements about the conflict. Respondents were given the option to select "N/A" if they felt they did not feel any conflict. This response option was subsequently re-coded into "0." The final scale had

12 items with three dimensions (long-standing, chronically salient, and pervasive), with four scale items per dimension. The Cronbach's alpha for the full, 12-item scale was 0.88. A sample item for the *long-standing* (0.96) dimension is, "The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has been going on for a long time." A sample item for *chronically salient* (0.95) dimension is, "The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is a top concern of mine at work." A sample item for the *pervasive* (0.96) dimension is, "I think about conflicts between my professional and organizational identities even when I am not at work."

- Psychological distress**:** Psychological distress was measured with the four-item Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K6). Respondents were asked to think about how frequently in the last 30 days have they felt the following states (Kessler et al., 2002). The five-point Likert scale points for this measure ranged from *never* (1) to *all of the time* (5), with *some of the time* (3) as the midpoint. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.81 and a sample statement includes, "Nervous."

- Turnover intentions: Turnover intentions was measured by a three-item scale from Mitchell et al. (2001), which was adapted from Hom et al. (1984). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.98 and a sample item includes, "I intend to leave the organization in the next 12 months."

Controls

To determine which, if any, of the demographic variables would significantly impact the proximal and distal outcomes, I conducted simple linear regression analyses and one-way ANOVAs to determine if the continuous (age) and categorical variables (gender, position type, institution type, administrative role, and whether the institution was public or private) were

significant predictors of the outcome variables. The regression analysis indicated that age was a significant (negative) predictor of psychological distress and emotional exhaustion ($p < 0.001$). The one-way ANOVAs indicated that there were some significant differences in the group means for gender (male, female), position type (doctoral student, post-doctoral researcher, staff, lecturer, adjunct, assistant professor, associate professor, full professor, and other), and institution type (research-focused, balanced, teaching-focused) for the proximal outcomes (psychological distress and emotional exhaustion). None of these demographic variables, however, had a significant effect on the distal outcome (turnover intentions). Moreover the R^2 explained by these variables on the proximal outcomes was negligible (less than 0.05%). Therefore, I believe there is not a compelling case to include the control variables, as including these statistical control variables will most likely not yield more purified estimates of the relationships and control variables tend to be overused in social science research (cf. Spector & Brannick, 2011). Thus, I will not be utilizing any statistical controls in the following analyses.

Measure Development

To create a measure for organizational and professional identity conflict (OPIC) and the intractability of the identity conflict (IIC), I first began by reviewing the extant literature in multiple disciplines to see how identity conflict and intractability were conceptualized. Based on the literature, I defined OPIC as the psychological conflict that an individual perceives between who they feel they are supposed to be in their organization and who they feel they are supposed to be in their profession. This includes the perceived conflict between both of the collective identities in regards to their goals, beliefs, values, stereotypical traits and knowledge. I defined IIC as a psychological conflict in an individual's organizational life between two conflicting

identities that is characterized by the conflict's long-standing nature, its pervasiveness, and its salience, where both parties are trapped in ongoing mutual disidentification. Regarding IIC, I conceptualized it as having three dimensions: long-standing (the conflict has been going on for an extended period and the individual does not see the conflict going away anytime soon), chronical salience (the conflict stands out to an individual and is an enduring issue), and pervasiveness (the conflict has spread beyond an individual's life at work into other spheres of life).

Stage 1: Scale Item Development

Based on the above conceptualizations, I created the scale items for both quantitative measures of the constructs. Next, the scale items and the construct conceptualizations were sent out to three expert reviewers, who critiqued the measures and provided suggestions for the scale items. Twelve scale items for each construct were finalized. Next, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for both scales. The items generally loaded as theorized, with OPIC loading into a one-factor structure. The IIC items loaded into a two-factor structure rather than a three-factor structure as theorized. Tables 1 and 2 displays the final items for each construct along with the exploratory factor analysis pattern coefficients.

Table 1

Organizational and Professional Identity Conflict (OPIC) EFA Loadings

Item	Factor Loading
1. My profession and my organization stand for contradictory things.	0.82
2. The values of my profession and organization are not compatible with each other.	0.80
3. The goals of my profession and organization are well aligned. (R)	0.74

(table continues)

Item	Factor Loading
4. The values of my profession and organization are well aligned. (R)	0.75
5. I receive conflicting messages concerning what I should care about from my profession and my organization.	0.81
6. The goals of my profession and organization are often in conflict.	0.85
7. The major beliefs of my profession and organization are inconsistent.	0.81
8. I often have to choose between following professional standards and doing what is best for my organization.	0.76
9. In my organization, there is a conflict between the work standards and procedures of my organization and my profession.	0.76
10. The common characteristics of those in my profession are not well aligned with the common characteristics of those in my organization.	0.68
11. I cannot be the ideal member of my profession and be the ideal member of my organization at the same time.	0.75
12. I can fully express myself as a professional in my organization. (R)	0.39

N = 225

Table 2

Intractability of the Identity Conflict (IIC) EFA Loadings

Item	Long-Standing	Chronically Salient & Pervasive
1. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has been going on for a long time.	0.66	
2. I don't see the conflict between my professional and organizational identities going away any time soon.	0.75	
3. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has not gotten better over time.	0.67	
4. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is temporary (R).	0.64	
5. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is a top concern of mine at work.		0.74
6. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is regularly on my mind at work.		0.81

(table continues)

Item	Long-Standing	Chronically Salient & Pervasive
7. I rarely think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities at work (R).		0.68
8. A primary conflict in my work life is the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.		0.82
9. I think about conflicts between my professional and organizational identities even when I am not at work.		0.85
10. I sometimes have difficulty falling asleep because of thoughts about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.		0.76
11. I think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities when I don't mean to.		0.74
12. My life outside of work is affected by the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.		0.84

N = 225

Stage 2: Psychometric Properties and Scale Distinctiveness

The purpose of this stage of the study was to contribute toward understanding the construct validity of both OPIC and IIC. Several indicators of construct validity were explored, following the procedure outlined by Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998) procedure. I calculated the Cronbach's alpha for each scale, which were well above the acceptable standards. To assess discriminant and convergent validity, I conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using LISREL. For OPIC, which loaded into a one-factor structure in the EFA, I analyzed as a one-factor structure in the CFA. The fit indices for the one-factor structure were, overall, acceptable (X^2 = 246, df = 54, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.052, CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.13).

For IIC, I analyzed a one-factor structure (X^2 = 662.77, df = 54, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.065, CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.28), a two-factor structure (X^2 = 260.48, df = 53, p-value =

0.000, SRMR = 0.038, CFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.15), and a three-factor structure (X^2 = 147.35, df = 51, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.024, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.095). Although the three-factor structure appeared to have marginally better fit, I conducted a chi-square difference test in order to determine whether to retain the two-factor or three-factor structure. The result of the chi-square difference test indicated that I should retain the three-factor structure, with the chi-square difference between the two-factor and three-factor model being greater than the critical value (alpha = 0.05, critical value = 5.99). While the model fit for these measures was not perfect (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), it does meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) combinatorial rule and recent research has argued that these cut-off points for fit indices are guidelines rather than a gold standard (West, Taylor, & Wu, 2012). Therefore, I argue, that the EFAs and CFAs provide sufficient evidence of the scales' reliability and discriminant and convergent validity.

Data Analysis

Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 1. Before conducting the data analysis, I conducted a CFA for the full model (including all of the continuous variables). Overall indices for the model indicate acceptable model fit (e.g. X^2 = 2691.02, df = 1644, p-value = 0.000, RMSEA = 0.05). Next, the predictor variables were centered in order to make the first-order effects meaningful and to avoid non-essential multicollinearity. To test the hypothesized model, the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) method was used due to the complexity of the hypothesized model (moderated-mediation) and due to the modern inferential test of the indirect effect that it provides. This approach is in step with the recent advancements in the statistical methods literature (Hayes, 2009). .

Table 3

Study 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Organizational Identification (OID)	3.55	0.76	(0.84)												
2. Professional Identification (PID)	3.71	0.81	0.33*	(0.87)											
3. Dual Identification	0.35	0.48	0.54*	0.59*	N/A										
4. OPIC	2.45	0.78	-0.27*	-0.04	-0.15*	(0.92)									
5. OID Strength	3.19	0.98	0.57*	0.10	0.32*	-0.45*	(0.89)								
6. PID Strength	3.33	0.96	0.24*	0.50*	0.29*	-0.13	0.21*	(0.89)							
7. Social Identity Complexity	0.12	0.33	-0.15*	0.01	-0.07	0.25*	-0.18*	-0.05	N/A						
8. Importance of Authentic Display	3.70	0.79	0.10	0.09	0.03	-0.04	-0.01	0.10	0.01	(0.84)					
9. Emotional Exhaustion	2.59	0.82	-0.12	0.14*	-0.03	0.37*	-0.28*	0.04	0.11	0.28*	(0.87)				
10. Psychological Distress	1.98	0.76	-0.01	0.05	-0.02	0.25*	-0.18*	0.12	0.06	0.20*	0.65*	(0.81)			
11. Long-Standing (IIC_1)	1.69	1.67	-0.12	0.06	-0.04	0.71*	-0.26*	-0.03	0.22*	0.09	0.29*	0.19*	(0.96)		
12. Chronically-Salient (IIC_2)	1.40	1.37	-0.09	0.02	-0.01	0.70*	-0.24*	-0.01	0.20*	0.16*	0.35*	0.28*	0.82*	(0.95)	
13. Pervasive (IIC_3)	1.35	1.38	-0.10	0.00	-0.04	0.64*	-0.22*	0.04	0.19*	0.18*	0.36*	0.33*	0.74*	0.88*	(0.96)
14. Turnover Intentions	1.99	1.28	-0.20*	0.00	-0.07	0.18*	-0.21*	0.02	0.10	0.09	0.24*	0.24*	0.20*	0.23*	0.28*

*$p < 0.05$, two-tailed. $N = 225$

This method also uses bootstrapping, which research has shown to be one of the more powerful and valid methods for testing intervening variable effects (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008) as it makes no assumption about the normality of the sampling distribution like the Sobel test does and thus should be the method of choice (Hayes, 2009). Following Preacher and Hayes (2008), I utilized the bootstrapping procedures with 1,000 samples to place a 95% confidence interval around the estimates of the indirect effect.

The front half of the model (H1 – 3) was tested using Model 1 (identity complexity as a moderator) and Model 3 (interaction of OI strength and PI strength) of the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) process macro. The second half of the model (H4 – 13) is tested using four iterations of Model 7 of the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) process macro. The first iteration of Model 7 was to test the relationship between OPIC and turnover intentions, mediated by emotional exhaustion and moderated by the importance of authentic display (H4, H5, H6b, H7b, and H8b). The second, third, and fourth iterations of Model 7 were to test the relationship between OPIC and turnover intentions, mediated by psychological distress, and moderated by the three dimensions of IIC (H9, H10, H11b, H12b, and H13b), with each dimension of the construct with its own iteration.

Results

Results for Models 1 and 3, which tested the posited relationships between dual identification and OPIC, moderated by social identity complexity and the joint interaction effect of OID strength and PID strength (three-way interaction), indicated that these relationships, overall, were not significant, despite the model, holistically, being significant. The only hypothesis that was partially supported was H3, which posited the interaction effect of OI

strength and PI strength on the relationship between dual identification and OPIC. In contrast to what was hypothesized, the three-way interaction was not significant, but the moderating effect of PI strength on the relationship between dual identification and OPIC was, although not in the direction hypothesized (β = -0.26 ; 95% CI= [-.51, -.02]). This indicates that the stronger an individual's professional identification is, the weaker the positive relationship between dual identification and OPIC. The graph depicting this interaction is displayed in Figure 3. H1 and H2 were not significant, indicating that dual identification is not a significant predictor of OPIC and that identity complexity does not moderate this relationship. These non-significant findings could be due to the dichotomous nature of dual identification and identity complexity variables, which ultimately allowed for less variability between respondents.

