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Employees’ organizational embeddedness: the role of culture

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EMPLOYEES' ORGANIZATIONAL EMBEDDEDNESS: THE ROLE OF CULTURE

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EMPLOYEES’ ORGANIZATIONAL EMBEDDEDNESS: THE ROLE OF CULTURE

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Abstract

Research has attempted to explain how to increase employee embeddedness, based on individual cultural orientation, organizational identity orientation, and person-organization fit theories, I predicted that employees’ cultural orientations and their perceptions of the organization’s identity orientation should be positively related to organizational embeddedness. The perception of organizational identity orientation should also have a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural orientation and organizational embeddedness. After a survey of 283 employees in the USA, I found empirical support for a majority of the hypotheses. The research shows that individuals’ cultural traits, reflected by individualism-collectivism, and employees’ perceived organizational identity orientation, categorized into individualistic, relational, and collectivistic, both predict the various dimensions of organizational embeddedness. However, the interaction between these two sets of cultural perceptions does not provide additional significance. Variance in each dimension in turn generates different levels of embeddedness due to the composite nature of embeddedness construct.

Key words: Organizational embeddedness, individual culture orientation, organizational identity orientation, cultural compatibility
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Encouraging commitment and engagement at work and limiting the turnover of highly skilled employees are crucial aspects of human resource management contributing to the overall success of organizations. Organizational embeddedness, the totality of forces that keep employees in their current organizations (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001), helps build this commitment and engagement at work and further reduce turnover. Based on Mitchell et al.’s (2001) framework, organizational embeddedness has been shown to increase organizational commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013) and job satisfaction (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004), and to reduce both turnover intentions and turnover behavior (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Given the purported benefits of organizational embeddedness, it is in the interest of both organizations and employees to enhance it. The primary purpose of this paper is to identify cultural factors that influence organizational embeddedness so that we can better understand how to enhance it. For example, workplace culture design accomplished through personnel selection or office space design may promote organizational embeddedness. Previous research on organizational embeddedness, especially in terms of its antecedents, calls for further investigation for the following four reasons. First, there is a lack of consideration of the effects of more enduring individual differences on embeddedness. For example, most of the antecedents identified by previous research are highly circumstantial characteristics, such as employees’ perception of contract replicability (Ng & Feldman, 2008) or socialization tactics (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013) used by organizations. However, it is likely that due to certain dispositions, some people may find it easier or harder to become embedded in organizations than others.
Second, prior studies tend to look at the embeddedness construct as an integrated whole, although Mitchell et al. (2001) stated that the framework of organizational embeddedness, which includes three dimensions, namely links, fit and sacrifice, is composite in nature. There is a lack of refined investigation of these dimensions. A recent study by Kiazad et al. (2015) shows that the three dimensions of embeddedness manifest compensatory effects on the consequence. For example, employees with a low level of fit may still be embedded in the organization because they perceive many attachments with other organization members (i.e., links). The three dimensions likely differ in strength with stronger ones compensating for weaker ones (Kiazad et al., 2015).

Third, except through meta-analysis (Jiang, Liu, McKay, & Lee, 2012), cultural influences on the formation of embeddedness have been relatively less explored in the literature, and only national culture, as opposed to individual cultural orientation, was considered in the meta-analysis. Countries where the included studies were conducted were categorized as individualistic or collectivist (as proxy) based on the cultural dimension scores developed by Hofstede (1997). This method excluded cultural variables from individuals’ or organizations’ perspectives. For example, individuals’ cultural orientations vary within countries, so there is a need to assess culture at the individual level in the embeddedness study.

Finally, previous findings tend to be either from employees’ view or organizations’, so they overlooked a possibility of an interaction between individual and situational factors. This problem is most prominent when we inspect the fit dimension. Feeling fit in the organization entails interaction between employees’ perceptions of themselves and those of the organization. Interactionist theory (Lewin, 1943; Lewin, 1951; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) asserts that neither personal characteristics nor
situational constraints determine the variance in behavioral or attitudinal variables.

Rather, it is the interaction between both personal and situational variables that accounts for the most variance in the focal construct. It is for this reason that my study focuses on both employees’ perceived fit, and a hypothesized compatibility between their cultural orientation and their perceived organizational identity orientation.

Based on the above motivations, this paper first provides a more nuanced perspective on the antecedents of organizational embeddedness by treating its dimensions as independent outcomes. Due to the composite nature of the embeddedness construct, changes in each dimension bring changes to the overall level of embeddedness. Organizational embeddedness is also investigated as a whole. Second, I apply a cultural perspective to the formation of individual dimensions of embeddedness. This is achieved by considering employees’ cultural orientation (Hofstede, 1997; Triandis, 1988 & 1995) and their organizations’ foundational culture traits conceptualized through organizational identity orientation (Brickson, 2005 & 2007). Both cultural orientation and organizational identity orientation are categorized based on individualism-collectivism. This cultural perspective also reflects a predisposition to embeddedness that was ignored in previous research. Finally, I examine the fit component through a lens of person-organization fit theory, which posits that the interaction between employees and the organization should be considered in the study of organizational outcomes, since the interaction between personal and situational factors also influences individuals’ attitude and behavior (Ansari, Baumgartel, & Sullivan, 1982; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Based on person-

1 Individualism and collectivism are used interchangeably among individual, organizational, and country levels. Individualist and collectivist are used to describe cultural orientations at the individual level; individualistic and collectivistic are used to describe people’s perception of organizational identity orientations.
organization fit theory, I hypothesize an interaction between individuals’ cultural orientations and their organizational identity orientations, and examine the influence of this interaction on the fit dimension of embeddedness and the overall embeddedness. In this way, this paper provides a more comprehensive view that covers personal, situational, and interacting variables that combine to explain employees’ organizational embeddedness.

This study makes several contributions to theory and management practice. First, antecedents identified from a cultural perspective enrich organizational embeddedness theory by recognizing those factors that are predispositions in nature, such as individuals’ cultural orientation. In addition, employees’ perceptions of the organization’s cultural traits also matter. These cultural antecedents of embeddedness provide new possibilities to further develop theory. Second, from a managerial perspective, since employees’ perceptions of the organization’s cultural traits impact embeddedness, this study can help organizations in building certain workplace culture that brings higher level of embeddedness. For example, designing tasks that encourage group work and nurturing a sense of family within the organization. Third, the importance of designing workplace culture is highlighted especially when the workplace is demographically diverse, such as multinational company subsidiaries with employees from different cultures, or companies in a country like Canada, where immigrants make up a big part of workforce. Local subsidiary employees or immigrants may have very distinct cultural traits when they first enter an environment that represents a foreign culture, so this study reminds these organizations of the cultural needs of certain employee groups.
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This chapter consists of five sections of literature review. The first section explores organizational embeddedness and outcomes established in previous literature. The second section focuses on antecedents of organizational embeddedness. Based on the previous research findings on the antecedents of organizational embeddedness, I identify a theoretical gap concerning the role of individuals’ cultural perceptions, which requires further investigation. The third section is a review on the individuals’ cultural orientation theory, primarily focusing on individualism-collectivism as a core cultural orientation. The fourth section examines organizational identity orientation theory, which provides a means to conceptualize organizations’ cultural characteristics perceived by employees. The final section reviews person-organization fit theory. Person-organization fit is a division funded on interaction theory (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987), it provides a theoretical lens to investigate the interaction between these two sets of cultural perceptions, namely employees’ cultural orientations and their organizational identity orientations. This paper examines the association between the result of this interaction and organizational embeddedness.

2.1 Employees’ Organizational Embeddedness and its Outcomes

The concept of embeddedness first appeared in the economics literature and described the extent to which economic activity is constrained by non-economic institutions (Polanyi, 1968). The impetus for this view is that the functioning of an economy cannot be understood disassociated from the social world in which it is embedded. Specific economic institutions, and ultimately the economy as a whole, should
be considered part of larger, institutional, or social structures. Non-economic institutions include religious, political, and cultural institutions, and the functioning of an economy cannot be completely understood apart from them. This theory recognizes the existence and importance of non-economic relations in which economic activities are embedded. Polanyi’s (1968) characterization of embeddedness is at a macro level of analysis that is different from the approach in this paper. As detailed next, the current paper focuses on the embeddedness at an individual level. That is, the extent to which employees are embedded in organizations.

Embeddedness theory in economics laid the foundation for the development of embeddedness theory in the organizational behavior research. “Actors do not behave or decide as atoms outside a social context. Their attempts at purposive action are instead embedded in concrete, ongoing systems of social relations” (p.487, Granovetter, 1985). Particularly in the study of the employee-organization relationship, embeddedness is characterized as a net or a web in which an employee can become “stuck”, in which the “stuck-ness” idea is similar to the notion of social networks as a constraint to economic activities (Mitchell et al., 2001). Furthermore, employees’ embeddedness refers to those key nonfinancial factors that make employees work hard and stay, or a lack of embeddedness can be a major reason that employees readily leave organizations (Mitchell et al., 2001). Another feature of organizational embeddedness that remained stable from its origin in economics is its nonfinancial characteristic. Employees may choose to stay in an organization out of a financial concern, but the extent to which they are psychologically stuck in the organization also affects their decisions. It is easy to assume that employees switch jobs if they have an opportunity that pays more, but the effect of embeddedness suggests otherwise. Nonfinancial considerations, such as social
relationships and other intangible benefits they obtain through working in an organization also encourage them to stay.

The organizational embeddedness construct has three dimensions: links, fit and sacrifice (Mitchell et al., 2001). *Links* refer to formal or informal connections of an employee with co-workers, work groups, or the entire organization. The more links an employee has in the organization, the more an employee is bound to the organization. *Fit* refers to the extent to which an employee perceives compatibility or comfort with the values and norms of the organization. Employees’ personal values, career goals, or their plan for the future should fit with the larger corporate culture and the demands of the job, such as knowledge, skills, and abilities. The better the fit, the more likely they will feel tied to the organization. Finally, *sacrifice* refers to employees’ perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving an organization. Employees take into consideration what they will lose if they decide to leave, which could be financial (i.e., a retirement plan) or non-financial (i.e., collegial work environment). The more they perceive they have to give up, the more difficult it will be for them to leave.

Organizational embeddedness theory contributes significantly to explaining turnover intentions and behavior. As stated by Mitchell et al. (2001), research on embeddedness was guided by questions such as “why do people leave” and “why do people stay”. Previously, job alternative and job attitudes (March, Simon, & Guetzkow, 1958) were used to explain why people become dissatisfied with their jobs, search for alternatives, compare those options with their current jobs, and leave if any of the alternatives are judged to be better than the current situation. Hence, job alternative and job attitude theories predict intent to leave rather than actual turnover. Later, empirical studies showed that job attitudes, such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment,
explain only a small part of the variance in turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Combined with job alternatives, attitudes and good job alternatives consistently predict turnover, but the correlations are fairly weak, as many other influential factors are ignored (Mitchell et al., 2001). These constructs were demonstrated to consistently but only moderately predict turnover in previous literature, but organizational embeddedness was shown to be more comprehensive and more predictive (Mitchell et al., 2001; Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas, 2005).