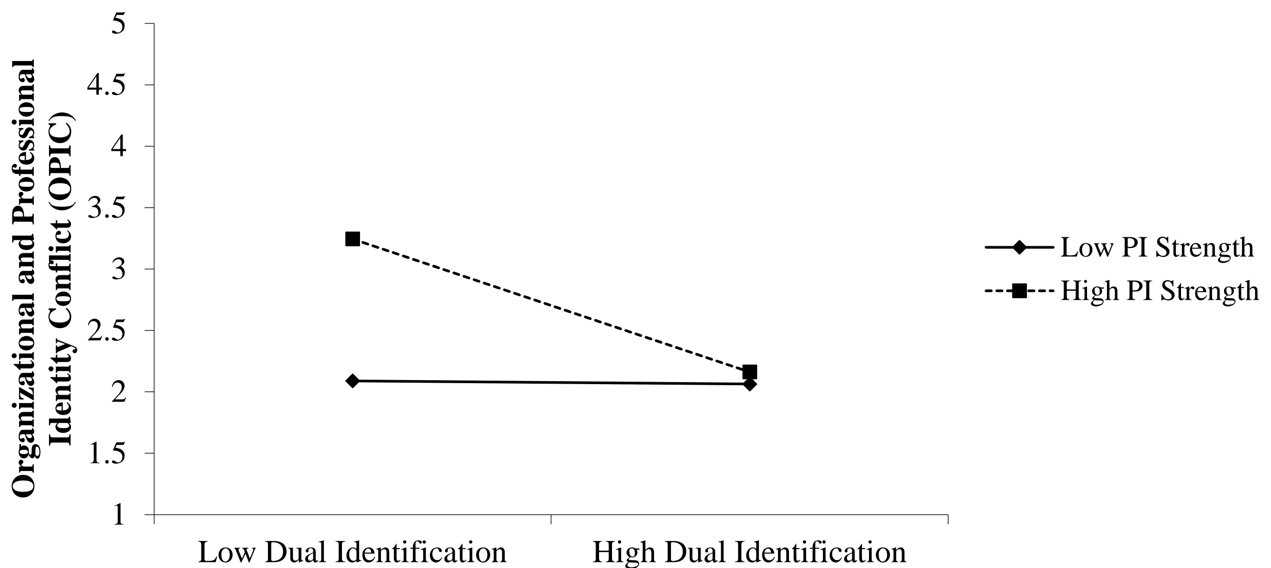


Figure 3. Moderation effect of PI strength on dual identification and OPIC.

Results for the four iterations of Model 7 are as follows. Iteration 1, indicated support for H4 (β = 0.38 ; 95% CI= [.26, .51]), which posited a positive relationship between OPIC and emotional exhaustion. Additionally, support was indicated for H6b (β = 0.31 ; 95% CI= [.10, .53]), which posited a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover

intentions. Lastly, H7, which posited the mediated relationship between OPIC, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions, was also supported.

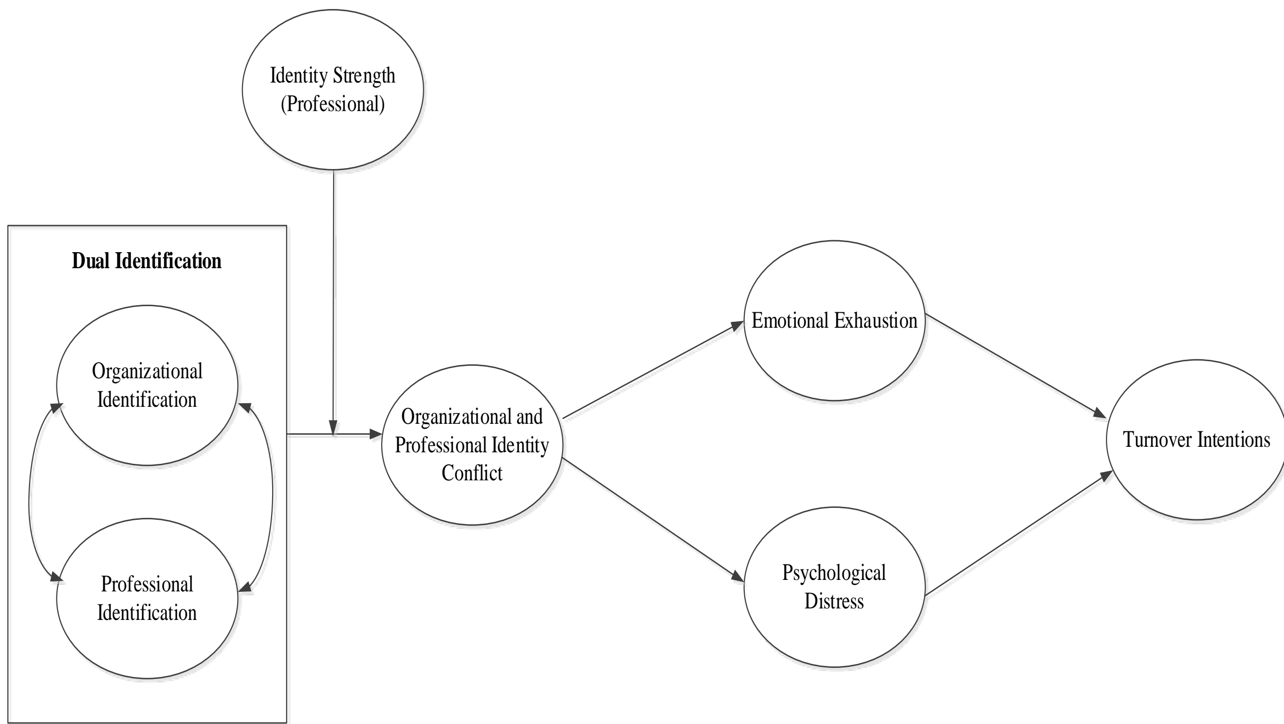


Figure 4. Visual depiction of Study 1 findings.

The moderating hypothesis (H5) and the hypothesis on moderated-mediation (H8) were not supported. Iterations 2 – 4, which explored the relationship between OPIC and turnover intentions, mediated by psychological distress and moderated by the dimensions of IIC, indicated little to no support for the moderating hypotheses (H10 and H13). There was support found, however, for H9, which concerned the positive relationship between OPIC and psychological distress (β = 0.21 ; 95% CI= [.03, .39]) and for H11c, which concerned the positive relationship between psychological distress and turnover intentions (β = 0.34 ; 95% CI= [.12, .56]). Likewise, the results support the mediating effect of psychological distress on the relationship between OPIC and turnover intentions (H12b). A depiction of these findings can be found in Figure 4. Moreover, a regression table summarizing the results can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

Preacher and Hayes Study 1 Regression Results

Relationship	Supportec	P&H Model	Model R^2	B	P-Value	LLCI	ULCI
Dual Identification - OPIC (H1+)	No	Model 1	0.09	-0.77	0.05	-1.56	0.01
Moderating effect of Identity Complexity on H1 (H2+)	No	Model 1	0.09	-0.08	0.87	-1.00	0.84
Moderating effect of OI Strength on H1 (H3a+)	No	Model 3	0.26	-0.06	0.59	-0.28	0.02
Moderating effect of PI Strength on H1 (H3b+)	Yes	Model 3	0.26	-0.26	0.03	-0.51	-0.02
Moderating effect of PI Strength x OI Strength on H1 (H3b+)	No	Model 3	0.26	0.06	0.60	-0.17	0.30
OPIC - Emotional Exhaustion (H4+)	Yes	Model 7	0.22	0.38	0.00	0.26	0.51
Moderating effect of the Importance of Authentic Display on H4 (H5+)	No	Model 7	0.22	0.05	0.52	-0.10	0.20
Emotional Exhaustion - Turnover Intentions (H6b+)	Yes	Model 7	0.07	0.31	0.00	0.10	0.53
OPIC - Psychological Distress (H9+)	Yes	Model 7	0.07	0.21	0.02	0.03	0.39
Moderating effect of IIC on H9 (H10+)	No	Model 7					
Long-Standing			0.07	0.01	0.83	-0.07	0.09
Chronically-Salient			0.09	0.06	0.21	-0.03	0.16
Pervasive			0.12	0.07	0.14	-0.23	0.16
Psychological Distress - Turnover Intentions (H11b+)	Yes	Model 7	0.07	0.34	0.00	0.11	0.56

N = 225

Post-Hoc Analysis

To further understand these results, several post-hoc analyses were conducted. To understand more about the possible identity-related antecedents of OPIC, ANOVAs and regression analyses were conducted. Results of an ANOVA indicate that identity conceptualizations (the four ways which an individual could conceptualize their organizational and professional identities), which was used to dichotomously code as high identity complexity/low identity complexity, was found to be a significant predictor of OPIC (R^2 = 11.9%, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, the results of a regression analysis indicate that OI strength was a significant negative predictor of OPIC ($\beta = -0.36$, $R^2 = 20.5\%$, $p < 0.001$), although PI strength was not a significant predictor ($p = 0.58$). Additionally, both OI strength ($\beta = 0.16$, $R^2 = 10.1\%$, $p < 0.001$) and PI strength ($\beta = 0.15$, $R^2 = 8.7\%$, $p < 0.001$) were significant predictors of dual identification. A regression analysis was also conducted with dual identification operationalized as an interaction between OID and PID instead of as a dichotomous variable. This analysis indicated that this interaction was a significant negative predictor of OPIC ($\beta = -0.04$, $R^2 = 4.7\%$, $p < 0.001$), but was not a significant predictor of the proximal or distal outcomes explored.

Although the dimensions of IIC did not significantly moderate the relationship between OPIC and psychological distress, the dimensions did moderate the OPIC and emotional exhaustion relationships. In fact, in the three post-hoc Model 7 iterations run, the long standing dimension of IIC ($\beta = 0.13$; 95% CI= [.03, .22]), the chronically salient dimension of IIC ($\beta = 0.12$; 95% CI= [.02, .22]), and the pervasiveness dimension of IIC ($\beta = 0.12$; 95% CI= [.02, .22]) were significant moderators which served to enhance the relationship between OPIC and emotional exhaustion. In turn, emotional exhaustion led to turnover intentions. Regarding the other moderator that did not lead to any significant results in the main study – the importance of

authentic display – a regression analysis was run on its relationship with emotional exhaustion. While the importance of the authentic display did not moderate the relationship between OPIC and emotional exhaustion, it was – by itself – a significant, positive predictor of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = 0.28$, $R^2 = 7.8\%$, $p < 0.001$).

Modifications for Study 2

For the second study, there are several changes I made based on what I learned from Study 1. First, I changed the Likert anchors for IIC from strongly disagree/strong agree to a descriptive scale, in order to allow for no conflict. This addresses the challenge of capturing low intractability brought up by both the external reviews and the comments made anonymously on the pilot instrument. Secondly, I modified the approach for operationalizing dual identification. Instead of following the categorical approach used by Vora and colleagues (2007), I used the interaction approach used by Richter, West, Van Dick, and Dawson (2006), whereby the scores for OID and PID are multiplied, with a range of 1 to 25. Lastly, I captured an additional performance behavior – OCBs.

Study 2

Participants and Procedure

The survey was distributed across two waves, over email, to the individuals enrolled in a health care MBA program, who participated in order to receive extra-credit. These students are currently working full-time in the health care industry. The survey was made available to 250 students, with 194 (77.6% response rate) completing the first wave. Of these 194 students, 176 completed the second wave (91.2% response rate between the waves). According to research, a

60% response rate is very acceptable for web surveys (Manfreda, Berzelak, Vehovar, Bosnak, & Haas, 2008). This indicates a final sample size of 176 (n = 176). Respondents were 36.9% male and ranged in age from 22 to 70 (M = 36.3, SD = 9.62). The sample was 56.3% White or Caucasian, 19.9% Black or African-American, 10.8% Hispanic or Latino, 9.7% Asian, 0.6% Native American, and 2.8% Other. Respondents held various positions (15 +) in the health care industry, but the largest position category was nurse (26.1%). The respondents were fairly evenly split between working for a private organization (44.3%) and a public organization (55.7%). Respondents also worked in a variety of health care organizations, but the majority (54.5%) worked in a hospital. The tenure of respondents ranged from new hires (less than three months) to 40 years (M = 5.85, SD = 5.87).

Measures

The majority of measures, unless otherwise indicated, received no modifications from Study 1. For a complete list of the items used in Study 2, please refer to Appendix B. The following paragraphs briefly describe the measures related to this study.

- Dual identification: The Cronbach's alpha for the scales were 0.80 (OID) and 0.81 (PID), respectively. Both constructs were assessed in Wave 1. The scores for each level of identification were multiplied into a product term (M = 16.68, SD = 4.42), with the range thus being 1 to 25.

- OPIC: The Cronbach's alpha for the 8 items was 0.93. This construct was assessed in Wave 2. Four items were removed from the scale due to CFA analyses (see Additional Measure Validation section).

- Identity strength: The Cronbach's alpha for these four-item organizational identity strength and professional identity strength scales were 0.89 and 0.90, respectively. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.

- Social identity complexity: As with Study 1, respondent choices were subsequently recoded dichotomously as either low identity complexity (1) or high identity complexity (2). This construct was assessed in Wave 2.

- Importance of authentic display: The Cronbach's alpha for the four items was 0.83. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.

- Emotional exhaustion: The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.89. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.

- IIC: For this scale, respondents were asked to think about who they are supposed to be within their profession and within their organization and any resulting conflict. They were asked to rate how descriptive each statement was about the conflict, ranging from not descriptive (1) to exactly descriptive (5). After analyzing the reliabilities for each dimension, it became apparent that the reverse-coded item in each of the dimensions negatively impacted the Cronbach's alpha for each dimension. Thus, the three reverse-coded items were dropped from subsequent analysis. The Cronbach alphas were 0.87 (long-standing dimension), 0.91 (chronically-salient dimension), and 0.89 (pervasive dimension).This construct was assessed in Wave 2.

- Psychological distress: The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.76. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.

- Turnover intentions: The Cronbach's alpha was 0.97. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.

- Organizational citizenship behaviors: I utilized Williams and Anderson's (1991) scales to measure individually-directed OCBs (OCB-I) and organizationally-directed OCBs (OCB-O). The Cronbach's alpha for 7-item OCB-I scale was 0.76. A sample item includes, "I assist my supervisor with his/her work when I am not asked." The Cronbach's alpha for the 6-item OCB-O scale was 0.62. A sample item includes, "I conserve and protect organizational property." This construct was assessed in Wave 1.

Controls

To determine which, if any, of the demographic variables would significantly impact the proximal and distal outcomes, I conducted simple linear regression analyses and one-way ANOVAs to determine if the continuous (age, tenure, number of employees in the organization) and categorical variables (gender, ethnicity, position type, organization type) were significant predictors of the outcome variables. The results of OLS indicated that none of the continuous variables were significant predictors of the outcomes. The one-way ANOVAs, however, indicated that there were some significant differences in the group means for organization type (hospital, clinic, other medical facility, medical service provider, other) for psychological distress. The Tukey post-hoc test indicated that there were statistically significant different differences between the other medical facility, medical service provider, and other groups. Thus, to account for these group differences I created three dummy variables (whereby each of these categories is represented by a "2" and all of the other categories are represented by a "1"), which I utilized as control variables in my analysis.

Additional Measure Validation

As in Study 1, I evaluated the psychometric properties and scale distinctiveness by conducting a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using LISREL. For OPIC, which loaded into a one-factor structure in the EFA, I analyzed as a one-factor structure in the CFA. Unlike with Study 1, the best fit for this model only contained 8 of the original 12 items and fit was improved marginally from Study 1. The fit indices for the one-factor structure were, overall, acceptable (X^2 = 74.85, df = 54, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.045, CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.12). Given the improved fit with the reduced items, going forward with my future analyses I will use the reduced, 8-item scale to assess OPIC.

For IIC, I analyzed a one-factor structure using the 9 remaining items from the reliability analysis. The fit for the one-factor structure was, overall, acceptable (X^2 = 103.73, df = 27, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.05, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.13). However, as the prior structure indicated a three-dimensional construct, I also assessed other factor structures, including a two-factor structure (X^2 = 101.02, df = 26, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.049, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.12), and a three-factor structure (X^2 = 90.80, df = 24, p-value = 0.000, SRMR = 0.045, CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.12). Although the three-factor structure appeared to have marginally better fit, I conducted a chi-square difference test in order to determine whether to retain the one-factor, two-factor, or three-factor structure. The rule of the chi-square difference test is that if the obtained chi-square difference is greater (>) than the critical value, we should retain the more constrained model (or the model with more factors).

The result of the chi-square difference test indicated that I should retain the three-factor structure. Although the chi-square difference between the one-factor structure and two-factor structure (2.71) was less than the critical value of 3.84 (DF difference = 1, alpha = 0.05),

indicating that we failed to reject the null hypothesis and thus we should retain the one-factor structure, the chi-square difference between the one-factor model and the three-factor model (12.93) indicated that we should retain the three-factor structure (DF difference = 3, critical value = 7.815, alpha = 0.05). Thus, as in Study 1, I will retain the same factor structures for OPIC (one-factor) and IIC (three-factor), although both scales will be reduced in size (OPIC = 8 items, IIC = 9 items) for future analyses and Study 3. Appendix D displays the final scales for both constructs.

Data Analysis

Table 5 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 2. As with Study 1, before conducting the data analysis, I conducted additional CFAs. Due to the sample size and the number of indicators, I could not run the entire model in one CFA. Therefore, I conducted CFAs per construct (excluding the analyses already done for OPIC and IIC). The fit indices were acceptable for each construct following Hu and Bentler's (1999) combinatorial rule. Table 6 displays the fit indices for each construct (excluding OPIC and IIC).

Next, the predictor variables were centered in order to make the first-order effects meaningful and to avoid non-essential multicollinearity. As with Study 1, the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) method was utilized to conduct the hypothesis testing and multiple iterations and models were run due to model complexity.

The front half of the model (H1 – 3) was tested Model 3 (identity complexity, OI strength, and PI strength moderating the interaction of organizational identification and professional identification) of the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) process macro. The second half of the model (H4 – 13) is tested using 12 iterations of Model 7 of the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) process macro.

Table 5

Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Organizational Identification (OID)	4.00	0.63	(0.80)															
2. Professional Identification (PID)	4.12	0.66	0.42*	(0.81)														
3. Dual Identification	16.68	4.42	0.83*	0.85*	N/A													
4. OPIC	2.12	0.79	-0.20*	-0.02	-0.13	(0.93)												
5. OID Strength	4.00	0.81	0.36*	0.09	0.27*	-0.51*	(0.89)											
6. PID Strength	4.16	0.71	0.23*	0.51*	0.44*	-0.11	0.26*	(0.90)										
7. Social Identity Complexity	1.07	0.25	-0.20*	-0.01	-0.11	0.36*	-0.26*	-0.07	N/A									
8. Importance of Authentic Display	3.63	0.79	0.17*	0.23*	0.24*	0.09	0.04	0.15*	-0.17*	(0.83)								
9. Emotional Exhaustion	2.50	0.83	-0.08	-0.07	-0.10	0.35*	-0.28*	-0.21*	0.23*	0.13	(0.89)							
10. Psychological Distress	1.80	0.66	-0.19*	-0.09	-0.17*	0.30*	-0.21*	-0.24*	0.10	0.14	0.62*	(0.76)						
11. Long-Standing (IIC_1)	2.78	1.01	-0.18*	0.10	-0.05	0.74*	-0.46*	0.03	0.31*	0.09	0.28*	0.24*	(0.87)					
12. Chronically-Salient (IIC_2)	2.86	1.17	-0.10	0.14	0.02	0.65*	-0.40*	0.09	0.12	0.08	0.24*	0.27*	0.72*	(0.91)				
13. Pervasive (IIC_3)	2.64	1.00	-0.06	0.14	0.05	0.61*	-0.33*	0.14	0.20*	0.08	0.35*	0.28*	0.68*	0.82*	(0.89)			
14. Turnover Intentions	2.15	1.21	-0.31*	-0.18*	-0.29*	0.28*	-0.35*	-0.07	0.24*	0.01	0.25*	0.25*	0.23*	0.23*	0.24*	(0.97)		
15. OCB-I	4.20	0.45	0.35*	0.29*	0.38*	-0.07	0.31*	0.31*	0.01	0.14	-0.02	-0.12	-0.11	0.02	0.01	-0.29	(0.76)	
16. OCB-O	4.34	0.46	0.18*	0.19*	0.22*	-0.08	0.12	0.25*	-0.00	0.07	-0.04	-0.19*	-0.04	-0.02	-0.01	-0.15*	0.40*	(0.62)
17. Organization Type	2.31	1.68	-0.01	-0.11	-0.08	-0.01	0.05	0.04	0.06	-0.01	-0.13	-0.19*	-0.09	-0.05	0.02	-0.02	-0.01	0.11

*$p < 0.05$, two-tailed. $N = 176$

Table 6

Study 2 CFA Fit Indices

Variable	DF	χ^2	P-Value	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
1. Organizational Identification (OID)	9	27.33	0.00	0.11	0.96	0.06
2. Professional Identification (PID)	9	27.33	0.00	0.11	0.96	0.06
3. OID Strength	2	2	0.37	0.01	1.00	0.02
4. PID Strength	2	2	0.37	0.01	1.00	0.02
5. Importance of Authentic Display	2	2	0.37	0.01	1.00	0.02
6. Emotional Exhaustion	5	4.81	0.44	0.00	1.00	0.02
7. Psychological Distress	2	2.00	0.37	0.01	1.00	0.02
8. Turnover Intentions	0	0	1.00	*	*	*
9. OCB-I	14	30.31	0.00	0.09	0.97	0.05
10. OCB-O	9	27.33	0.00	0.11	0.96	0.06

N = 176. *Model is saturated, the fit is perfect.

The first three iterations of Model 7 was to test the relationship between OPIC and the distal outcomes (turnover intentions, OCB-I, and OCB-O), mediated by emotional exhaustion and moderated by the importance of authentic display (H4, H5, H6a, H6b, H7a, H7b, H8a, and H8b). The rest of the iterations of Model 7 were to test the relationship between OPIC and the distal outcomes (turnover intentions, OCB-I, and OCB-O), mediated by psychological distress, and moderated by the three dimensions of IIC (H9, H10, H11b, H12b, and H13b), with each dimension of the construct with its own iteration. Organization type (via three dummy variables) was controlled for in every iteration.