Embeddedness differs from similar attitudinal constructs, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which also have power to predict turnover or retention. The most widely used organizational commitment construct is a three-dimensional model, with affective, continuance, and normative dimensions (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment reflects an employee’s emotional attachment to the organization, but organizational embeddedness such as its fit dimension, may reflect both affective and non-affective judgments of the organization. It is not necessarily an emotional response. In terms of normative commitment, it indicates a sense of obligation. In the embeddedness construct, things such as the number of work teams or committees that don’t show relevance to obligation are simply not included in the organizational commitment construct (Mitchell et al., 2001). Another similar construct reviewed here is job satisfaction. Most of the measures of job satisfaction include attributes such as employees’ affective reactions to work environment, supervision, coworkers, and pay, which are not part of organizational embeddedness (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mitchell et al., 2001).

Since the organizational embeddedness construct was established, it has also been shown to impact many other aspects of employee-organization relationship, such as
employees’ job performance, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors. Organizational embeddedness was identified as a relational mechanism that binds new employees to an organization (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Organizations usually provide newcomer orientation, training, and other socialization resources to help them adapt to the new environment more quickly. The success of these socialization tactics is critical in supporting new employees’ transitions, performance, and commitment (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, & Truxillo, 2007). In further understanding how the socialization tactics deployed by organizations actually work on new employees, Allen et al. (2013) suggest that the extent to which newcomers develop a sense of embeddedness within the organization works as a relational mechanism between socialization tactics and new employees’ affective commitment. According to their theory, socialization tactics are mechanisms that organizations use to help newcomers make connections to others, which in turn can increase links, engender a sense of fit, and represent material and psychological benefits. These socialization tactics are positively related to embeddedness, which mediates relationships between socialization tactics and commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013).

Organizational embeddedness can be conceptualized as on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). The links, fit, and sacrifice that employees experience off their jobs can also impact the extent to which they are embedded in organizations. Therefore, Mitchell et al.’s (2001) overall specification has six dimensions: links, fit, and sacrifice associated with an individual’s organization (on-the-job) and with his or her community (off-the-job). Subsequently, on-the-job embeddedness was found to be significantly predictive of organizational citizenship behaviors and job performance, whereas off-the-job embeddedness was not. And off-the-job embeddedness was more
significantly predictive of volitional absences and voluntary turnover, whereas on-the-job embeddedness was not (Lee et al., 2004). Previous research has shown that on-the-job and off-the-job parts of organizational embeddedness do not necessarily demonstrate similar patterns of relationships with work attitudes and behaviors (Harman, Blum, Stefani, & Taho, 2009; Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007; Ng and Feldman, 2011). In the current paper, my focus is on-the-job embeddedness, because I only investigate the cultural impact on employees’ embeddedness in an organization context and individuals’ cultural orientation tend to be situation-specific, for example, an individual may be very individualist at work but quite collectivist in the extended family (Triandis, 1995). The original study (Mitchell et al., 2001) also demonstrated that off-the-job embeddedness is independent from on-the-job embeddedness. For example, an employee may love a job, but hate the city.

2.2 Antecedents of Employees’ Organizational Embeddedness

The more embedded employees are, the more positive individual and organizational outcomes can be generated. Therefore, it is important to understand how to enhance it. The underlying reasons behind its development need to be identified in order to achieve higher level of embeddedness. Ng and Feldman (2007) listed a series of possible antecedents of organizational embeddedness. Variables such as the degree of organizational socialization, employees’ investment in organization-specific skills, and number of weekly work hours, were proposed to have an effect on employees’ organizational embeddedness. Kiazad et al. (2015) recently proposed that employees’ motivation to acquire and protect valuable resources explains why they become
embedded. For employees, valued resources can cover a broad range of assets such as personal communication skills, co-worker relations, or work tools. These resources affect embeddedness if they help employees obtain valued goals, or protect against potential resource loss. From this perspective, the fit, links, and sacrifice components that make up organizational embeddedness all represent valuable resources. Employees stay in organizations to retain them because they perceive a resource loss upon leaving.

Some empirical studies have also focused on determining antecedents. For example, socialization tactics enable organizations to actively embed new employees, as do co-worker relationships (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013). Socialization tactics refer to the methods organizations use to help newcomers adapt to new environment, reduce uncertainty from joining a new organization, as well as acquire desired attitudes and knowledge, such as orientation and mentorship (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Cable & Parsons, 2001). Successful socialization is key to the transformation from outsider to a participating and effective insider (Feldman, 1976). Ng and Feldman (2008) introduced a new construct called contract replicability, which further explain why employees are embedded in organizations to varying extents. Contract here refers to the psychological contract consisting of employees’ beliefs as to what employers owe them and what they owe their employers in turn (Lambert, Edwards, & Cable, 2003). Employees form certain expectations as to the organization’s obligations and promises to them and theirs to the organization in return (Masterson & Stamper, 2003). When employees perceive this mutual expectation can be replicated elsewhere easily, they are less likely to be embedded.
2.3 The Core Individual Culture Orientation: Individualism-Collectivism

Some individuals may have certain predispositions that make them more embedded in organizations, and the predisposition examined here is cultural orientation. Individuals hold different kinds of cultural values and norms, which can be categorized into individualism or collectivism (Triandis, 1995). The individualism-collectivism construct is chosen here because all cultures must handle the issue of interpersonal relation or relationship between person and group. Prioritizing the self or others in these relations are the two basic alternatives (Greenfield, 2000). Individualism-collectivism is recognized here as the most fundamental difference among individuals (Triandis, 1995).

Individualism–collectivism as a core individual culture orientation was first introduced to organization theory by Parsons and Shils (1951), who distinguished between individuals who are oriented more towards self-interest and individuals who are oriented towards a collective rather than themselves. Self-orientation refers to a tendency for the individual or the social system to prioritize the pursuit of personal interest. Collective-orientation means the social system encourages people to consider the implications for the collective when they are pursuing personal gains. In other words, goals and interest of individuals’ or of collectives’ guide individualist or collectivist values.

The seminal work by Hofstede (1980) suggests individualism verses collectivism is an essential attribute of cultures. His focus is primarily on national cultures, with individualism-collectivism as a fundamental distinction between societies. For example, China was recognized as a typical collectivist country, while America was more on the individualism side. The study of individualism-collectivism continued to evolve, especially at the individual level. There is evidence suggesting that collectivism and
individualism vary within cultures in the form of an individual difference, and it is most commonly referred to as cultural orientation. Cultural orientation can more accurately and appropriately represent individuals’ cultural values, as compared to national cultures (Triandis, 1988, 1995). Although people are influenced by national culture to varying extents, individuals don’t necessarily share the same cultural values associated with their national culture. For example, there are people in collectivist societies who ignore group membership. People who prioritize an interdependent self-view can also be found in individualistic societies. In this case, national culture dimensions only reflect what a large proportion of the population values, and thus cannot define an individual’s characteristics. Tendencies toward individualism or collectivism exist within every individual and in every society (Triandis, 1995). In Earley’s (1989, 1993) work related to individualism-collectivism, he didn’t rely solely on national culture to explain the degree that the respondents were either individualist or collectivist. His measurement also includes individual variance within a culture, which may have an impact on the work outcome of interest (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). This is the focus of the current paper. I study individualism and collectivism within one single national culture, and thus capture only individual differences rather than national differences.

Previous research has demonstrated the enormous power of individualism and collectivism as an individual difference on many organizational outcomes. For instance, individualism and collectivism is a predictor of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Collectivistic values are linked to some OCB dimensions, such as interpersonal helping and individual initiative (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). In an experiment study, Earley (1989) found that people holding collectivist beliefs did not exhibit social loafing and they appeared to perform better in a group than working alone. Furthermore,
individualistic or collectivistic values tend to create certain types of resistance behavior, such as resistance to team work or self-management, that in turn influences employees’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Following this path, the first part of this paper focuses on individuals’ cultural orientation as an individual difference and in an organizational context. It identifies the impact of cultural orientations on another important organizational outcome, organizational embeddedness. More specifically, whether employees being more individualism or collectivism-oriented can explain the variance in the fit dimension of embeddedness, as well as the overall embeddedness.

2.4 Organizational Identity Orientation

In the study of organizational outcomes such as embeddedness, organizational characteristics should also be considered. Employees form perceptions of these characteristics and these perceptions to a certain extent guide their attitude and behavior towards the organization. In the mind of its members, organizations take on almost anthropomorphic identities separate and distinct from those of particular leaders or other individuals (Ashforth & Mael, 1996). At the individual level, employees’ perceptions of the organization may have a direct impact on their attitude and behavior. For example, if employees perceive that the organization encourages group work, they would be more motivated to build relations with colleagues. This paper focuses on the perceived organizational features conceptualized by organizational identity orientation theory (Brickson, 2005). Organizational identity orientation refers to the nature of assumed relations between an organization and its external and internal stakeholders perceived by
organization members (Brickson, 2005). Stakeholders are defined as entities that affect
and are affected by the organization (Freeman, 1984). These entities include suppliers and
customers, as well as internal stakeholders, namely employees.

Brickson (2005) established organizational identity orientation theory in which
employees may ascribe three distinct loci of self-definition to the organization, namely
individualistic, relational, and collectivistic. Individualistic orientation refers to a
members’ view of the organization as a separate and distinct entity characterized by its
own distinguishable traits, and the organization’s emphasis is perceived to be maximizing
its own interest. If members view the organization as being collectivistic-oriented, it
means members perceive the organization as part of a larger collective and as
characterized by the traits that connect it to a larger whole. The emphasis of the
organization is perceived to be the interest of larger collectives in this case. Members
perceiving an organization as having a relational identity orientation view it as having
certain traits that connect it dyadically to particular stakeholders, and perceive the
organization’s focus is on maintaining these relationships. Collectivistic and relational
orientations both emphasize relations with other entities. The difference is that the
subjects of relations are either other specific stakeholders, such as suppliers and buyers,
or larger collectives, such as a community in which the organization operates (Brickson,
2007).

Organizational identity orientation is conceptualized in my study as a reflection of
certain organizational culture characteristics, due to the following reasons. First, it is
relevant to the profound cultural assumptions about the independent or interdependent
nature of human relations (Schein, 2010; Schwartz, 1992). In other words, organizational
identity orientation depicts organizations’ traits in terms of relationship building.
Reflected in the definition of each organizational identity orientation, members ascribe individualistic, relational, and collectivistic self-definitions to their organization based on how the organization manages internal and external relations.

Second, compared with other ways of conceptualizing organizations’ cultural characteristics, a cognitive-based concept is more appropriate for the purpose of my study. In the current study, I intend to clarify how employees’ perceptions of their organization influence certain organizational outcomes, such as organizational embeddedness. According to Brickson’s pioneer study on organizational identity orientation, this concept is distinct from culture theories such as organizational culture, because it is cognitive in definition. Organizational identity orientation is how members perceive the organization to be, rather than being an objective concept defining what the organization is like. As stated by Basu and Palazzo (2008), in forming perceptions of their organizations, an essential part of the process is cognitive, which implies thinking about the organization’s relationships with its stakeholders and with the broader world.