Results

Results for Models 3, which tested the posited relationships between dual identification and OPIC, moderated by social identity, OI strength, and PI strength separately, indicated that these relationships, overall, were not significant, despite the model, holistically, being significant. While these hypotheses (1-3) were not supported, several interesting findings emerged. First, while the interaction of OIDxPID (dual identification) was not significantly related to OPIC, the variables separately were significant predictors. Specifically, OID was negatively related to OPIC ($\beta = -0.29$; 95% CI= [-.53, -.06]) and PID was positively related to OPIC ($\beta = 0.23$; 95% CI= [.0001, .45]), indicating that identifying with one's organization made the individual less likely to experience identity conflict, while identifying with one's profession made an individual more likely to experience identity conflict. Another finding that emerged was that several variables posited as moderators, while not significant in that regard, were significant predictors by themselves. Identity complexity was a significant, positive predictor of OPIC ($\beta = 1.07$; 95% CI= [.36, 1.78]) while OI strength was a significant, negative predictor of OPIC ($\beta = -0.53$; 95% CI= [-.69, -.38]). This indicates that these variables are important in the conversation about identity conflict – just not in the way hypothesized.

Results for the second part of the model, which explores OPIC and its relationship to proximal and distal outcomes, indicates overall strong support for the some direct and indirect effect. However, none of the moderating hypotheses were supported. H4, which posited that OPIC was positively related to emotional exhaustion was supported in the direction hypothesized ($\beta = 0.34$; 95% CI= [.19, .49]). However, H5, which posited that the importance of authentic display moderated the OPIC – emotional exhaustion relationship, was not supported. Likewise, H6(a) was not supported, as emotional exhaustion was not a significant predictor of OCB-I or

OCB-O. H7(a), which posited that emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between OPIC and OCB was not supported; in addition, H8(a) was not supported, as there was no support for moderated mediation.

H6(b) was supported, indicating a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions as hypothesized ($\beta = 0.27$; 95% CI= [.05, .50]). Not only were these direct relationships supported, but H7(b), which posited that OPIC influenced turnover intentions through the mechanism of emotional exhaustion, was also supported. Because the direct effect of X on Y was significant ($\beta = 0.34$; 95% CI= [.11, .58]) in addition to the relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions still being significant, this indicates that emotional exhaustion partially mediates the relationship between OPIC and turnover intentions. However, H8(c), which posited moderated mediation in the above model, was not supported.

H9, which posited that OPIC was positively related to psychological distress was supported in the direction hypothesized ($\beta = 0.20$; 95% CI= [.02, .37]). H11(b) was supported, indicating a positive relationship between psychological distress and turnover intentions ($\beta = 0.38$; 95% CI= [.09, .67]). Not only were these direct relationships supported, but H12(b), which posited that OPIC influenced turnover intentions through the mechanism of psychological distress, was also supported. Because the direct effect of X on Y was significant ($\beta = 0.36$; 95% CI= [.13, .58]) in addition to the relationship between psychological distress and turnover intentions still being significant, this indicates that psychological distress partially mediates the relationship between OPIC and turnover intentions. H11(a), which posited that psychological distress was negatively related to OCB engagement was partially supported, as it was not significantly related to OCB-I but was significantly related to OCB-O in the direction hypothesized ($\beta = -0.11$; 95% CI= [-.23, -.01]). Because the direct effect of X on Y was no

longer significant, psychological distress fully mediates the relationship between OPIC and OCB-O. In regards to H10 and H13, which posited the moderating effect of IIC on the relationships between OPIC and the distal outcomes and moderated mediation respectively, there was no support found. A depiction of these findings can be found in Figure 5. Moreover, a regression table summarizing the results can be found in Table 7.

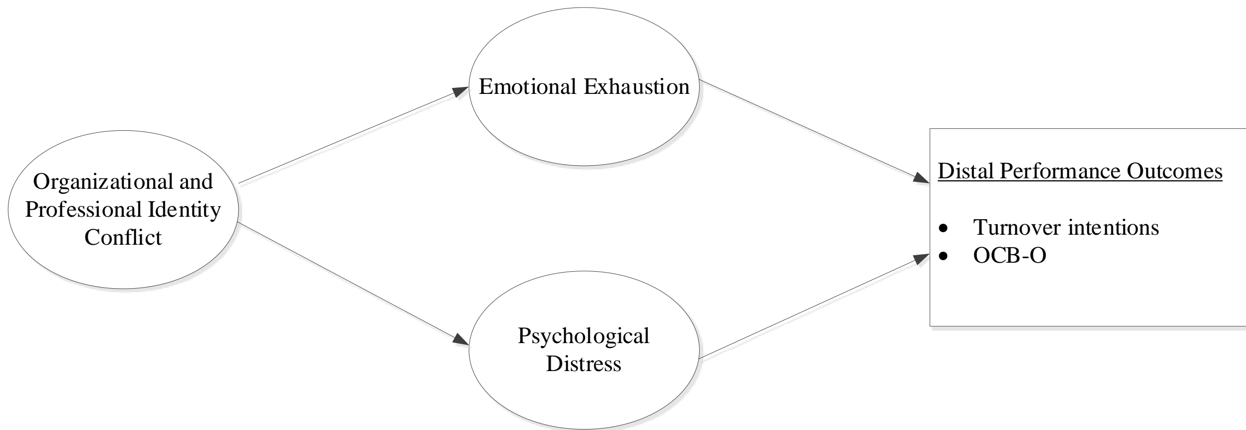


Figure 5. Visual depiction of Study 2 findings.

Table 7

Preacher and Hayes Study 2 Regression Results

Relationship	Supported	B	P-Value	LLCI	ULCI
Dual Identification - OPIC (H1+)	No	0.005	0.69	-0.02	0.03
OPIC - Emotional Exhaustion (H4+)	Yes	0.341	0.00	0.19	0.49
Emotional Exhaustion - OCB-I (H6a-)	No	0.003	0.96	-0.09	0.09
Emotional Exhaustion - OCB-O (H6a-)	No	-0.003	0.95	-0.09	0.09
Emotional Exhaustion - Turnover Intentions (H6b+)	Yes	0.274	0.02	0.05	0.50
OPIC - Psychological Distress (H9+)	Yes	0.195	0.03	0.02	0.37
Psychological Distress - OCB-I (H11a-)	No	-0.086	0.13	-0.20	0.03

(table continues)

Relationship	Supported	B	P-Value	LLCI	ULCI
Psychological Distress - OCB-O (H11a-)	Yes	-0.118	0.04	-0.23	-0.01
Psychological Distress - Turnover Intentions (H11b+)	Yes	0.375	0.01	0.09	0.66

N = 176

Post-Hoc Analysis

In order to dig deeper into these findings, I decided to conduct some post-hoc analyses. Specifically, the correlation table indicated that dual identification was significantly correlated to psychological distress and to the distal outcomes. This indicates that while dual identification may not be significantly related to OPIC, it might still have important implications for these outcomes. Using the Preacher and Hayes process macro (Models 1 and 5) to examine these relationships, I found some interesting results: while OPIC tends to lead to negative outcomes (e.g. increased turnover intentions, increased emotional exhaustion, increased psychological distress), dual identification was not a significant predictor – but in many cases, the main effects (OID and PID) were significant predictors. Specifically, OID ($\beta = 0.21$; 95% CI= [.09, .32]) and PID ($\beta = 0.12$; 95% CI= [.01, .23]) are positively related to OCB-I. OID was also negatively related to psychological distress ($\beta = -0.18$; 95% CI= [-.35, -.01]).

This indicates that, not only does dual identification not lead to identity conflict, but dual identification might not be relevant when taking into account the strong effects of organizational identification and professional identification. Interestingly, because both identifications tended to lead to positive outcomes, it can be argued that identifying with both identities is beneficial for the individual when considering the identities separately and their effects. Thus, it might actually be one or the other – either individuals experience identity conflict and thus suffer some negative

outcomes, or they identify strongly with their identities and experience some positive outcomes. Yet, these findings are not so straightforward, as results from the main analysis indicate that OID was negatively related to identity conflict and PID was positively related to identity conflict. Consequently, while identifying with the profession might be beneficial when considering engagement in OCBs, it might lead an individual to experience identity conflict, which has been linked to negative outcomes. Yet, another question remains: are the results of these findings due to the directionality hypothesized? To state another way, while theoretically I conceptualized dual identification is a prerequisite to experiencing identity conflict, is it the reality that individuals who have high dual identification might have already gone through a cognitive process whereby they have reconciled or managed these competing identities? Is dual identification not relevant in the face of strong main effects due to the fact that individuals identifying strongly with both collective identities might have already reconciled them – leading only to the main effects being significant? Thus, it is possible that individuals who are experiencing identity conflict or OPIC might not have reached the stage of dual identification, whereby the identities themselves don't conflict, but still have important ramifications themselves. To test this hypothesis, I used OLS regression to see if OPIC was a significant predictor of dual identification. Results indicated that OPIC was strongly, negatively associated with dual identification ($\beta = -0.75$, $p<0.10$). Thus, for Study 3, I further test these findings in addition to testing the results model (with OCB-I also examined as a distal outcome) from Study 2 (Figure 5).

Study 3 (Post-hoc)

Participants and Procedure

The survey was distributed across two waves separated by four weeks, over email, to individuals employed at a regional hospital in the Southwestern United States. Individuals who successfully completed both waves were entered to win one of five, $50 Amazon gift cards. The survey was made available to 539 employees, with 84 (15.6% response rate) completing the first wave –the small response rate of this post-hoc study is a limitation, which is discussed in the next chapter. Of these 84 employees, 36 completed the second wave (42.9% response rate between the waves).This indicates a final sample size of 36 (n = 36). Although the sample size is small, given there are only three independent variables being examined at one time (the X variable and the mediator), this sample size does meet the general rule of thumb – there should be a minimum of five observations for each independent variable examined. Moreover, this sample size also meets the desired ratio of 15 to 20 observations for each independent variable. Thus, while the sample size is not ideal, the results should be generalizable if the sample is representative (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). A limitation of this sample size, however, is that the minimum R^2 that can be detected is much higher – at a sample size of 50 with two independent variables, for example, the minimum R^2 that can be detected is 0.19 (Hair et al, 2010). Therefore, the findings from this study will be much more conservative in nature. Lastly, to confirm I could go ahead with the analysis, I conducted a post-hoc sample size statistical power calculation (cf. Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013), which indicated that I would need a sample size of 34.8 (a = 0.05, power = 0.70, K_b =2, L = 8.59, K_{full} = 3), assuming a medium effect size is present (0.25).

Respondents were 5.4% male and ranged in age from 26 to 71 (*M* = 47.17, *SD* = 11.81). The sample was 88.9% White or Caucasian, 5.6% Hispanic or Latino, and 5.6% Asian. Respondents held various positions at the hospital, but the largest position category was nurse (54.1%).The tenure of respondents ranged from new hires to 28 years (*M* = 11.86, *SD* = 6.85).

Measures

The measures received no modifications from Study 2. For a complete list of the items used in Study 3, please refer to Appendix C. The following paragraphs briefly describe the measures related to this study.

- Dual identification: The Cronbach's alpha for the scales were 0.94 (OID) and 0.95 (PID) respectively. Both constructs were assessed in Wave 1. The scores for each level of identification were multiplied into a product term (*M* = 18.79, *SD* = 6.20), with the range thus being 1 to 25.
- OPIC: The Cronbach's alpha for the 8 items was 0.96. This construct was assessed in Wave 2.
- Emotional exhaustion: The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.88. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.
- Psychological distress: The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.78. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.
- Turnover intentions: The Cronbach's alpha was 0.97. This construct was assessed in Wave 1.
- Organizational citizenship behaviors: The Cronbach's alpha for 7-item OCB-I scale was 0.81. The Cronbach's alpha for the 6-item OCB-O scale was 0.79. This construct was

assessed in Wave 1.

Controls

Due to the small sample size, I excluded control variables from my analysis.

Data Analysis

Table 8 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 3. As with Study 1 and Study 2, the data was analyzed using the Preacher and Hayes process macro. Multiple iterations of Models 4 and 5, which is a moderated-mediation model, were utilized. Both OPIC and dual identification were examined as independent variables. Figure 6 depicts the two models assessed.

Results

Results for the model which tested the relationship between OPIC and the proximal and distal outcomes indicated, holistically, that OPIC leads to negative outcomes. Specifically, OPIC was positively associated with emotional exhaustion ($\beta = 0.53$; 95% CI= [.16, .56]). And, while the other relationships explored were not significant (most likely due to the small sample size and inability to find significance for smaller effects), the correlation table supports the directionality found in Study 2. As with Study 2, while dual identification was not a significant predictor of the outcomes, the main effects were significant. Similarly, PID was positively related to OCB-I ($\beta = 0.62$; 95% CI= [.12, 1.12]) and, interestingly, with this sample, OID is positively associated with psychological distress ($\beta = 0.25$; 95% CI= [.02, .47]). Moreover, in this sample, professional identification was strongly correlated with organizational identification

(0.95), indicating that with a single organization sample, the two collective identities might not be distinct. Implications of these findings, as well as the findings from Study 1 and Study 2, are discussed next in Chapter 5.

Table 8

Study 3 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Organizational Identification (OID)	4.24	0.85	(0.94)								
2. Professional Identification (PID)	4.30	0.89	0.95*	(0.95)							
3. Dual Identification	18.92	6.24	0.97*	0.96*	N/A						
4. OPIC	2.30	1.04	0.10	0.10	0.09	(0.96)					
5. Emotional Exhaustion	2.19	0.71	0.32	0.29	0.32	0.53*	(0.88)				
6. Psychological Distress	1.53	0.58	0.36*	0.30	0.35*	0.24	0.57*	(0.78)			
7. Turnover Intentions	1.29	0.61	-0.11	-0.18	-0.18	0.01	-0.01	0.18	(0.97)		
8. OCB-I	4.40	0.49	0.55*	0.61*	0.62*	0.27	0.27	0.36*	-0.23	(0.81)	
9. OCB-O	4.59	0.44	0.57*	0.57*	0.59*	0.08	0.08	0.13	-0.03	0.42*	(0.79)

*$p < 0.05$, two-tailed. $N = 36$.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Identity scholars agree that trends in society and organizations have made more identities relevant for more individuals (Ramarajan, 2014) and thus individuals are tasked with managing these multiple identities, both at work and at home (Blader, 2007). In the past few years, scholars have begun to explore multiple identities with much more intensity, in part due to the call by Ashforth (2016) to go beyond exploring singular identities in his distinguished scholar invited essay in the *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. Specifically, in the management literature, scholars have begun positing on the effects of multiple identities in the workplace. Interesting theoretical work has emerged in the last few years on the subject. For example, scholars have explored how supervisors can manage a subordinate's multiple identities (Creary, Caza, & Roberts, 2015) and how managerial responses to multiple organizational identities can be classified (Pratt & Foreman, 2000). Unfortunately, empirical work – especially quantitative work – on multiple identities is much more limited. While there has been recent qualitative work on multiple identities (e.g. Caza, Moss, & Vough, 2017), quantitative research is more rare. Qualitative research is inherently valuable, as it is necessary for theory building and provides rich descriptive detail that puts quantitative results in into its human context (Trochim, Donnelly, & Arora, 2015). However, when a field moves into the theory-testing stage of development, quantitative research is needed, as quantitative research allows for hypothesis testing and for generalizations based on statistical estimations (Trochim et al., 2015). I argue that multiple identity research is now in the theory-testing stage and thus quantitative research is necessary for generalizing its effects and for replicability purposes.

Thus, my research sought to address this missing link by quantitatively assessing dual identification, a phenomenon within multiple identity research. Specifically, due to the importance of collective identities – as scholars argue for the primacy of the collective self, owing to research indicating that individuals will prioritize group memberships at the expense of their individual identity (Branscombe & Ellemers, 1998; Brewer & Roccas, 2001; Brewer & Weber, 1994; Hogg, 2001) – I focus on the organization and the profession, which are two important collective identities. Using uncertainty-identity (Hogg, 2000; Hogg, 2007), I posited that dual identification of the organization and professional identities would lead to an identity conflict, due to increased uncertainty about the appropriate behavior and a resulting subsequent drain of resources to manage this conflict. Next, I posited this conflict (organizational and professional identity conflict or OPIC) would lead to emotional exhaustion and psychological distress, ultimately leading to reduced performance. I also posited several moderating effects, including intractability of the identity conflict or IIC, for which a measure was created.

To test my hypothesized model, I utilized a three-study design. Study 1 was conducted through a cross-sectional survey administered to academics (n = 225) and tested a more pared-down version of the theoretical model; the primary aim of this study was to conduct measure validation on two created measures and to gain a preliminary understanding of the relationships posited. Study 2 was conducted amongst health care professionals who were currently enrolled in a health care MBA program (n = 176). The survey was administered over two waves in order to minimize common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and tested the entire theoretical model. Study 3 was conducted at a health care organization in the Southwest United States. As with Study 2, this study was collected across two waves. Due to sample size constraints, this study was treated as a post-hoc analysis to test the interesting findings found in Study 2 (n = 36).

All of the studies were analyzed using the Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) process macro and after conducting CFAs in LISREL.

Study 1 Findings

The primary aim of this pilot study was to validate the two measures created. CFA results indicated that these measures had both discriminant and convergent validity. Moreover, the factor structure for these constructs were confirmed (OPIC as a one-factor structure and IIC as a multidimensional construct with a three-factor structure). Cronbach alphas also indicated strong reliability of these measures. The secondary aim of this pilot study was to take an initial look at the posited relationships. Some interesting findings emerged. First, the relationship between dual identification (treated as a dichotomous variable) and OPIC was not significant. Yet, professional identity strength moderated this relationship, but not in the direction hypothesized. In this case, when individuals felt that their professional identity was cohesive and thus sent strong signals about expectations, they were less likely (if dually identified) to experience identity conflict or OPIC. This indicates that – at least in this specific sample of higher education – the content of the identities can have ramifications for the amount of identity conflict experienced. This is important, as OPIC was found to be significantly and positively associated with emotional exhaustion, psychological distress, and turnover intentions.

This finding – of identity conflict leading to negative outcomes for the individual and the organization – is supported by the literature. For instance, scholars who study role conflict have found that psychological conflict creates distress for the individual (Burke, 2003; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Moreover, emotional exhaustion research has found that conflict (role, work-family) is a direct antecedent of this chronic state of physical and emotional depletion (Babakus

et al., 1999). Hogg's (2000, 2007) uncertainty-identity theory also supported this negative relationship, as uncertainty about expectations or behavior (such as identity conflict) could lead to resource depletion (Hobfoll, 2001) and a greater experience of these negative psychological states. Further, research has linked these negative states to turnover intentions (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Cropanzano, 1998). Not only are these findings consistent with the conflict literature, but this study highlights a new type of conflict that should matter to individuals and organizations – identity conflict.

While these findings were interesting and provided strong support for the hypothesized model's direct effects, I wanted to further explore these relationships and conducted some post-hoc analyses. The results of these additional analyses also provided additional insight into some of the relationships. Specifically, while social identity complexity did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between dual identification and OPIC, it was a significant predictor of identity conflict. This might indicate that the way an individual conceptualizes their identities might be an important antecedent of identity conflict and, given the literature from which social identity complexity research emerged – the faultline literature (Lau & Murnighan, 1998), which explored how group differences can lead to conflict – this is a logical assumption. Lastly, the most interesting finding from the post-hoc analyses was that dual identification, when operationalized as a continuous variable (an interaction between organizational identification and professional identification) rather than a dichotomous variable, was a significant, negative predictor of OPIC – rather than a positive predictor as hypothesized. This indicates that, while theoretically, dual identification should be an antecedent of identity conflict (after all, identifying with both the organization and the profession is a necessary condition to experiencing OPIC), the directionality might be reversed. This is because individuals who dual identify, rather than

existing in this cognitively draining period, might have already gone through a cognitive process whereby they have reconciled or managed these competing identities. In fact, the identity management literature has argued that the findings of multiple identities leading to positive and negative outcomes may be due to how these identities are managed (e.g. Pratt & Foreman, 2000). However, due to the preliminary nature of these findings, I hesitated to draw conclusions and decided to further test these post-hoc findings (in addition to re-resting the theoretical model) in two additional studies.

Study 2 Findings

In this second study, I tested my hypothesized model in a health care sample. Like higher education, the health care industry is an interesting context to test and explore multiple identity-related phenomena, as many individuals belong to both organizations and professions. In this study, I made a few additions and modifications based on my Study 1 findings, including operationalizing dual identification as a continuous variable (as in the post-hoc) and adding a performance variable as a distal outcome (OCB engagement, explored through OCB-I and OCB-O). CFA results, as with Study 1, indicated support for the two developed measures and their factor structures, although the measures were further refined (items reduced in each scale, see Appendix D for the final measures). In regards to the hypothesized model, as predicted OPIC was positively related to emotional exhaustion, psychological distress, and turnover intentions, as found in Study 1. In regards to the added distal performance variable (OCBs), OPIC was found to be negatively related to OCB-O, as hypothesized (but not significantly related to OCB-I). This indicates that individuals who experience identity conflict are less likely to engage in extra-role behaviors that are directed at the organization. This is a logical progression, as individuals who

are in the throes of psychological conflict will experience resource depletion (Hobfoll, 2001) and have less energies to expend on discretionary behaviors. As with Study 1, the moderating effects were not supported. However, several moderators were actually significant predictors of OPIC – identity complexity was a significant, positive predictor of OPIC while OI strength was a significant, negative predictor of OPIC. This indicates that these identity variables have important implications for an individual's perception of identity conflict and, ultimately, their experience of psychological outcomes and their behaviors in their organization.

Interestingly, the change in operationalization of dual identification did not lead to a significant relationship with OPIC, as found in the Study 1 post-hoc. To investigate this further, post-hoc analyses were conducted. Results from the post-hoc analyses indicated that while dual identification was not a negative predictor of OPIC, OPIC was strongly and negatively related to dual identification. This supports what I posited from Study 1 – individuals who experience identity conflict may have not yet gone through the process of dual identification. There is a corollary between this and a popular way to view groups and teams: Tuckman's (1965) model of group development. In this model, Tuckman posits that all groups go through four phases of development, which are necessary for the team to ultimately deliver solutions. These phases are forming, storming, norming, and performing. In this corollary, OPIC is like storming – a stage where conflicts emerge and resolutions have yet to be met. Identity management, which I theorize happens between the stages of OPIC and dual identification, could be conceptualized as the norming stage, where a common goal is shared and is characterized by acceptance.

Lastly, dual identification can be characterized as the last stage and ultimate goal: performing. In this instance, success is achieved. To test whether dual identification is actually like the performing stage, I conducted initial analyses whereby I examined the relationships

between dual identification and the proximal and distal outcomes that OPIC was associated. Findings supported these corollaries, as while OPIC appears to lead to negative outcomes (increased emotional exhaustion, psychological distress, turnover intentions, and decreased discretionary behaviors such as OCB-O), the identities themselves (organizational identification and professional identification) appear to lead to positive outcomes. Interestingly, dual identification was not significantly linked to any of the outcomes, yet the individual identities were – this indicates that dual identification as a variable may not matter when taking into account the identities themselves. In other words, while theoretically it can be argued that dual identification leads to positive outcomes (e.g. the "performing stage"), empirically the variable is overshadowed by the strong main effects of the identity variables. Specifically, results revealed that organizational identification was positively related to engagement in OCB-I and negatively related to psychological distress. Moreover, organizational identification was negatively associated with OPIC, while professional identification was positively associated with OPIC. This indicates that, while holistically identification (such as dual identification) is beneficial for the individuals and organizations, identity conflict has negative consequences for both. Yet, as this study reveals, the takeaways are not so clear cut, as these findings indicate that the type of identification matters. In this study, it appears that organizational identification is the identity that is beneficial, while professional identification may lead an individual to experience identity conflict. These findings were further tested in Study 3.