Brickson’s (2005) study on organizational identity orientation also shows a high correlation between the perceived external relations and internal relations. In the eyes of employees, organizations tend to treat external and internal stakeholders (employees themselves) in a very similar way. Hence, organizational identity orientation provides a theoretical tool to investigate employees’ desire or motivation to form links in or with the organization. From this starting point, this paper then looks into the influence of organizational identity orientation on the level of embeddedness.
2.5 Person-organization Fit as a Theoretical Lens

Grounded in the interactionist theory of behavior, person-organization fit refers to the interaction between organization members and a working environment, which generates a degree of fit or match between them (Lewin, 1943; Lewin, 1951; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Person-organization fit is a multidimensional construct that can be categorized into complementary and supplementary types of fit. Complementary fit includes two subcategories, namely Demands-Abilities fit and Needs-Supplies fit. Supplementary fit refers to value congruence (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Supplementary person-organization fit occurs when individuals supplement, embellish, or possess values or characteristics that are similar to the values that they perceive the organization also holds. This is generally called value congruence in the literature. Complementary person-organization fit occurs when an individual can “make whole” the organization, or add to it what is missing. It has a further distinction between needs-supplies and demands-abilities. Needs-supplies fit occurs when an organization satisfies an individual’s needs or desires. In contrast, demands-abilities fit occurs when an individual has the abilities required by organizational demands. Cable and DeRue (2002) validated this categorization by empirically demonstrating they are all valid components and are distinct from each other.

Prior research on person-organization fit has looked into a variety of values and assessed the congruence between those individual and organizational values, especially supplementary fit. Examples include paternalism, in which employees or organizations agree that people in positions of authority can restrict the freedom or responsibilities of their subordinates (Lincoln, Hanada, & Olson, 1981), innovation, and being achievement oriented or team oriented (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). These detailed findings
on different values are especially helpful for the development of value congruence, because we now know when and to what extent individuals feel similar to their organizations based on various value sets held by both individuals and the organization.

Two shortcomings with prior studies on person-organization fit in terms of values have emerged. First is a lack of systematic classification of these values, and secondly, complementary fit is treated as subordinate in importance to supplementary fit. There are many criteria to classify values, and cultural perspective is one of them (Schwartz, 1990), such as the core culture dimension, individualism-collectivism. Schwartz (1990) categorized some value types into individual types, collective types, and types that reflect both, based on motivational concern. Motivational concern here refers to whose interest these values serve, the person itself, the interests of others, or the interests of certain collectives to whom the person belongs. To name a few of these value types, collective types include tradition, restrictive conformity, and the interpersonal subset of pro-social values, such as forgiving, helpful, loving, and honest. Individual types include self-direction, stimulation, and achievement, etc., such as being independent, ambitious, and having a sense of accomplishment. Maturity is a type that reflects both, more nuanced description includes wisdom, broadminded, and appreciation, values that serve the interest of both individual and collective interests, see Table 2.1. Following this path, instead of examining specific values, the current study investigates person-organization fit through two basic value orientations, individualistic and collectivistic, which serves as a criterion to classify values.

The reason to categorize individuals’ values into collectivist or individualist orientations is twofold. First, person-organization fit is highly culture-specific (Edwards, 2005). To achieve person-organization fit, it requires employees to form perceptions
about organizational values, supplies, and demands, and compare these perceptions with their own values, needs, and abilities. Thus, people with different cultural backgrounds tend to perceive person-organization fit very differently. After all, cultural values can profoundly affect the attitudes and behavior of individuals (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1994), and the effects an organization has on its employees are culture-specific as well. For example, collectivists are more likely to value paternalistic organization behavior (Lincoln et al., 1981). Second, by applying this cultural perspective, complementary fit can also be covered by the classification, because people perceive their abilities and need differently according to their cultural orientation. Meanwhile, in the employees’ perceptions, organizations with different orientations tend to have distinct demands or needs too. By classifying employees’ perceptions of organizations based on individualistic, relational, and collectivistic organizational orientations, both complementary and supplementary types of fit can be addressed. Through this classification, see Table 2.1, this research tries to demonstrate that the interaction between individuals’ cultural orientation and organizational identity orientation represents a certain amount of person-organization fit, and in turn it relates to the overall fit covered by organizational embeddedness.
Table 2.1: Classification of values based on Individualism-Collectivism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Collectivism</th>
<th>Individualism</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>Hierarchy is fair</td>
<td>Less tolerance for hierarchy</td>
<td>(Chuang, Shen, &amp; Judge, 2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping others</td>
<td>More willing to help other in-group members</td>
<td>Less inclined to help unless benefiting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternalism</td>
<td>More positive feelings towards paternalistic</td>
<td>More negative feelings towards paternalistic</td>
<td>(García-Cabrera &amp; García-Soto, 2012; Lincoln</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>management styles</td>
<td>management styles</td>
<td>et al., 1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfare of others</td>
<td>Forgiving, loving, smooth in-group relations</td>
<td>Equality, social justice, wider social</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action restraints</td>
<td>Act more according to social expectations</td>
<td>Independent thought and action</td>
<td>(Schwartz, 1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradition or</td>
<td>More respect and acceptance of the customs</td>
<td>More respect and acceptance of excitement,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>and ideas that traditional culture or religion</td>
<td>novel and challenging life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Collectively oriented, such as extended family</td>
<td>Individually oriented</td>
<td>(Triandis, 1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation</td>
<td>well-being</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Long-term relation, loyalty valued and reciprocated</td>
<td>Rational analysis of the costs and benefits</td>
<td>(Triandis, 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>building</td>
<td></td>
<td>of maintaining the relation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abilities (Self-</td>
<td>Realistic</td>
<td>Flattering</td>
<td>(Triandis, 1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perception)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs (Career</td>
<td>Long-term self development</td>
<td>Short-term financial benefit</td>
<td>(Chuang, Hsu, Wang, &amp; Judge, 2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>priority)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Some values included in the table were investigated at country level in the original studies, for example, Schwartz’s universal value types (1990). Country-level cultural comparison can provide indirect evidence to support the prediction of individual difference (Ng & Feldman, 2012)

3 Chuang and colleagues’ (2015) finding on career priority is explained by cultural values rooted in Confucianism. Chinese employees were shown to care more about their long-term self-development compared with individualistic counterparts.
Chapter 3: Theoretical Model and Hypothesis Development

This section consists of three parts that hypothesize how employees’ cultural orientations and the perception of their organization’s identity orientations are related to organizational embeddedness and its individual dimensions. The first and second parts examine how cultural orientation and organizational identity orientation are respectively related to the links and sacrifice dimensions of embeddedness. The third part explains the interaction between the two sets of orientations, and presents the hypothesized relationship between the result of this interaction and overall organizational embeddedness, as well as its fit dimension.

3.1 Culture Orientations, Organizational Identity Orientation, and Links

3.1.1 Culture Orientations and Links

High levels of organizational embeddedness are likely to benefit both organizations and employees, so it would be beneficial to know if employees’ cultural orientations impact the degree of embeddedness within the organization. Compared with some contextual causes established in previous literature, such as socialization tactics used by organizations (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013) or employees’ weekly work hours (Ng, 2007), an explanation based on culture orientation connects organizational embeddedness with certain individual traits. Some individuals may find it easier to achieve a high level of embeddedness, because they detect and respond to embedding cues more actively.

Jiang and colleagues (2012) found that people in collectivist countries respond more actively to embeddedness components, such as links and fit, than those in
individualistic countries. This is primarily because workers from collectivist countries devote more time and effort to establishing and maintaining harmonious relationships with coworkers and others in their communities (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). However, the observation and analysis of cultural dimensions in the study were made at the country level (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001), instead of taking individualism-collectivism as an individual difference construct. That is, country in which data were collected was used as a proxy for individuals’ cultural orientation. For example, Chinese people tend to be more collectivist and American people more individualistic, and so these were treated as collectivist and individualist cultures, respectively. Although it shows the influence of individualism and collectivism, this approach lacks the power of illustrating how individuals’ cultural values affect their embeddedness. This paper empirically examines the impact of individuals’ cultural values on embeddedness by assessing organizational embeddedness while examining individuals’ cultural orientations directly. Cultural orientation is conceptualized, analyzed, and measured at the individual level. Potential interference from national culture is also considered and managed by conducting my research in one single culture. To be more specific, this paper investigates whether individuals’ cultural orientations, being more individualistic or collectivist, explains the variance in the links-building outcome and the perception of sacrifice by leaving organizations, which in turn lead to various levels of organizational embeddedness.

Based on Triandis’s (1988, 1995) work on culture and Markus and Kitayama’s (1991) article on the independent and interdependent self, individualist and collectivist orientations can be distinguished in the following ways in terms of relation building. This focus on relationship building is also in line with Earley and Gibson’s (1998, p. 265) statement, it is “The tension between an inherent desire for companionship and personal
identity that forms the basis for one of the most highly researched cultural and personal
dimensions in the field of management. This dichotomy, (is) commonly called
individualism-collectivism”. Table 2.1 shows that relationship building is a major theme
of value and /or perception differences between individualism and collectivism
orientations. Table 3.1 presents the differences in a detailed way regarding relationship
building. These are discussed below.

The first difference is that individualists perceive an inherent separateness of
distinct persons. They strive to achieve independence from others, and in doing so
construct themselves as individuals whose behavior is made meaningful primarily by
reference to their own thoughts and actions, rather than by reference to the thoughts and
actions of others. In contrast, collectivists value the connectedness of human beings to
each other, and attempt to achieve interdependence between themselves and others. They
tend to see themselves as part of a social relationship and recognize that their behavior is
defined to a certain extent by what others in their relationships perceive and also has
implications on others. Individualists tend to establish relations only when they see the
relations can bring them personal gains, while collectivists see relationship building more
necessary and spontaneous.

The second difference addresses relations with collectives. Collectivists value
group membership much more than individualists, and collectivism was even defined as a
strategy to maximize interdependent ties between self and others by Greenfield (2000).
Individualists associate more importance with personal interests than the needs or goals of
groups. A collective may be based on a relationship that forms as a result of shared values
and norms, or individuals bound together by common goals, interests, and mutual
commitments (Earley & Gibson, 1998). Individualists look after themselves and tend to
ignore collective interest if that conflicts with personal desire. In contrast, collectivists tend to believe that the demands and interests of groups take precedence over the desires and needs of individuals. Collectivists look out for the well-being of the collectives to which they belong, even if such actions sometimes require that personal interests be disregarded (Wagner & Moch, 1986). Early (1989) also explained collectivists’ strong tendencies to prefer to work in groups, and they tend to subordinate their individual goals to group goals (Jung & Avolio, 1999).

The above arguments show that the individual differences described by individualism-collectivism should explain individuals’ links building activities in an organization, hence the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1a:** Employees’ collectivist culture orientation is positively related to the links dimension of organizational embeddedness.

**Table 3.1:** Individualism–collectivism differences in terms of relationship building

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relation Type</th>
<th>Collectivism Oriented</th>
<th>Individualism Oriented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Connectedness of human beings</td>
<td>Separateness of distinct persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achieve interdependence</td>
<td>Achieve independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behaviour defined by relations</td>
<td>Behaviour defined by own thoughts and actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Collectives</td>
<td>More importance to group interest</td>
<td>Personal desire comes first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Higher value to group membership</td>
<td>Lower value to group membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preference to work in groups</td>
<td>Less preference to work in groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Triandis (1988, 1995); Markus & Kitayama (1991)
### 3.1.2 Organizational Identity Orientations and Links

Organizational identity orientation defines the major organizational principles that employees perceive to be guiding stakeholder relationship building with both external and internal stakeholders. It is cognitive in definition and refers to purely members’ association between the organization and its stakeholders, either internal or external (Brickson, 2005). Every organization is like a mini society in which employees form relations with other members or with the organization as a collective. In the process of doing so, employees form perceptions about the organization’s expectations as to relationship building. For example, some companies’ task design may be highly geared towards group work, but this is not necessarily true with other companies, and this difference may generate very distinct employee relationship patterns. Employees take cues from organizations, such as task design, reward systems, and even workspace setting, to form ideas about organizational identity orientation, and act accordingly. Based on organizational identity orientation theory (Brickson, 2000, 2005, 2007), individualistic, relational, or collectivistic identity orientations engender distinct patterns of relations between organizations and their external and internal stakeholders.

Brickson’s (2005, p. 593) studies also show “high correlations between external and internal identity orientations within each industry”. In other words, members tend to view the relation between organization and external parties and the relation between organization and themselves as being similar. This significant degree of convergence makes it possible for my study to focus on the impact of organizational identity orientation on employees’ relationship building within or with an organization. Different identity orientations to a certain extent represent different methods used by organizations to guide employee relationship building. An organization with individualistic orientation
is perceived to be more inclined to rewarding individual achievements internally and is characterized as driving to benefit maximally from employees. Relational organizations are more likely to meet employees’ need for dyadic understanding, interpersonal help, and meaningful relationships. Collectivistic organizations are perceived to be better at meeting employees’ need for belonging, and they emphasize fostering an internal sense of community (Brickson, 2005). In organizations perceived to be individualistic, the employee-organization relationship is calculative and tasks are given priority over relationships (Parkes, Bochner, & Schneider, 2001). Competition is valued and employees are motivated by individual achievement. By contrast, in relational or collectivist organizations, relationships are given priority, either with other members or with the collective. Conformity to group norms, cooperation, and group harmony are considered important. Employees have more socially oriented motivations. These features suggest that organizational identity orientation defines the social context of an organization in which employees build relationships with each other and with the organization as a collective.

When an organization encourages employees to prioritize self interest (members perceive an organization to be high on individualistic identity orientation), it indicates a much smaller likelihood that the members will develop links with coworkers or with the organization. Under this circumstance, employees would be more driven to obtain personal rewards, instead of investing resources in building relations. Conversely, in relational or collectivistic organizations, relations with either other organization members or with the collective are emphasized. It would be easier for employees to forge links in relational and collectivistic organizations, because that’s also the organizations’ emphasis. It shows that with regards to the links dimension of organizational embeddedness,
organizational identity orientation influences employees’ desire and ability to build links. Here, I categorize relational and collectivistic organizations together due to the fact that they both reflect the social side of identity orientation (Brickson, 2007). Although relational identity orientation and collectivistic orientation are distinct, they are argued to have similar effects on embeddedness, because the links component of embeddedness covers an individual’s relationships with coworkers and with the entire organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Hence the following hypotheses are presented.

**Hypothesis 1b:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ relational identity orientation is positively related to the links dimension of organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 1c:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ collectivistic identity orientation is positively related to the links dimension of organizational embeddedness.

### 3.2 Culture Orientations, Organizational Identity Orientations, and Sacrifice

The sacrifice component of organizational embeddedness refers to the anticipated material and psychological losses if an employee were to leave their organization (Mitchell et al, 2001). Material losses include loss of salary, use of an office, retirement plans and other benefits. Psychological losses contain less visible but important potential sacrifices, such as lost opportunities for job stability and advancement (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, &Gupta, 1998). Psychological sacrifice is also shown to be highly correlated with links and fit dimensions (Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas, 2005; Mallol et al., 2007). In other words, psychological sacrifice is in large part made up with the loss of links within
or beyond organizations perceived by employees. For example, in many industries, such as trading, personal banking, etc., clients are seen as important resources. Employees may choose to stay or leave in order to prevent the loss of the client resources or to gain more. The same type of motivation may also come internally, such as solid relations with coworkers. One of the sacrifice measure items is that “I feel that people at work respect me a great deal”, which shows that the loss of links within the organization makes up the perceived sacrifice. It is reasonable to expect that the more links employees have internally or externally, the more sacrifice they would perceive in leaving the organization.

Hence the following three hypotheses are presented:

**Hypothesis 2a:** Employees’ collectivist culture orientation is positively related to the sacrifice dimension of organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 2b:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ relational identity orientation is positively related to the sacrifice dimension of organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 2c:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ collectivistic identity orientation is positively related to the sacrifice dimension of organizational embeddedness.

### 3.3 Cultural Interactions, Fit, and Organizational Embeddedness

#### 3.3.1 Interactions between two sets of Orientations

Among organizations’ characteristics, some cultural aspects that are relevant to relationship building are very central in importance, which provides a rationale for
categorizing them into individualistic, relational, and collectivistic orientations. Relational and collectivistic orientations are theorized together in the current study, because they both represent the social side of organizational identity orientation, namely interpersonal relations and relations with collectives. The links dimension of the embeddedness framework covers both. Previous literature suggests that the commonly assumed individualistic or collectivistic culture is not yet firmly established in the organizational context, because it is not salient enough to differentiate organizations (Earley & Gibson, 1998; Parkes et al., 2001). However, in the current paper, I do not attempt to differentiate organizations. Rather, I am differentiating individual perceptions about their organizations. Individualistic, relational, or collectivistic orientation only reflects each single employee’s perceptions in terms of the organization’s certain cultural characteristics related to relationship building. Similar to individuals’ culture orientation, this categorization is enough to differentiate individuals’ perceptions.

In the discussion of previous hypotheses, individuals with individualistic or collectivist orientations show different patterns of relationship building and perceptions of sacrifice, so do individuals who perceive their organizations to be individualistic, relational, or collectivistic. It is reasonable to believe these two sets of orientations have a joint effect on embeddedness components, especially on the fit dimension, as well as the overall embeddedness due to its composite nature, when two sets of orientations interact with each other. Employees perceive organizations as being individualistic, relational, or collectivistic (Brickson, 2005); meanwhile, employees have individualism-collectivism orientated self-perceptions. An individual-level cognitive comparison between the two sets of perceptions (Foreman & Whetten, 2002) generates a pattern with four scenarios. The result of this interaction is as follows, presented as four scenarios: first, a more
individualism oriented employee working in an individualistic organization (I×I); second, a collectivist working in a relational or collectivist organization (C×C), third, an individualist working in a collectivist organization (I×C); forth, a collectivist working in an individualistic organization (C×I), see figure 3.1 below.

**Figure 3.1:** Four interaction scenarios between cultural orientations and organizational identity orientations

### 3.3.2 Cultural Interactions and Fit

The fit component of organizational embeddedness is defined as an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization (Mitchell, et al., 2001). An employee’s personal values and career goals should fit with the larger corporate culture and the demands of his or her job. The definition of fit captures the extent of integration between employees and their organization, in terms of values, beliefs and norms. In order to achieve fit, both sides matter. Interactionist theory (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) asserts that neither personal characteristics nor situational constraints determine the variance in behavioural or attitudinal variables. Rather, it is the interaction between both personal and situation variables that accounts for the most variance in the focal construct. Hence, I study the fit dimension of embeddedness by capturing the interaction between...
employees’ culture orientations and the perceived identity orientations of their organization.

The theoretical lens I use here to investigate cultural interactions and fit is person-organization fit, which indicates the fit between employees and organizations can be either complementary or supplementary (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Supplementary fit refers to individuals’ possession of values similar to those of the organization. Complementary fit occurs when individuals have something that is missing from the organization, or what the individual possesses can add value to the organization. A theoretical lens is needed here, because the definition of fit in the embeddedness concept is rather broad. “Compatibility” or “comfort” can cover as broadly as value congruence between an employee and the organization, or simply a fact that an employee is given the chance to utilize his or her skills. A more rigorously defined fit concept is helpful in the investigation. Person-organization fit theory provides an opportunity to examine the fit dimension of organizational embeddedness in a comprehensive but well-structured way. As presented in the literature review section, through categorizing the value types under the umbrella of person-organization fit theory based on individualism-collectivism, it works as a theoretical lens to bridge the fit dimension of embeddedness and the fit generated by the interaction between employees’ cultural orientations and the perceptions of their organizations’ identity orientations.

As described previously, four scenarios are generated by the interaction between culture orientations and organizational identity orientations. According to the definition of supplementary and complementary types of fit, all four scenarios generated by the interactions between cultural orientations and organizational identity orientations predict certain amount of fit between employees and organizations. When employees with
individualistic orientations perceive their organizations to be individualistic too, or when employees with collectivistic orientations perceive their organizations to be relational or collectivistic, the concept of supplementary fit applies. Employees and organizations are “similar” to each other. On the contrary, when employees and organizations don’t share the same set of orientations, complementary fit may occur, because they “complement” the characteristics of each other.

Person-organization fit theory does not differentiate the level of fit between supplementary and complementary fit. However, in my current study, I×I and C×C scenarios may predict a larger degree of fit for the following reasons. First, complementary fit is further categorized into demand–ability fit and need–supply fit. Both of the categorizations emphasize employees’ abilities, talent, and skill sets, instead of their values or cultural orientations. On the organizational side, both categorizations emphasize organizations’ physical need or resources available for their employees, rather than those more intangible characteristics perceived by organizations, such as identity orientations. Second, the key of complementary fit is “making whole”. When employees possess certain skill sets that organizations are in need of, compatibility emerges immediately. When skill sets here are replaced by certain culture orientations, even though organizations show an opposite type of orientation, the level of complementarity produced may be very low. Finally, according to the theory of “structure of habit” by Triandis (1988; 1995), people with certain cultural orientations, such as individualism or collectivism, are most comfortable doing what that orientation implies. In other words, when they are in a situation they perceive to be inconsistent with what they are used to, for example, I×C or C×I, it requires hard cognitive work to override their own orientation.
That is, people must first suppress their individualist /collectivist tendencies in situations that require collectivist/individualist behaviors, and people often avoid such hard work.

In I×I and C×C scenarios, to further differentiate, I look deeper into what different cultural orientations or organizational identity orientations entail. First, collectivists define the “self” primarily through relations to others. Among these relations, the importance of family is stressed by collectivists, but they also involve the development of positive relations with friends, coworkers, and supervisors (Chuang et al., 2015). This means collectivists tend to be less affected by a working environment that does not encourage relationship building, because they have meaningful relationships outside the workplace. On the contrary, in the I×C situation, coworkers attempting to build relationships, and company policy encouraging this, may make individualists uncomfortable. To individualists, maintaining relationships for non-instrumental purposes is cumbersome, so relations expected by a collectivistic organization may be unwanted. For example, imagine an American employee in a spot where his or her boss tries to set up a date for him or her, which is regarded common in Japan. Further evidence for this also lies in their different attitudes towards work-family relationships. It has been found that Chinese employees (proxy of collectivist individuals) tend to assign higher priority to work over family, as they do not show withdrawal intentions when their job interferes with family activities and time (Wang, Lawler, Walumbwa, & Shi, 2004). Furthermore, they are likely to view sacrificing family time for work as a short-term cost in order to gain long-term benefits (Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000), such as to enhance their families’ wellbeing (Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999) or personal career development. Individualists don’t necessarily have the same attitude towards the work-family relationship. An example is when a collectivistic organization requires employees to
invest more time socializing with coworkers. Individualism-oriented employees may think it as a violation of their private time that can be otherwise allocated for their family.