Study 3 Findings

Study 3, as with Study 2, was collected over two waves and conducted in the health care industry, but within a single organization to control for organizational effects. Due to a limited

sample size, this study itself was treated as a post-hoc. Findings from this study indicate that OPIC is positively associated with emotional exhaustion and, as with Study 2, dual identification was not a significant predictor while the main effects were significant. Specifically, professional identification was positively associated with OCB-I and organizational identification is positively associated with psychological distress. Thus, in this study in contrast to Study 2, the beneficial identity is reversed. This could indicate that whether or not certain identities lead to positive outcomes is context-specific. In this case, the data for Study 3 was collected during a very interesting time and with a very specific sample, which could offer an explanation for these findings. This data was collected in December 2017 and January 2018, in the middle of one of the worst flu epidemics in years. Moreover, the region in which this hospital is located was heavily affected, and conversation with hospital executives revealed that, due to the flu, they had reached capacity at the hospital and had to resort to overflow areas. Further, 54% of the sample was comprised of nurses, who, in non-epidemic times, already report their stress levels to be extremely or quite high (Hegney, Eley, Plank, Buikstra, & Parker, 2006). Compounding these effects is the role of gender – approximately 95% of the sample was female, and females are more likely to ruminate about their negative feelings than males (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987), which could also exacerbate the amount of psychological distress experienced. Likewise, the positive relationship between organizational identification and psychological distress could be due to the hospital's prestige or identity being threatened (for being unable to handle to large influx of patients with the flu), leading those who identify more strongly with the organization to experience psychological distress. Moreover, as the sample was comprised mostly of nurses, this professional identity could simply be linked to more individually-directed discretionary behaviors. Further, OCB-I is viewed as feminine OCB, where women consider these behaviors

as in-role (Kidder & Parks, 2001); in contrast, OCB-O is considered as masculine OCB and men consider these behaviors in-role (Kidder & Parks, 2001). This is supported by evidence which found that women are more likely than men to engage in OCB-I (Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007).

Lastly, another interesting finding emerged from this study – organizational identification and professional identification were extremely correlated (0.95), indicating these identities might not be distinct. While the literature views them as distinct identities theoretically (e.g. Aranya et al., 1981; Johnson et al., 2006), there may not always be an empirical difference. This does call into the question the relative important of professional identification in certain contexts. Rather, while many industries may be professionalized, the relative importance of one's professional identity to one's organizational identity might depend on the industry or even just the organization – and the degree of alignment between the two. While this question needs more research, these three studies do allow for conclusions to be drawn about identity conflict and dual identification. Holistically, findings from these three studies indicate that when individuals experience identity conflict, this has negative repercussions for themselves and their organization. In contrast, when individuals dual identify with both their organization and their profession, they seem to experience psychological benefits and, likewise, their organization benefits from their increased discretionary behaviors. Lastly, preliminary evidence indicates that identity conflict is experienced when individuals have yet to manage these competing identities and, when these identities are managed, they dual identify and experience the positive outcomes accordingly.

Theoretical Implications

I contend that these studies make several contributions to the identity literature. First, I developed and validated measures that capture a specific type of identity conflict (OPIC) and capture the intractability of the identity conflict (IIC), which has been explored theoretically and qualitatively, but not quantitatively. I argue that these measures can be used and adapted by fellow identity scholars and, ultimately, increase the quantitative work on the subject, which is necessary to assess the generalizability of identity conflict's relationship to important individual and organizational outcomes. Further, I tested two main ways of operationalizing dual identification and found that a continuous (interaction) approach works better than a categorical approach, as it allows for more variability, at least in smaller sample sizes.

Second, I entered the debate on whether multiple identities are a boon (resource) for individuals or a burden (strain) for individuals. Scholars who view multiple identities as a boon argue that multiple identities provide psychological resources for individuals and more identities actually lowers an individual's psychological distress (Thoits, 1983; Thoits, 1986). In contrast, scholars who view multiple identities as a burden argue that individuals have a fixed amount of resources available to them and, as a result, balancing these identities results in role overload and strain (Marks, 1977; Rothbard, 2001). Despite the number of years that multiple identities have been researched, this debate is still enduring. While I took a conflict/strain perspective on multiple identities, my findings revealed a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between multiple identities and important individual outcomes. My three studies revealed that whether multiple identities (dual identification, specifically) lead to positive or negative outcomes for the individual depended on whether the individual has cognitively resolved the differences between these two identities. If the individual has resolved the differences in their

identities, whereby I argue they have reached the stage of “dual identification” and the main effects of the identities are able to be seen, then multiple identities are a boon. In contrast, if they have yet to resolve their identities, they are still in the identity conflict stage and thus experience their multiple identities as a burden. Thus, I contend that both perspectives on multiple identities are correct under certain circumstances. This research highlights the importance of understanding of an individual’s identity management in assessing whether multiple identities will lead to positive or negative outcomes. Further, this also highlights the fact that not all individuals will reach dual identification and indicates a need for future research to explore factors in this process.

Lastly, there have been calls (e.g. Ashforth, 2016) for identity scholars to look beyond organizational identification and examine other, less-explored identities including professional identification. The results of my third study, however, cast doubt on the importance of other collective identities in comparison to organizational identification. Due to the high correlation of the two identities, it appears that they might not be easily separable, at least in certain contexts. While scholars have argued that the development of one’s professional identity in many cases precedes the development of one’s organizational identity (Aranya et al., 1981), that does not mean that the one’s professional identification is more significant than one’s organizational identification. There are many limitations to my Study 3 findings, however, which limits the generalizations I can draw from it. Regardless, this study indicates that when researchers are studying other collective identities, they should control for the respondent’s level organizational identification and account for other important variables, such as the organization’s prestige.

Managerial Implications

These findings have important implications for both organizations and managers. First, if employees experience identity conflict, they will experience negative outcomes. In addition to individuals experiencing psychological distress and emotional exhaustion, organizations and managers will feel the repercussions of the increased turnover intentions (via increased turnover costs) and the reduced discretionary behaviors (which are necessary for the organization's functioning). Thus, this behooves that managers and organizations find ways to help individuals manage their identities. For example, the organization can strive to highlight how the organization has values that are similar to the profession, to lower the perceived differences in the identities. In the health care industry, this might look like hospitals highlighting that they do not just care about profit – that they also care about the quality of patient care. In practice, organizations might increase the number of patient-facing staff to allow for more quality-time with patients to highlight this priority. Moreover, in addition to helping employees manage their identities, organizations should support employees in developing and maintaining their professional identities and organizational identities, as preliminary findings indicate that these multiple identities are a boon (when identities are managed) as individuals have more resources and are thus better able to manage stress at work, thereby reducing negative outcomes and increasing positive ones. In practice, this could come through guaranteed reimbursement for professional activities, including conferences and training, and through organizational-sponsored events that increase cohesion and foster a sense of shared organizational identity.

Study Limitations

These studies, however, are not without their limitations. Primarily, while the majority of the direct and indirect effects hypothesized were supported in the direction hypothesized, holistically none of the moderating hypotheses were supported. While the reliabilities of the measures were all acceptable and the direct effects were of decent size, the moderating effects were still not supported. This could be due to either their position in the model (e.g. they might be important predictors rather than acting like boundary conditions) or even the specific contexts explored, as the moderators might only be significant in certain contexts (the industries explored might be in greater alignment, for example). Alternatively, while the sample sizes in Study 1 and Study 2 were adequate, these effects might be small and thus only detectable in larger sample sizes. The sample size for Study 3 is particularly problematic, in terms of both the response rate and, accordingly, issues of non-response bias. For instance, due to the small response rate, those who responded to the survey are most likely significantly different than those who did not complete the survey, especially in regards to their level of organizational identification, as individuals who actually completed the survey may have done so due to high levels of organizational identification.

While the sample size was technically adequate for the number of variables examined, the sample size only allowed for the detection of large effects. Moreover, it limited the analyses available for use, precluding the use of CFAs, for example, and ultimately, reducing its generalizability. The sample was also primarily comprised of females and nurses, which further limits generalizing and places boundaries on the scope of conclusions I can draw. Further, while two industries were examined, my findings could be industry-specific and not enough industries were explored to account for industry effects. Likewise, the significance of organizational type

(used as a control variable in Study 2) and the organization/context (for Study 3), underscore the importance of the organization on my findings; while I attempted to control and account for its effects, one's organization could have profound effects on the identity-related phenomena and resulting outcomes. Additionally, even though for Study 2 and Study 3 my measures were separated across two waves to mitigate the effects of CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003), all the measures were perception based and, ultimately, subject to social desirability bias. Lastly, there was not enough time between the waves (two weeks for Study 2 and four weeks for Study 3) to truly examine the process of dual identification, identity conflict, and the resulting outcomes, and thus I can only speculate about this process.

Future Directions

While these findings contribute to the identity literature, due to the smaller sample sizes and interesting organizational effects, replication is needed. Assessing the relationship between dual identification, identity conflict, and individual outcomes in a larger sample size would allow for the detection of smaller effects and, overall, greater generalizability. Moreover, only two industries were explored, which prohibits me from fully accounting for industry effects. Likewise, though my research demonstrated that the collective identities and identity conflict significantly predicted important outcomes, these were all psychological and perception-based. Future research should examine more objective outcomes, including supervisor-rated task performance and more organizational performance outcomes, such as ROI and stock price.

Additionally, while I theorized that the key difference in whether multiple identities lead to positive or negative outcomes for the individual is dependent upon whether the individual had successfully managed their identities, this was not empirically tested. Therefore, future research

should examine this in addition to studying the process of how individuals transition from experiencing identity conflict to identity management to dual identification. Lastly, only one type of dual identification was studied – the dual identification of the organization and profession – there are many more types of dual identities, that exist at the other levels of self. Future research should explore these cross-level affects.

Conclusion

Using a three-study, quantitative design spanning two industries, I studied the effects of dual identification and identity conflict on individual psychological outcomes, turnover intentions, and OCB engagement. Findings from these three studies, holistically, indicate that when individuals experience identity conflict between their organizational and professional identities, they experience negative outcomes. These negative outcomes – increased emotional exhaustion, psychological distress, and turnover intentions, in addition to reduced OCB engagement – have important ramifications for the individuals themselves and their organization. However, post-hoc results indicate that dual identification – through the main effects of organizational and professional identification – itself leads to positive outcomes. Thus, whether multiple identities are a boon or burden might be a result of whether an individual has reconciled these identities. More research is needed to understand these relationships. This research, however, contributes to the identity literature and adds a new perspective to the conversation on the outcomes of multiple identities.

APPENDIX A

STUDY 1 INSTRUMENT

This research centers on your profession and your organization. Your organization refers to your current employer, while your profession refers to your occupation or vocation.

DUAL IDENTIFICATION & IDENTITY STRENGTH

Think about your organization (current employer) and rate your agreement with the below statements.

Identification with the Organization

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

Organization Identity Strength

1. There is a common sense of purpose in this organization.
2. This organization has a clear and unique vision.
3. There is a strong feeling of unity in this organization.
4. This organization has a specific mission shared by its employees.

Think about your profession (occupation or vocation) and rate your agreement with the below statements.