Finally, in Chuang and colleagues’ (2015) qualitative study, they identified a “cultivation” theme, which means collectivists care more about personal development. Person-organization fit occurs for them when they believe they are in a process of learning or gaining novel experience to reach a positive personal transformation. It suggests that collectivists are more likely to put up with an organization if they perceive benefits to their long-term self-development through learning opportunities. Individualists, on the other hand would focus more on the negative work environment in the present, and be more inclined to seek a different context. Based on the above points, I argue that C×I scenario predicts more cultural congruence than I×C scenario.

The above suggests that employees who are more collectivism oriented tend to be more adaptable than those that are more individualist, so it is reasonable to believe that when collectivism oriented employees perceive the organization to be relational or collectivistic (C×C scenario), they tend to experience higher level of fit. Conversely, people with a highly individualist orientation do not feel as constrained by group demands or norms in deciding how to allocate their time and efforts (Mortazavi, Pedhiwala, Shafiro, & Hammer, 2009). This can also be explained by the previous findings that, in individualistic societies, lifestyle or quality-of-life is usually given priority. On the contrary, the value of financial survival is usually prevalent in collectivist societies (Hofstede, 2001). Hence, I argue that, overall, collectivism oriented employees are likely to perceive more fit when the organization’s cultural characteristics are perceived to be in line with their own.
Based on the four individual-organization combinations of cultural orientations, following hypothesis is presented. Figure 3.2 provides an overview of the hypotheses on the three dimensions of organizational embeddedness:

**Hypothesis 3:** *Employees’ perception of their organizations’ identity orientation moderates the relationship between the collectivist cultural orientation and the level of fit, such that the relationship becomes stronger when the employees perceive their organization to be relational or collectivistic.*

![Diagram of Hypotheses on Links, Fit, and Sacrifice](image)

**Figure 3.2:** Overview of the Hypotheses on Links, Fit, and Sacrifice

### 3.3.3 Cultural Interactions and Organizational Embeddedness

So far, the current paper has focused on all three components of organizational embeddedness and conceptualized multiple relationships between the components and individuals’ culture orientation, perceived organizational identity orientation, and the interaction in between. Employees’ collectivist orientation is hypothesized to positively correlate with both links and sacrifice. Organizations’ relational or collectivistic identity orientation also positively relates to both links and sacrifice. As to the fit dimension,
collectivist orientation and collectivistic organizational identity orientation are also hypothesized to increase fit. These increases in links, sacrifice, and fit are likely to bring an overall increase of organizational embeddedness, because previous studies have shown that organizational embeddedness is composite in nature (Mitchell et al., 2001; Kiazad et al., 2015). Changes in all three components should therefore bring changes to the overall construct. Hence the following hypotheses, and figure 3.3 provides an overview of these hypotheses on the overall organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 4a:** Employee’s collectivist culture orientation is positively related to organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 4b:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ relational identity orientation is positively related to organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 4c:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ collectivistic identity orientation is positively related to organizational embeddedness.

**Hypothesis 4d:** Employees’ perception of their organizations’ identity orientation moderates the relationship between the collectivist cultural orientation and the level of overall embeddedness, such that the relationship becomes stronger when the employees perceive their organization to be relational or collectivistic.
Figure 3.3: Overview of the Hypotheses on the Overall Embeddedness
Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Overview and Samples

One cross-sectional independent study was conducted, and the data for this study was collected by means of a questionnaire survey. Participants were recruited through Amazon.com’s Mechanical Turk, which is a crowdsourcing platform used to recruit workers or study participants. This web service allows researchers to predefine criteria of participants. This data collection method is gaining popularity with many researchers (Chandler, Mueller, & Paolacci, 2014). Mechanical Turk offers the advantage of sampling qualified participants from a wide range of organizations in a short time period (Mason & Suri, 2012). Research has shown that Mechanical Turk provides representative samples of the American population (Ross, Irani, Silberman, Zaldivar, & Tomlinson, 2010).

Samples for this study should be made up with organization members who are employed full time, within one country, and have English as their first language. Part-time employment creates difficulties for measuring organizational identity orientation, because part-time employees usually have fewer chances to interact with other organization members or spend less time in the organization. Participants within the USA fulfill the objective of conducting the research within one single culture, which minimizes the interference from national cultures. Finally, English as the first language avoids the error caused by misunderstanding the questionnaire. I posted a Human Intelligence Task (HIT) in exchange for a wage of $1.00 per HIT. Employees who meet the predefined criteria can view the HIT and then decide if they will complete the task. Once the task is complete, the participant is paid by Mechanical Turk, which in turn charges the
researchers. The researcher can choose if to accept or reject an uncompleted HIT. The HIT was posted for approximately two weeks, and the number of participants was assessed during the time period to see if it needed to be posted longer and whether compensation needed to be increased. It was closed after sufficient responses were collected.

4.2 Measures of Dependent and Independent Variables

The survey questionnaire was administered electronically using Qualtrics. A brief description of the measures used in this study is listed in Table 4.1. Additional detail and rationale for the selection of these measures are provided below.

*Organizational embeddedness:* To assess employees’ organizational embeddedness, I use Mitchell et al.’s (2001) embeddedness scale. This scale has separate items for links, fit, and sacrifice dimensions, and on- or off-the-job categorizations for each dimension. In the current study, only on-the-job items are used, and its 3 individual dimensions are the dependent variables in hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. In a study of the effect of embeddedness on other organizational outcomes (Lee et al., 2004), findings are that on-the-job and off-the-job embeddednesses predict different organizational outcomes. Furthermore, since embeddedness is the dependent variable, and the construct is composite in nature, on-the-job items are sufficient for the purposes of this study. Although a global measure of embeddedness exists (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007; Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2011), there is no conclusion regarding which measure is better. The research purpose in a specific study may determine if the composite or the global measure is more appropriate (Zhang et al., 2012). Since the
research purpose of my study is to investigate links, fit, and sacrifice separately, the composite measure is more appropriate.

Mitchell and colleagues (2001) created an averaged composite variable for each dimension, and each dimension has three to ten items. Every dimension was analyzed and correlated with the hypothesized antecedents independently in the current study. Kiazad and colleagues (2015) also further verified the composite nature of organizational embeddedness scale. In their study, links, fit, and sacrifice were demonstrated to be compensatory with each other.

Mitchell et al.’s (2001) organizational embeddedness scale includes 26 items in total. For the fit dimension, there are 9 questions, question 29 to 37 in the appendix, and 10 for the sacrifice dimension, question 38 to 47 in the appendix. Both are in the format of 7-point Likert scale. For example, “I feel like a good match for this company” and “The prospects for continuing employment with this organization are excellent”. For the links dimension, there are 7 brief answer questions, question 71 to 77 in the appendix. An example is, “How many coworkers do you interact with regularly”. The scale and items used are included in Appendix 1.

**Individual culture orientation**: I used the scale of individuals’ culture orientation established by Triandis (1995). This scale has 28 items in total and is designed in a 7-point Likert scale format. Participants’ responses show them high or low on a continuum from individualism orientation to collectivism orientation. Although the scale includes questions measuring the horizontal versus vertical aspects of individualism-collectivism, as well as the items measuring power distance (horizontal aspect emphasizes that people should be similar on most attributes, especially status; vertical aspect refers to an acceptance of inequality, hierarchy is recognized) (Triandis, 1995), in my theorization,
this sub-dimension of individualism-collectivism and the power distance dimension of culture don’t come into play. Hence, after the analysis on the construct validity, the eight items (highlighted with * in the appendix) reflecting respondents’ individualistic or collectivistic orientation were included. A sample item of the scale is “My personal identity independent from others is very important to me”. Following Triandis’s recommendation (1995), I standardized each variable and added the standard scores to obtain a total collectivism score. In this way, the measure was used as a continuous variable measure of individualism- collectivism. Conceptually, an individual may be scored high on both individualism and collectivism, but that usually associated with different contexts (Triandis, 1995). The measure used in the current study is meant to have a general application, contextual influence is not considered.

Organizational identity orientation: I used Brickson’s (2005) identity orientation measures. This measure contains primarily qualitative items, and this qualitative part methodologically supports the theoretical extension of the identity orientation to represent broader cultural traits of the organization perceived by employees. For example, the first question of the measure asks employees to list ten central, distinctive, and enduring qualities of the organization.

The measure has five parts in total, including Ten Statements Test (TST) (Kuhn & McPortland, 1954), Troubling Event questions (Gabriel & Gardner, 1999), Organization as a Person question (Ashforth & Mael, 1996; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), Accurate Motto question (Albert & Whetten, 1985), and the Relational, Individual, Collective Self-Aspects Scale (RIC) (Kashima & Hardie, 2000). The first four parts are all qualitative questions for which respondents answer with brief answers. For example, the Organization as a Person question asks respondents “If your company were a person,
describe him or her”. The RIC part includes three multiple-choice questions and one qualitative clarification for each quantitative selection. Details see Appendix 1.

4.3 Control Variables

Relevant demographic variables such as age, gender, educational level, are included as control variables. On the organization side, size of the organization evaluated by the number of employees, company type by whether the organization is local or multinational, and industry, are also included.

First, employee demographic variables, such as age, gender, educational level, and social desirability are included as control variables in order to have the confidence that effects shown on organizational embeddedness are not drawn from employee’s life experiences, social categories, or career positions. For example, age may be related to career stage (Feldman, 1989). People’s age and gender may also affect the likelihood of them getting embedded in organizations. It is also plausible to expect that people may give some answers, such as “I feel good about my professional growth and development”, due to the influence from social desirability. Hence, these variables were controlled in the current study.

Secondly, some organizational variables were included because they may also provide alternative explanations. For example, size of the organization in terms of number of employees was controlled, because in small size organizations, employees have a tendency to simply take the leader’s characteristics as the organization’s cultural traits. Asking respondents to state whether their organization is local or multinational, because in multinational organizations, there is a possibility that employees and the organization
possess different national culture background. In that case, national culture needs to be considered, whereas one important objective of this paper is to investigate individuals’ cultural orientation and minimize the interference from the culture at country level. Table 4.1 shows major measures included in the current study and their origins.

Table 4.1: Summary of Questionnaire Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Embeddedness</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Mitchell et al.’s (2001)</td>
<td>7-point Likert scale, from entirely disagree to entirely agree; brief answer questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture Orientation</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Triandis (1995)</td>
<td>7-point Likert scale, from entirely disagree to entirely agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Identity</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Brickson (2005)</td>
<td>Brief answer questions; multiple choice questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Desirability</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Crowne &amp; Marlowe (2005)</td>
<td>True or false questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Data Analysis

Before testing hypotheses, I conducted a series of reliability and validity tests, as well as tests to address certain potential biases, such as Harman’s single factor test and common latent factor analysis for common method bias. Before proceeding to the hypotheses analysis, I also conducted some factor analyses, EFA and CFA, to assess the dimensionality and distinctiveness of certain measures employed in the current study. In demonstrating the result of this effort in terms of measures’ quality, I employed some indices that are well established in literature, and I also compared the result with relevant
prior studies. The following indices were used in examining the fit of measurement models: $X^2$, statistic chi-square; the goodness of fit index (GFI); incremental fit index (IFI); comparative fit index (CFI); root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

In terms of the qualitative scale, the organizational identity orientation measure was analyzed differently compared with the others, due to its qualitative nature. Following Brickson’s (2005) analysis procedure, in which the general approach is to calculate percentage scores for each of the three identity orientations for each measure by dividing the number of codes corresponding to a given identity orientation on a particular measure by the number of total responses provided by that measure. After my coding process, the number of codes for each orientation from each measure and number of statements from each measure was calculated respectively, such as the number of valid codes and the number of total statements from the Ten Statements Test measure. After this, the percentage of each orientation from each measure was calculated by dividing the number of codes by the number of statements. Then the percentage scores from each measure were summed and divided by five to get the average total percentage score of each orientation. As to the internal part, it was only divided by three, since RIC and Organization as a Person measures don’t have an external dimension. At last, percentage scores of external and internal orientations were summed to have the final three sets of orientations, individual, relational, and collectivistic.

At the next step, I conducted hierarchical linear regression analysis to test the major hypotheses. Since Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4c predict a moderation relationship, following Baron and Kenny’s (1986) recommendation, I conducted a four-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis. I included variables into the regression in the following order: (1) control variables; (2) independent variables; (3) moderator
variables; (4) interaction terms (independent variables X moderator variables, e.g., Individualism X Collectivistic Organizational Identity Orientation). Control variables in each regression model were decided based on the their significant relations with the dependent variable shown in the correlation analysis, as shown in Table 5.5. Before the analysis, scores on the dependent variables, three components of organizational embeddedness, were converted into z-scores, because they are measured on different scales. For interaction terms, scores on both individual culture orientation and their perceived organizational identity orientation were converted into z-scores and then a product term was computed.

All the above statistical analyses were performed in IBM SPSS /Amos 22.0.
Chapter 5: Results

5.1 Sample Characteristics

In order to have at least 200 valid responses, I recruited 310 participants to complete the survey. The target of 200 valid responses is determined according to other published studies in the area. For example, in Mitchell et al.’s (2001) study on organizational embeddedness, 177 survey responses were collected from one industry, and 232 were collected from another. Based on central limit theorem, such a sample size is big enough to satisfy the common assumptions of a normal distribution (Israel, 1992). A total of 303 full time employees in the US passed the screening questions, such as if they are employed full time or not, and completed the survey online. Of these 303 responses, 20 were eliminated primarily due to insufficient answers, resulting in an overall acceptance rate of 93% (283 valid responses). Responses were eliminated if the survey was incomplete, if there were duplicate responses, or if answers were in an irregular pattern (e.g. the same score for all questions). For example, among those eliminated, some contained no responses to qualitative questions. I conducted a comparison test between the answers that were included and those that were dropped. I compared them based on demographic variables, including gender, education level, company size, and company type. No significant differences between the two groups of respondents were observed.

Table 5.1 shows the sample demographic profile. Between two genders, 57.5% of the employees were male. In terms of education, the majority held a Bachelor’s degree (58.9%), and the next is High School with 26.2%, Master’s and PhD followed, with 14.2% and 0.7% respectively. Company Size information shows that the majority of
respondents worked in companies with over 100 employees (56.4%). Employees who worked in US-based firms took up to 71.6% and 28.4% of them worked in foreign firms.

### Table 5.1: Demographic Profile of the Survey Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Company Size</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Company Type</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>Less than 50</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>Multinational Corporation</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>Between 50 to 100</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>Domestic Business</td>
<td>71.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor's</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>More than 100</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.2 Psychometric Properties of the Measures

I investigated the psychometric properties of all employed measures based on the guidelines set by relevant previous studies, before conducting tests on hypotheses. First, the reliability and validity of the constructs were considered and evaluated. Secondly, since Cultural Orientation, Organizational Embeddedness, and Organizational Identity Orientation are all multidimensional scales, I investigated the dimensionality of the data and distinctiveness of the measures through various statistical methods, such as exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Finally, I also conducted tests to generate evidence against common method variance (CMV). Organizational Identity Orientation was investigated as a qualitative measure.

**Construct reliability.** Reliability test was conducted in SPSS and Cronbach’s Alpha was reported for both individual cultural orientation and organizational embeddedness (Table 5.5). Cronbach’s alpha in this study shows consistency with previous study results. Reliability test result shows that both main Cronbach’s Alpha and
the Alpha based on standardised items are equal or highly similar, indicating the inter-item correlation of these two constructs is good.

**Dimensionality and distinctiveness of the measures.** I performed EFA with principal components analysis and Varimax rotation. With the cultural orientation measure, some items were excluded from the CFA based on factor loadings and cross-loading criteria. A two-factor measure model of cultural orientation is used to reflect individualist and collectivist orientations, four items for each factor. A fact worth noting is that the two-factor model of cultural orientation has also been widely used in the relevant literature (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998; Triandis, 2002; Watson & Morris, 2002). In terms of organizational embeddedness, although the factor loadings show some weak items, the original measure model was used. The reason of this choice is to remain consistent with prior studies.

I also compared both multidimensional models with one-factor models, as shown in Table 5.2, the multidimensional models show better fit than one-factor models. I compared the two-factor cultural orientation model with the one-factor model. The analysis showed the two-factor model to have a significantly better fit than the one-factor model. For organizational embeddedness, I compared the original three-factor model with the one-factor model. The original multi-dimensional model demonstrated a better fit than the corresponding one-factor model. I did not test the organizational identity orientation scale in the same way, as it is a qualitative scale.
Table 5.2: Dimensionality of the Measures and Construct Validity (Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure Model</th>
<th>Fit Indices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Orientation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-factor</td>
<td>51.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-factor</td>
<td>230.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Embeddedness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-factor</td>
<td>1232.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-factor</td>
<td>2335.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 283. $\chi^2$ = Chi-square; df = Degree of freedom; IFI = Incremental fit index; CFI = Comparative fit index; GFI = Goodness of fit index; RMSEA = Root square error of approximation.

**Addressing common method bias.** Non-response bias was addressed in the above Sample Characteristics section. Here, I focus on the evidence against Common Method Bias.

I employed several statistical remedies in order to address potential common method variance in my study. First, I conducted Harman’s single factor test and assessed the un-rotated solution involving 34 items in an exploratory factor analysis. The items include 8 items of the cultural orientation measure and 26 items of the organizational embeddedness measure. The organizational identity orientation measure was analyzed in a qualitative way. The result shows that 8 factors were extracted based on the eigenvalues, and these 8 factors explain 70% of the total variance. The first factor among them accounts for 30.9% of the variance, providing evidence against CMV (Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). However, Podsakoff (2003) also noted that Harman’s single factor analysis is more of a diagnostic technique, it doesn’t do...
anything to statistically control for method effects. Hence, in the next step, following their advice, I conducted test to determine that social desirability is not causing the common method variance.

Since social desirability is potentially a major variable causing the common method variance in my study, I conducted a comparison between zero-order correlations and partial correlations controlling social desirability (Spector, Chen, & O’Connell, 2000). The purpose of this comparison was to partial out social desirability to determine if it has potential effects on the observed relationships (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Table 5.3 shows the results of both regular zero-order correlations between independent and dependent variables, and the partial zero-order correlations controlling for social desirability. For example, after controlling for social desirability, the correlations between employees’ individualist orientation and the four dependent variables don’t show significant changes, compared with the correlation result when social desirability is not controlled. Out of the 20 sets of correlations, including 5 independent variables and 4 dependent variables, only 1 set of the partial correlations was significantly smaller than the corresponding regular zero-order correlation. It is the correlation between employees’ collectivist culture orientation and the sacrifice dimension of embeddedness, as shown in Table 5.3. The significance was only computed when zero-order correlations were themselves significant. This result demonstrated additional evidence against CMV.
Table 5.3: Zero-order Correlations and Partial Correlations Controlling Social Desirability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Emb._L</th>
<th>Emb._F</th>
<th>Emb._S</th>
<th>Emb.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I z-o</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.15*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial S</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C z-o</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial S</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualistic z-o</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.18**</td>
<td>-.16**</td>
<td>-.20**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial S</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational z-o</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial S</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivistic z-o</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial S</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *Partial correlation is significantly different from corresponding zero-order correlations at .05 level.
N = 283. z-o = zero-order correlation; Partial S: partial correlation controlling Social Desirability; I = Individualism of Cultural Orientations; C = Collectivism of Cultural Orientations; Individualistic = Individualistic Organizational Identity Orientation; Relational = Relational Organizational Identity Orientation; Collectivistic = Collectivistic Organizational Identity Orientation; Emb._L = Links dimension of Organizational Embeddedness; Emb._F = Fit dimension of Organizational Embeddedness; Emb._S = Sacrifice dimension of Organizational Embeddedness; Emb. = Organizational Embeddedness.
*p < .05. **p < .01

Qualitative scale. Whether it is quantitative or qualitative work, validity and reliability are concerns that can be addressed through careful attention to conceptualization, data collection and analysis, and findings interpretation (Merriam and Tisdell, 2016). The validity and reliability of the qualitative measure in my study were ensured by the following process. A pilot study was run with a primary purpose to test the qualitative organizational identity orientation scale. Some minor wording changes were made to the original questionnaire used by Brickson (2005) after the pilot test. For
example, in order to get sufficient details for the second part of the brief answer questions, part four of the questionnaire, I added, “please answer the following three questions, with as many details as possible”, which didn’t exist in the original survey by Brickson (2005). Among the 20 respondents who participated in the pilot study, a majority of them provided valid statements for the qualitative questions.

In general, the coding process in my study is closed coding, based on Brickson’s (2005) coding scheme, which is very thorough and detailed. I first went through all the responses several times, one respondent and one question at a time, to get a sense for the statements collected. I also went through Brickson’s (2005) original coding scheme multiple times to understand her way of categorizing codes. The statements collected in my survey were to a large extent in line with the statements included in this coding scheme. The amount of discretion deployed by the coders in the process was minimal. I assigned codes to each response, including internal or external codes, and individualistic, relational, or collectivistic codes. I also kept a detailed record of the coding process, available for review at request. According to Brickson (2005), the RIC and Organization as a Person question don’t allow the differentiation between external and internal facets of responses, since they only reflect external facets. Hence, in summary, there are six different pairs of codes for the TST, Troubling Event, and Accurate Motto questions (internal individualistic, internal relational, internal collectivistic, external individualistic, external relational, and external collectivistic), but only three pairs of codes for the RIC and Organization as a Person questions (external individualistic, external relational, and external collectivistic).

Some key principles in the coding process are listed here. These principles were also applied in Brickson’s (2005) study. First, if one orientation has more adjectives than
the other two or more, I only coded response for the first orientation. For example, “Reliable, helpful, and always there when I need something, good to charities”, the part before “good to charities” all reflects an internal relational orientation, hence the code. Second, if one orientation outweighs another, for example, three adjectives versus only one, I left off the second code. Third, there is a differentiation between positive and negative codes. For example, “there seems to be a great deal of hostility between the employees and the management and between certain departments and others within the organization”, I coded this response as internal negative relational. Negative codes are translated to -1 in the statistical analysis. Fourth, if a response can be interpreted as something positive and also negative and the two interpretations are equally compelling, I went with the positive interpretation. Last, with RIC questions (multiple choice plus brief answers to explain the selection), the quantitative selection takes precedence over the qualitative explanation. For example, if a respondent selected a choice that reflects individualistic identity orientation, but the brief answer for this selection shows a relational perception, an individualistic code was given.