Identification with the Profession

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

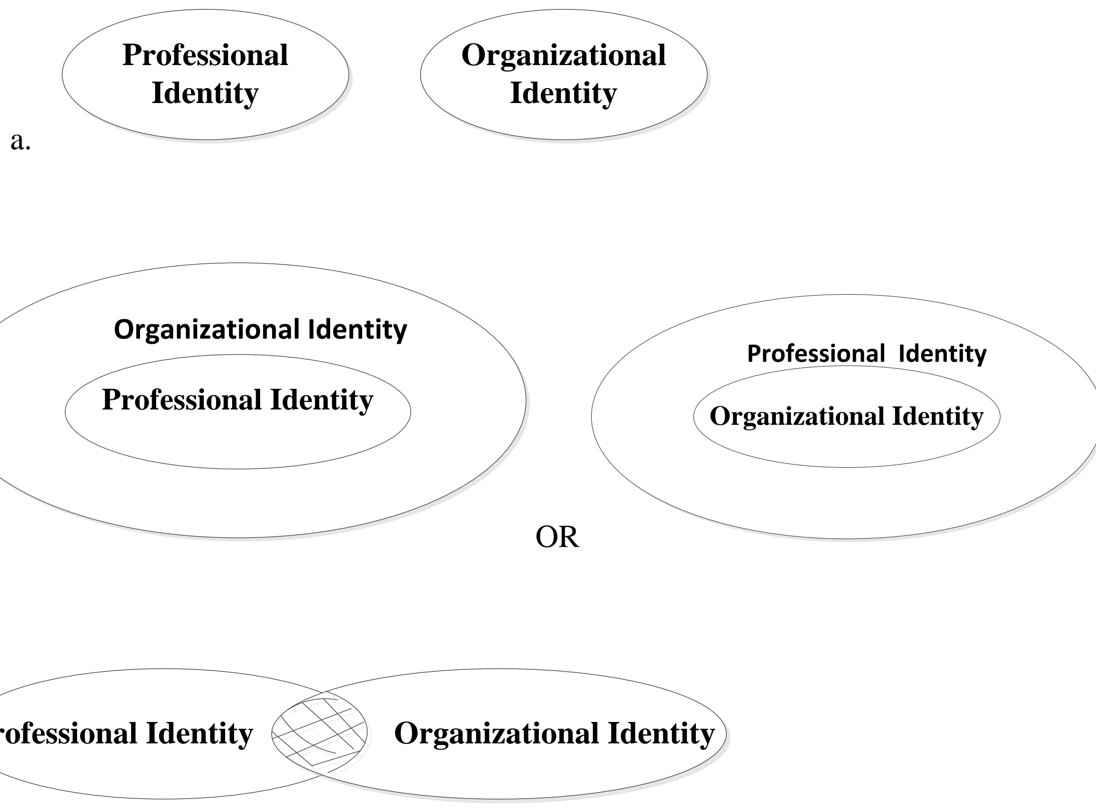
Professional Identity Strength

1. There is a common sense of purpose in my profession.

2. My profession has a clear and unique vision.
3. There is a strong feeling of unity in my profession.
4. My profession has a specific mission shared by its members.

SOCIAL IDENTITY COMPLEXITY

Look at the images below. Which image best represents the relationship between your professional identity and your organizational identity? Remember, your profession refers to your vocation or occupation and your organization refers to your current employer.



Professional Identity/Organizational Identity

d.

Which image best represents the relationship between your professional identity and your organizational identity?
-a.
-b.
-c.
-d.

IDENTITY PRIMING

"I AM" Statements

I am statements – Organizational

Write down five different responses to the question, "Who am I supposed to be?" Answer this section with regards to who you think you are supposed to be in your workplace organization by identifying the characteristics and qualities that reflect the ideal member in your organization.

This section is about your organizational identity.

I am supposed to be_______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______

I am statements – Professional

Write down five different responses to the question, "Who am I supposed to be?" Answer this section with regards to your professional identity and who you think you are supposed to be in your profession by identifying the characteristics and qualities that reflect the ideal professional in your field. This section is about your professional identity.

I am supposed to be_______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______

IDENTITY CONFLICT

OPIC

Reflect upon the above statements you made about who you are supposed to be in your profession and who you are supposed to be in your workplace organization and rate your level of agreement with the statements below.

1. My profession and my organization stand for contradictory things.
2. The values of my profession and organization are not compatible with each other.
3. The goals of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
4. The values of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
5. I receive conflicting messages concerning what I should care about from my profession and my organization.
6. The goals of my profession and organization are often in conflict.
7. The major beliefs of my profession and organization are inconsistent.
8. I often have to choose between following professional standards and doing what is best for my organization.
9. There is a conflict between the work standards and procedures of my organization and my profession.
10. The common characteristics of those in my profession are not well aligned with the common characteristics of those in my organization.

11. I cannot be the ideal member of my profession and be the ideal member of my organization at the same time.

12. I can fully express myself as a professional in my organization. (R)

MODERATORS

<u>IIC</u>

Think about who you are supposed to be in your profession and your organization and any resulting conflict. If you think there is no conflict between who you are supposed to be in your profession (professional identity) and who you are supposed to be in your organization (organizational identity), then select "N/A." Otherwise, rate your level of agreement with each statement below.

Long-Standing

1. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has been going on for a long time.
2. I don't see the conflict between my professional and organizational identities going away any time soon.
3. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has not gotten better over time.
4. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is temporary (R).

Chronically Salient

1. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is a top concern of mine at work.
2. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is regularly on my mind at work.
3. I rarely think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities at work (R).
4. A primary conflict in my work life is the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.

Pervasive

1. I think about conflicts between my professional and organizational identities even when I am not at work.
2. I sometimes have difficulty falling asleep because of thoughts about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.
3. I think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities when I don't mean to.

4. My life outside of work is affected by the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.

Importance of Authentic Display

Rate your level of agreement with the below statements.

1. It often makes me feel uncomfortable if I have to hide emotions that I actually feel.
2. If I need to act in a way that I do not actually feel, I often feel like I am deceiving others.
3. When I need to act in a way that does not correspond to what I really feel inside, I often feel tense and pressured.
4. It is meaningful and valuable to me to act in accordance to my thoughts, beliefs, and emotions.

PROXIMAL OUTCOMES OF THE IDENTITY CONFLICT

Emotional Exhaustion

In general, how often do you experience the following at your job?

1. Being tired
2. Being "wiped out"
3. Feeling run-down
4. Feeling rejected
5. Being exhausted

Psychological Distress – Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K6)

How frequently in the last 30 days have you felt…

1. Nervous
2. Hopeless

3. Restless or fidgety

4. So depressed that nothing could cheer you up

DISTAL/PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES OF THE IDENTITY CONFLICT

Turnover Intentions

Rate your level of agreement with the below statements.

1. I intend to leave my organization in the next 12 months.
2. I feel strongly that I will leave my organization in the next 12 months.
3. It is likely that I will leave my organization in the next 12 months.

DEMOGRAPHICS

What year were you born? __________

What is your gender? (Male/Female)

How would you classify your position?

1. Doctoral Student

2. Staff

3. Lecturer

4. Adjunct

5. Assistant Professor

6. Associate Professor

7. Full Professor

8. Other _______

Are you in an administrative position? (Yes/No)

Do you have any comments about this survey that you would like to make?

For AOM Listserv:

How would you classify your position?

1. Doctoral Student
2. Postdoctoral researcher
3. Staff
4. Lecturer
5. Adjunct
6. Assistant Professor
7. Associate Professor
8. Full Professor
9. Other _______

Is your institution public or private?

1. Public
2. Private

How would you classify your institution in terms of research?

1. Research-focused
2. Balanced
3. Teaching-focused

What is your teaching load? (____ - ____)

APPENDIX B

STUDY 2 INSTRUMENT

This research centers on your profession and your organization. Your organization refers to your current employer, while your profession refers to your occupation or vocation.

Wave 1

What is your name, if you are taking this for yourself for purposes of assigning extra-credit?

______

If you are taking this on behalf of a student so that they can earn extra-credit, what is the student's name?

Identification with the Organization

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

Organization Identity Strength

1. There is a common sense of purpose in this organization.
2. This organization has a clear and unique vision.
3. There is a strong feeling of unity in this organization.
4. This organization has a specific mission shared by its employees.

Identification with the Profession

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

Professional Identity Strength

1. There is a common sense of purpose in my profession.

2. My profession has a clear and unique vision.

3. There is a strong feeling of unity in my profession.

4. My profession has a specific mission shared by its members.

Importance of Authentic Display

1. It often makes me feel uncomfortable if I have to hide emotions that I actually feel.

2. If I need to act in a way that I do not actually feel, I often feel like I am deceiving others.

3. When I need to act in a way that does not correspond to what I really feel inside, I often feel tense and pressured.

4. It is meaningful and valuable to me to act in accordance to my thoughts, beliefs, and emotions.

Emotional Exhaustion

In general, how often do you experience the following at your job?

Scale: Never, A little of the time, Some of the time, Most of the time, All of the time

1. Being tired

2. Being "wiped out"

3. Feeling run-down

4. Feeling rejected

5. Being exhausted

Psychological Distress

How frequently in the last 30 days have you felt…

Scale: Never, A little of the time, Some of the time, Most of the time, All of the time

1. Nervous

2. Hopeless

3. Restless or fidgety

4. So depressed that nothing could cheer you up

Turnover Intentions

1. I intend to leave the organization in the next 12 months.
2. I feel strongly that I will leave the organization in the next 12 months.
3. It is likely that I will leave the organization in the next 12 months.

OCBs

OCB-I

1. I help others who have been absent
2. I help others who have heavy workloads
3. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)
4. I take time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries
5. I go out of way to help new employees
6. I take a personal interest in other employees
7. I pass along information to co-workers

OCB-O

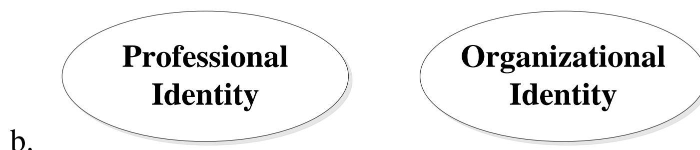
1. My attendance at work is above the norm
2. I give advance notice when I am unable to come to work
3. I take undeserved work breaks (R)
4. I spend a great deal of time spent on personal phone conversations (R)
5. I conserve and protect organizational property
6. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order

Wave 2

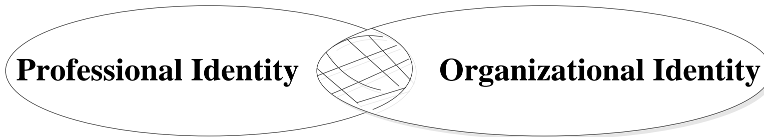
Social Identity Complexity

Look at the images below. Which image best represents the relationship between your professional identity and your organizational identity?

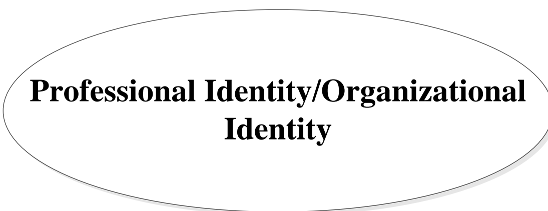
b.



b. OR



c.



d.

"I AM" Statements

I am statements – Professional

Write down five different responses to the question, "Who am I supposed to be?" Answer this section with regards to your professional identity and who you think you are supposed to be in your profession by identifying the characteristics and qualities that reflect the ideal professional in your field. This section is about your professional identity.

I am supposed to be_______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______

I am supposed to be _______

I am statements – Organizational

Write down five different responses to the question, "Who am I supposed to be?" Answer this section with regards to who you think you are supposed to be in your workplace organization by identifying the characteristics and qualities that reflect the ideal member in your organization. <u>This section is about your organizational identity</u>.