Besides following the guidance set by Brickson, as the primary coder, I also had a second and third coder to recode a selective amount of responses, and the result of the recoding was compared with mine. The second coder is the supervisor of this thesis project, and he is involved in every step of the project. The third coder is a hired Master’s student in Management, and received training from the primary coder. She also completed coding for 20 sets of responses together with the primary coder, before officially starting the recoding. No major disagreement was raised, but some discrepancies were found and discussed. A majority of them were resolved after the
discussion, and the primary coder reviewed all the codes after and made some changes accordingly.

The data analysis procedure after coding was also guided by Brickson’s (2005) work. The final data set after coding shows 2,835 valid codes from 3,798 statements. Table 5.4 shows some examples of the statements and their final codes. An example of the analysis process is presented as follows. Respondent A gave 5 statements for the TST question; 1 statement for the Troubling Event question; 1 statement for the Organization as a Person question; 1 statement for the Accurate Motto question; 3 statements for RIC question. Among these statements, there were 4, 1, 1, 0, and 3 valid codes respectively for each question. Among the 4 codes in the TST section, there were 1 external individualistic code (EI, TST), 2 external relational codes (ER, TST), and 1 external collectivistic code (EC, TST). In the Troubling Event part, it was an external individualistic code (EI, TE). In the Organization as a Person part, it was an external relational code (ER, OP). In the Accurate Motto question, there was no valid code. Among the 3 codes in the RIC section, there was 1 external relational code (ER, RIC) and 2 external collectivistic codes (EC, RIC).

In SPSS, the following procedures were performed.

Step one: the percentage of each identity orientation within each measure was calculated, which is achieved by dividing the number of codes for each orientation from each measure with the number of statements in each measure. The result was the following. EI, TST: 20% (dividing 1 with 5); ER, TST: 40% (dividing 2 with 5); EC, TST: 20% (dividing 1 with 5); EI, TE: 100% (dividing 1 with 1); ER, OP: 100% (dividing 1 with 1); ER, RIC: 33% (dividing 1 with 3); EC, RIC: 67% (dividing 2 with 3).
Step two: the average total percentage of each identity orientation was calculated, by dividing the total percentage of each orientation with the number of the measures that reflected the orientation. With external orientations, the denominator was 5, and with internal orientations, the denominator was 3, because OP and RIC measures don’t reflect internal identity orientations. In this way, Respondent A’s answers generated 24% of EI (dividing 20%+100% with 5); 35% of ER (dividing 40%+100%+33% with 5); 17% of EC (dividing 20%+67% with 5); 0% of II, IR, or IC (no valid internal orientation codes were observed).

The last step was to combine the external and internal identity orientation percentages. It was determined that Respondent A perceived the organization to be 24% of individualistic (EI+II, 24%+0%); 35% of relational (ER+IR, 35%+0%); 17% of collectivistic (EC+IC, 17%+0%).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table 5.4:</strong> Examples of Qualitative Responses from Highly Individualistic, Highly Relational, and Highly Collectivistic</th>
<th><strong>Highly individualistic</strong></th>
<th><strong>Highly relational</strong></th>
<th><strong>Highly collectivistic</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TST</strong></td>
<td>It's more output oriented than person oriented.</td>
<td>The president will usually include us in decisions</td>
<td>Generous with charities, multiple giving and donation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They (the organization) are the leader in their field</td>
<td>The organization always values work and life balance</td>
<td>We have a good reputation with community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Troubling Event</strong></td>
<td>Not having enough patients coming in troubles the company because it doesn't provide enough income</td>
<td>Much of our sales, client interactions, and database are online. If we had a security breach, it could be extremely troubling. Our clients count on us to safeguard their information.</td>
<td>when things get lost. / when paperwork gets lost we lose money, / when we lose money the company suffers, and we suffer as a whole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our state is going through budget problems. this is troubling to my company because we rely on state funds for most of our budget.</td>
<td>I was having a hard time learning new skills at the office, but people at my organization were so nice to me. They took time out of their busy days to help me out! It was so thoughtful and helpful!</td>
<td>We had an employee get hurt on the job while installing some solar panels. The entire company was there for him. we are a close family and we were all hurt by the accident.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational as person</strong></td>
<td>Very full of themselves.</td>
<td>She would be a friendly, caring person, who is accommodating and always on time.</td>
<td>Concerned for larger community but sometimes ignores people right in front of them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>That person would be rather cold and calculating, largely driven by success at any cost without much regard for the consequence of others. The person would also be fairly influential in its dealing with other people and quite wealthy as well.</td>
<td>He would be popular, outgoing, friendly, and sincere.</td>
<td>the old soldier that always quietly did the job, often without recognition but always came back the next day to work again to serve the public</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accurate motto</strong></td>
<td>Committed to continuous improvement</td>
<td>If we succeed it is because of you.</td>
<td>teach others and serve the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Engaged to Inspire excellence.</td>
<td>Do whatever it takes to keep the customers happy and coming back.</td>
<td>only teamwork will ensure our success</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3 Descriptive Information

Table 5.5 contains the means, standard deviations, correlations, and Cronbach’s Alpha of all variables.

Individualistic, relational, and collectivistic organizational identity orientations show significant correlations with organizational embeddedness and its three components. Among these, individualistic identity orientation is negatively related to fit and sacrifice dimension, as well as overall embeddedness ($p < .01$). Relational and collectivistic identity orientations are positively related to fit, sacrifice, and overall embeddedness ($p < .01$). In terms of links dimension of embeddedness, only a positive correlation with collectivistic identity orientation is observed ($p < .01$).

Some significant correlations between employees’ culture orientation and embeddedness was also found. Collectivism was positively related to fit, sacrifice, and overall embeddedness ($p < .01$), which is in accordance with my expectations. At the same time, individualism also shows significant relations with both fit and overall embeddedness ($p < .05$). No significant correlations were found with links dimension.

Some significant correlations were found between some control variables and dependent variables. For example, social desirability was found to be negatively correlated with fit, sacrifice, and overall embeddedness ($p < .01$); company type was negatively correlated with links and sacrifice ($p < .05$); company size was positively related to links ($p < .01$), sacrifice and overall embeddedness ($p < .05$); gender was positively related to sacrifice ($p < .05$). These control variables were entered into the hierarchical linear regression models accordingly later on.
Table 5.5: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations

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Note.
Social Desirability was centered at its mean. Diagonal entries in bold indicate coefficients alpha.
Education = Education level; Size = Company Size; Type = Company Type; SD = Social Desirability; I = Individualism of Cultural Orientations; C = Collectivism of Cultural Orientations; Individualistic = Individualistic Organizational Identity Orientation; Relational = Relational Organizational Identity Orientation; Collectivistic = Collectivistic Organizational Identity Orientation; Emb._L = Links dimension of Organizational Embeddedness; Emb._F = Fit dimension of Organizational Embeddedness; Emb._S = Sacrifice dimension of Organizational Embeddedness; Emb. = Organizational Embeddedness.
*p < .05. **p < .01
**5.4 Tests of Hypotheses**

*Hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c*. Hypothesis 1a predicts that employees with a more collectivist orientation also score higher on the links dimension of organizational embeddedness. Likewise, employees’ perception of a relational or collectivistic organizational identity orientation also shows positive relation with the links dimension of organizational embeddedness. As shown in Table 5.6 controlling for company type and company size (different control variables in each hierarchical regression model were determined based on the significance level of their relationships with the dependent variables, as shown in Table 5.5), all three hypothesized independent variables explain additional variance in links ($\Delta R^2 = .06, p < .05$). However, only the perception of a collectivistic organizational identity orientation shows significant positive relation with links ($\beta = .65, p < .01$). In other words, if employees perceive their organization to be collectivistic, it is more likely that they will build more links. Overall, hypothesis 1a and 1b were not supported, and hypothesis 1c was supported. It suggests that there is not enough evidence to support my theoretical prediction that employees with a collectivist orientation tend to build more links. I also hypothesized that if employees perceive the organization to have a relational identity orientation, they will have more links. The result doesn’t show enough support for this either.
### Table 5.6: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for variables predicting the Links of Org. Embeddedness

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*Note.* Social Desirability was centered at its mean.

*p < .05; **p < .01
**Hypothesis 2a, 2b, and 2c.** Hypothesis 2a predicts that the increase in employees’ collectivist orientation leads to an increase of the sacrifice dimension of organizational embeddedness. Hypothesis 2b suggests that if employees perceive the organization to be relational, a higher level of sacrifice will be observed. Hypothesis 2c predicts that if employees perceive the organization to be collectivistic, more sacrifice will also be observed. As shown in Table 5.7, controlling for gender, company size, company type, and social desirability, collectivist culture orientation, perception of a relational or collectivistic organizational identity orientation each explains some additional variance in sacrifice ($\Delta R^2 = .18, p < .05$), and the relationships all show significance. The sacrifice dimension of embeddedness was positively associated with collectivism ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), and both with relational ($\beta = 1.27, p < .01$) and collectivistic ($\beta = 1.63, p < .01$) organizational identity orientation. Hence, hypothesis 2a, 2b, and 2c were all supported. This result indicates that if employees have a collectivist culture orientation, or they perceive the organization to possess a relational or collectivistic identity orientation, these employees are more likely to perceive more sacrifice when they decide to leave the organization.
Table 5.7: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for variables predicting the Sacrifice of Org. Embeddedness

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*Note.* Social Desirability was centered at its mean.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

**Hypothesis 3.** In hypothesis 3, I predict that if employees with a collectivist culture orientation perceive the organization to be relational or collectivistic ($C \times C$ scenario), they will experience the highest level of fit. Table 5.8 shows that interaction terms only explained a very small amount of additional variance in fit ($\Delta R^2 = .02, p < .05$), and no significant correlations between each interaction term and fit were observed, so
hypothesis 3 was not supported. There are 6 pairs of interaction terms included in the regression model, individualist in an individualistic organization, individualist in a relational organization, individualist in a collectivistic organization, collectivist in an individualistic organization, collectivist in a relational organization, and collectivist in a collectivistic organization. In the regression analysis of the fit dimension of organizational embeddedness, the result shows that none of the six pairs of interactions predicts higher or lower level of fit. It means that there is a possibility that the effect of these interactions on fit dimension was over-estimated in my theorizations.
Table 5.8: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for variables predicting the Fit of Org. Embeddedness

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I X Relational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.25</td>
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<tr>
<td>I X Collectivistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.54</td>
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<tr>
<td>C X Individualistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C X Relational</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C X Collectivistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>.41</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Value</td>
<td>10.64**</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.53**</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.59**</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.54</td>
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<td>R2</td>
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<td>.14**</td>
<td></td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td></td>
<td>.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2 Change</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
<td>.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Social Desirability was centered at its mean.