I am supposed to be_______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______

<u>OPIC</u>

Reflect upon the above statements you made about who you are supposed to be in your profession and who you are supposed to be in your workplace organization.

1. My profession and my organization stand for contradictory things.
2. The values of my profession and organization are not compatible with each other.
3. The goals of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
4. The values of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
5. I receive conflicting messages concerning what I should care about from my profession and my organization.
6. The goals of my profession and organization are often in conflict.
7. The major beliefs of my profession and organization are inconsistent.
8. I often have to choose between following professional standards and doing what is best for my organization.

9. In my organization, there is a conflict between the work standards and procedures of my organization and my profession.

10. The common characteristics of those in my profession are not well aligned with the common characteristics of those in my organization.

11. I cannot be the ideal member of my profession and be the ideal member of my organization at the same time.

12. I can fully express myself as a representative of my profession in my organization. (R)

<u>IIC</u>

Think about who you are supposed to be in your profession and your organization and any resulting conflict. Rate the extent to which you believe the below statement is true.

1 = Not Descriptive
2 = Somewhat descriptive
3 =Descriptive
4 = Very Descriptive
5 = Exactly Descriptive

Long-Standing

1. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has been going on for a long time.
2. I don't see the conflict between my professional and organizational identities going away any time soon.
3. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has not gotten better over time.
4. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is temporary. (R)

Chronically Salient

5. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is a top concern of mine at work.
6. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is regularly on my mind at work.
7. I rarely think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities at work (R)
8. A primary conflict in my work life is the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.

Pervasive

9. I think about conflicts between my professional and organizational identities even when I am not at work.
10. I sometimes have difficulty falling asleep because of thoughts about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.
11. I think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities when I don't mean to.
12. My life outside of work is not affected by the conflict between my professional and organizational identities. (R)

Demographics

What is your name? _________

What is your age? __________

What is your gender? (Male/Female)

What is your ethnicity?

How long have you been working at your current company (in years)? _______

How would you classify your position?

1. Physician
2. Nurse (CRNA, RN, LPN/LVN, CNS)
3. Techs (Radiology Tech, Ultrasound Tech, Surgical Tech)
4. Therapist (Physical Therapist, Radiation Therapist)
5. Medical Assistants
6. Pharmacists
7. Medical Lab Technologist
8. Dietician
9. Case manager/social worker
10. Accountants

11. Human Resources & Recruiting

12. Executives

13. Information Technology

14. Administrative Assistants

15. Other ________

What best describes your organization?

1. Hospital
2. Clinic
3. Other medical facility
4. Medical service provider
5. Other _____________

Which best describes your organization?

1. Private organization
2. Public organization

How many employees (approximately) are in your organization? __________

Are you in an administrative position? (Yes/No)

APPENDIX C

STUDY 3 INSTRUMENT

This research centers on your profession and your organization. Your organization refers to your current employer, while your profession refers to your occupation or vocation.

Wave 1

What is the last 5 digits of your phone number (for matching purposes across both surveys)?

______

Identification with the Organization

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

Organization Identity Strength

1. There is a common sense of purpose in this organization.
2. This organization has a clear and unique vision.
3. There is a strong feeling of unity in this organization.
4. This organization has a specific mission shared by its employees.

Identification with the Profession

1. When someone criticizes my profession, it feels like a personal insult.
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4. This profession's successes are my successes.
5. When someone praises my profession, it feels like a personal compliment.
6. If a story in the media criticized my profession I would feel embarrassed.

Professional Identity Strength

1. There is a common sense of purpose in my profession.
2. My profession has a clear and unique vision.
3. There is a strong feeling of unity in my profession.

4. My profession has a specific mission shared by its members.

Importance of Authentic Display

1. It often makes me feel uncomfortable if I have to hide emotions that I actually feel.
2. If I need to act in a way that I do not actually feel, I often feel like I am deceiving others.
3. When I need to act in a way that does not correspond to what I really feel inside, I often feel tense and pressured.
4. It is meaningful and valuable to me to act in accordance to my thoughts, beliefs, and emotions.

Emotional Exhaustion

In general, how often do you experience the following at your job?

Scale: Never, A little of the time, Some of the time, Most of the time, All of the time

1. Being tired
2. Being "wiped out"
3. Feeling run-down
4. Feeling rejected
5. Being exhausted

Psychological Distress

How frequently in the last 30 days have you felt…

Scale: Never, A little of the time, Some of the time, Most of the time, All of the time

1. Nervous
2. Hopeless
3. Restless or fidgety

4. So depressed that nothing could cheer you up

<u>Turnover Intentions</u>

1. I intend to leave the organization in the next 12 months.
2. I feel strongly that I will leave the organization in the next 12 months.
3. It is likely that I will leave the organization in the next 12 months.

<u>OCBs</u>

OCB-I

1. I help others who have been absent
2. I help others who have heavy workloads
3. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)
4. I take time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries
5. I go out of way to help new employees
6. I take a personal interest in other employees
7. I pass along information to co-workers

OCB-O

1. My attendance at work is above the norm
2. I give advance notice when I am unable to come to work
3. I take undeserved work breaks (R)
4. I spend a great deal of time spent on personal phone conversations (R)
5. I conserve and protect organizational property
6. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order

Please click the submit button below (>>) to be automatically re-directed to a survey to enter for a chance to win a $50 Amazon gift card. Your responses here will not be linked to the raffle survey.

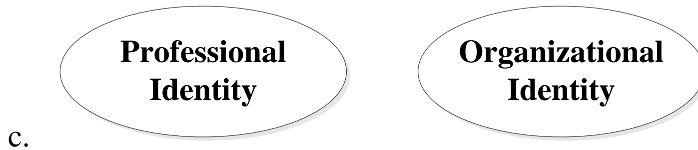
<u>Wave 2</u>

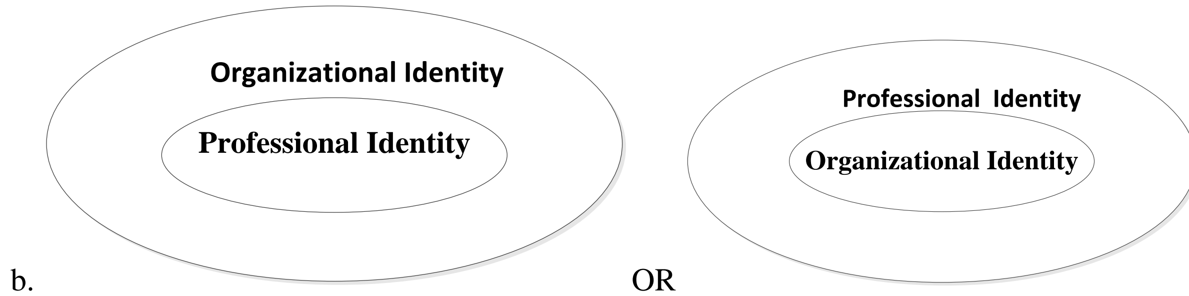
What is the last 5 digits of your phone number (for matching purposes across both surveys)?

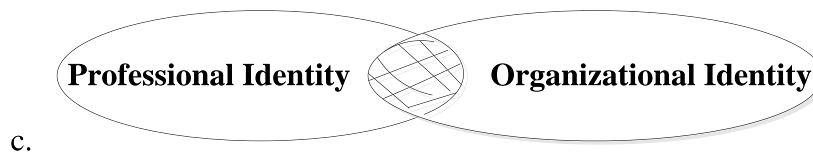
______

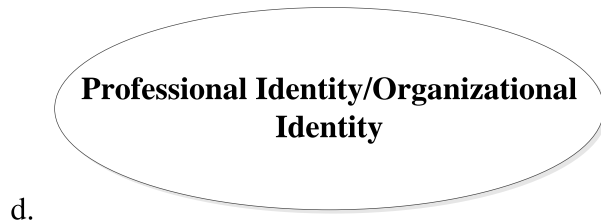
<u>Social Identity Complexity</u>

Look at the images below. Which image best represents the relationship between your professional identity and your organizational identity?

c. 

b. 

c. 

d. 

"I AM" Statements

I am statements – Professional

Write down five different responses to the question, "Who am I supposed to be?" Answer this section with regards to your professional identity and who you think you are supposed to be in your profession by identifying the characteristics and qualities that reflect the ideal professional in your field. This section is about your professional identity.

I am supposed to be_______

I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______

I am statements – Organizational

Write down five different responses to the question, "Who am I supposed to be?" Answer this section with regards to who you think you are supposed to be in your workplace organization by identifying the characteristics and qualities that reflect the ideal member in your organization. <u>This section is about your organizational identity</u>.

I am supposed to be_______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______
I am supposed to be _______

<u>OPIC</u>

Reflect upon the above statements you made about who you are supposed to be in your profession and who you are supposed to be in your workplace organization.

1. The goals of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
2. The values of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
3. I receive conflicting messages concerning what I should care about from my profession and my organization.
4. The goals of my profession and organization are often in conflict.
5. The major beliefs of my profession and organization are inconsistent.
6. I often have to choose between following professional standards and doing what is best for my organization.
7. In my organization, there is a conflict between the work standards and procedures of my organization and my profession.

8. I cannot be the ideal member of my profession and be the ideal member of my organization at the same time.

IIC

Think about who you are supposed to be in your profession and your organization and any resulting conflict. Rate the extent to which you believe the below statement is true.

Long-Standing

1. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has been going on for a long time.
2. I don't see the conflict between my professional and organizational identities going away any time soon.
3. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has not gotten better over time.

Chronically Salient

4. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is a top concern of mine at work.
5. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is regularly on my mind at work.
6. A primary conflict in my work life is the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.

Pervasive

7. I think about conflicts between my professional and organizational identities even when I am not at work.
8. I sometimes have difficulty falling asleep because of thoughts about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.
9. I think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities when I don't mean to.

Demographics

What is your age? __________

What is your gender? ____________

What is your ethnicity? _____________

How long have you been working at your current company (in years)? _______

What is your position classification? ________________

Are you in an administrative position? _________

Please click the submit button below (>>) to be automatically re-directed to a survey to enter for a chance to win a $50 Amazon gift card. Your responses here will not be linked to the raffle survey.

APPENDIX D

FINAL DEVELOPED SCALES

Organizational and Professional Identity Conflict (OPIC) Scale

Reflect upon the above statements you made about who you are supposed to be in your profession and who you are supposed to be in your workplace organization.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree

1. The goals of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
2. The values of my profession and organization are well aligned (R)
3. I receive conflicting messages concerning what I should care about from my profession and my organization.
4. The goals of my profession and organization are often in conflict.
5. The major beliefs of my profession and organization are inconsistent.
6. I often have to choose between following professional standards and doing what is best for my organization.
7. In my organization, there is a conflict between the work standards and procedures of my organization and my profession.
8. I cannot be the ideal member of my profession and be the ideal member of my organization at the same time.

Intractability of the Identity Conflict (IIC) Scale

Think about who you are supposed to be in your profession and your organization and any resulting conflict. Rate the extent to which you believe the below statement is true.

1 = Not Descriptive, 5 = Exactly Descriptive

Long-Standing

1. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has been going on for a long time.
2. I don't see the conflict between my professional and organizational identities going away any time soon.
3. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities has not gotten better over time.

Chronically Salient

4. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is a top concern of mine at work.
5. The conflict between my professional and organizational identities is regularly on my mind at work.
6. A primary conflict in my work life is the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.

Pervasive

7. I think about conflicts between my professional and organizational identities even when I am not at work.
8. I sometimes have difficulty falling asleep because of thoughts about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities.
9. I think about the conflict between my professional and organizational identities when I don't mean to.

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