*p < .05; **p < .01

Hypothesis 4a, 4b, 4c, and 4d. Hypothesis 4a, 4b, and 4c predict that overall embeddedness is positively related to employees’ collectivist culture orientation, their perception of a relational or collectivistic organizational identity orientation. At the same time, hypothesis 4d suggests that the highest level of overall embeddedness occurs when employees with a collectivist culture orientation work in an organization that they perceive to be relational or collectivistic. According to table 5.9, cultural orientation and perception of organizational identity orientation each explain certain amount of
additional variance in the dependent variable ($\Delta R^2 = .20, p < .05$). Collectivist orientation is positively related to overall embeddedness ($\beta = .16, p < .05$). Perception of a relational or collectivistic organizational identity orientation is positively associated with overall embeddedness ($\beta = .59, p < .01; \beta = 1.12, p < .01$, respectively). In terms of interaction items, they only explain limited amount of additional variance in embeddedness ($\Delta R^2 = .02, p < .05$). Although the I×C scenario shows a significant positive correlation with the level of overall embeddedness ($\beta = .74, p < .05$), there is a possibility that the significance was caused by chance. As show by the F value or $R^2$ in Table 5.9, the model after adding the interaction terms does not provide extra significance. Hence there is not enough evidence to support the hypothesized interaction effects regarding overall embeddedness. Overall, hypothesis 4a, 4b, and 4c were all supported, but hypothesis 4d was not supported.

I conducted a simple slope analysis to display the significance of interaction effect indicated by the regression model of overall organizational embeddedness (Aiken and West, 1991). Figure 5.1 illustrates this significance exists but at a low level. When employees perceived low collectivistic organizational identity orientation, individualism had a greater positive effect on organizational embeddedness. When employees perceived high collectivistic organizational identity orientation, individualism had a smaller effect on organizational embeddedness.
Table 5.9: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for variables predicting the Overall Org. Embeddedness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th>Model 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE.B</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE.B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.12**</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>-.63**</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-.53**</td>
<td>-.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent &amp; Moderator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>.12**</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualistic</td>
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<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>.59**</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivistic</td>
<td>1.12**</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>1.08**</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I X Individualistic</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I X Relational</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I X Collectivistic</td>
<td>.74*</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>-.22</td>
<td>-.08</td>
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<td>-.09</td>
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<td>C X Collectivistic</td>
<td>-.33</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>F Value</strong></td>
<td>9.51**</td>
<td>11.55**</td>
<td>14.25**</td>
<td>8.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>R2</strong></td>
<td>.06**</td>
<td>.14**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>R2 Change</strong></td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>F for Change in R2</strong></td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Social Desirability was centered at its mean.*

*p < .05; **p < .01
In summary, a large number of main effects predicted in the study are empirically supported. However, there is little evidence for the anticipated moderating effect of organizational identity orientation on the relationship between the collectivist culture orientation and the fit dimension of embeddedness or the overall embeddedness. Table 5.10 provides a summary of findings.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>(Not) Supported</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>H1a:</strong> Collectivism orientation is positively related to the links dimension.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H1b:</strong> Relational organizational identity orientation is positively related to the links dimension.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H1c:</strong> Collectivistic organizational identity orientation is positively related to the links dimension.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H2a:</strong> Collectivism orientation is positively related to the sacrifice dimension.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H2b:</strong> Relational organizational identity orientation is positively related to the sacrifice dimension.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H2c:</strong> Collectivistic organizational identity orientation is positively related to the sacrifice dimension.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H3:</strong> CxC scenario predicts higher level of fit.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H4a:</strong> Collectivism orientation is positively related to organizational embeddedness.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H4b:</strong> Relational organizational identity orientation is positively related to organizational embeddedness.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H4c:</strong> Collectivistic organizational identity orientation is positively related to organizational embeddedness.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H4d:</strong> CxC scenario predicts higher level of organizational embeddedness.</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 6: Discussion

The current study has two primary purposes. First, in light of an understanding that previous research on the antecedents of organizational embeddedness has focused on more contextual factors, my study investigates the role of employees’ cultural orientations and their organizational identity orientations in the development of embeddedness. Through both cultural orientations and organizational identity orientations, the study established new antecedents that are more dispositional. Second, my study investigates the extent to which organizational identity orientation impacts the relationship between cultural orientation and embeddedness. Third, the three components of embeddedness were studied independently as well. Overall, the results supported the first line of main effects, but didn’t support the second line of theoretical predictions regarding the moderation effect of organizational identity orientation on the relationship between cultural orientation and embeddedness.

6.1 Recap of Major Findings

6.1.1 More Antecedents of Organizational Embeddedness

In terms of the links dimension of organizational embeddedness, first, no evidence was observed to support the hypothesized positive relationship between employees’ collectivist cultural orientation and the links dimension of embeddedness. Secondly, as predicted, the results showed that employees who perceived organizations to be more collectivistic demonstrated a higher level of links building. However, I did not find any evidence that relational organizational identity has the same impact on the links dimension of embeddedness. This contradicts the theoretical prediction in which
relational identity orientation positively relates to links. A plausible explanation for this may lie in the difference between interpersonal relations and relations with collectives. Although the links dimension of embeddedness covers both types of relations, it is not clear in terms of its separate coverage on the two. It is likely that although the links component is conceptualized as connections between a person and institutions or other people (Mitchell, et al., 2001), it emphasizes the relationship with institutions. For example, only two out of seven questions measuring links focus on relations with coworkers, the rest asks employees about their relations with the collective. Hence, only evidence was found to support the relationship between collectivistic organizational identity orientation and the links dimension of embeddedness.

When it comes to the sacrifice dimension of embeddedness, evidence was found to support all theoretical predictions. Employees who are more collectivist demonstrate higher levels of sacrifice. At the same time, if employees perceive their organizations to be more relational or more collectivistic, higher levels of sacrifice are also in place. In other words, when all other relevant factors remain the same, employees with a collectivist orientation tend to perceive more loss if they make the decision to leave the organization. Similarly, employees who perceive their organizations as relational or collectivistic also tend to anticipate higher sacrifice. However, sacrifice is defined as the perceived material or psychological loss of leaving an employment (Mitchell, et al., 2001). In terms of psychological loss, it was shown to be highly correlated to links and fit dimensions (Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas, 2005; Mallol, et al., 2007). Hence, it is still to be determined whether the variance in sacrifice is at least partially due to the variance in links or fit. In other words, a mediation relationship may exist here.
Another set of hypotheses used overall organizational embeddedness as the dependent variable, and I found evidence to support all of them. Employees with a collectivist orientation tend to be more embedded in organizations. Evidence was also found to support the prediction that if employees perceive the organization to be more relational or collectivistic, they have a tendency to be more embedded.

### 6.1.2 Joint Effects of Cultural Orientation and Organizational Identity Orientation

The last dimension of embeddedness investigated in the study was fit, and I investigated it by looking into the joint effect of cultural orientation and organizational identity orientation. Cultural orientation is employees’ perceptions of themselves, and organizational identity orientation represents how employees perceive their organizations. In order to feel “fit” in the organization, employees must consider both their own characteristics and environmental factors to see if they are compatible. I conceptualized this compatibility by examining the interaction between employees’ cultural orientations and their organizational identity orientations. Although I found empirical evidence for the positive relation between collectivist cultural orientation and fit, I didn’t find support for the additional effect of relational /collectivistic organizational identity orientation on this relationship. I expected that when collectivist employees work in relational /collectivistic organizations (C×C scenario), they would perceive a larger amount of fit. However, results show that joint effect exists in none of the six scenarios. In terms of overall embeddedness, there is also no significant joint effect observed. In summary, this study shows very little support for the theoretical prediction that organizational identity
orientation has a moderating effect on the relationship between cultural orientations and the fit dimension, as well as the overall embeddedness.

There are multiple explanations for this lack of expected evidence. First, in my theorization, I argued that I×I and C×C scenarios would predict more fit and hence higher level of embeddedness. This argument was made primarily based on the “structure of habits” theory, which predicts that people with a certain cultural orientation would feel most comfortable in that particular culture, such as individualists in an individualistic culture or collectivists in a collectivistic culture (Triandis, 1995). However, “feeling comfortable” is not equal to getting embedded. Employees’ organizational embeddedness results from regular interactions with other organization members and the organization as a collective. An employment relationship is built on these interactions, and embeddedness couldn’t happen without them. This makes embedding process fundamentally different from structure of habits in two ways. First, embeddedness happens on the basis of a longer period of time. Employees need time to develop links and a sense of fit and sacrifice. However, a sense of comfortable in the structure of habit theory is more straightforward to determine. When the individuals’ cultural orientation is in line with the collective’s culture, for example, an individualist in an individualistic culture, a sense of comfortable exists. Secondly, the structure of habits entails a lower level of awareness. The process is not as conscious as the embedding process. Triandis (1995, p. 67) defined “habits” in the structure of habits as “automatic behaviors carried out without thinking”. However, it is difficult to attach this lack of awareness to organizational embeddedness. Employees develop links with other members, access the fit with the organization, and determine material and psychological losses if leaving the organization. These all show a much more conscious and calculated process. From this perspective, in the cases of I×I
and C×C, even though employees feel comfortable, it does not come with high level of embeddedness.

Second, in the discussion of individualism-collectivism and personality, Triandis (1995) defines individuals with individualistic and collectivist orientations as idiocentric and allocentric, respectively. People who are idiocentric perceive and act as individualists; people who are allocentric perceive and act as collectivists. Based on former findings, Triandis (2001) proposed that idocentrism and allocentrism as a personality dimension respond to situations actively. An example study is by Chatman and Barsade (1995), in which they found that people who were either idocentric or allocentric showed different levels of cooperation with the simulated business environment that was either individualistic or collectivist. It means that when personality and situation jointly call for cooperation, it can be maximal. Conversely, it also means that idocentric or allocentric people tend to behave consistently even in situations that are not in line with what their personality calls for. When individuals are in a context that is strange for them, such as allocentrics in individualistic cultures or idiocentrics in collectivist cultures, Triandis (2001) states that with idiocentrics, the most distinct feature with them in collectivist cultures is that they are more likely to use individual goals to determine their behavior. The key here is individual goals. For employees with an individualistic culture orientation, they may perceive the organizational environment more embedding, even though it represents entirely different cultural characteristics from their own, because they see more common goals with the organizations.
6.2 Implications for Theory

In seeking more antecedents of organizational embeddedness, the current study makes multiple theoretical contributions. First, it provides a cultural perspective to look at retention and turnover phenomena. Over the years, research on turnover or retention has provided many answers to why people choose to leave or to stay. To name a few, traditional attitude models including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment, suggest that these particular attitudes are negatively related with turnover (Jaros, 1997; Irving, Coleman & Cooper, 1997). A variety of organizational factors have also been identified, including inducements used by organizations to attract employees to work with certain groups or on certain projects (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Building on these relevant studies, Mitchell and colleagues (2001) established the organizational embeddedness construct to represent a broader constellation of influences on turnover and retention. In my study, I focused on antecedents of organizational embeddedness, and especially its dispositional antecedents, which contribute new understanding of employee retention and turnover intentions. This study demonstrates that employees with certain culture orientations or perceiving the organization in certain ways tend to find it easier or more difficult in getting embedded in organizations, hence less or more likely to leave the organization. For example, if employees perceive the organization to be collectivistic, they tend to have more links; if employees have a collectivist orientation, they are more likely to perceive more sacrifice in the decision of leaving, and they are also more likely to show a higher level of overall embeddedness; if employees perceive the organization to have a relational or collectivistic identity orientation, they tend to perceive more sacrifice too when they decide to leave, in turn this type of employees tend to be more embedded in the organization.
Second, my study provides a more nuanced look into the three-dimension embeddedness construct. Although Mitchell and colleagues (2001) envisioned organizational embeddedness as a multi-dimensional construct, to my knowledge, there have been very few empirical studies assessing its dimensions independently or assessing the relations among the dimensions. There was an attempt to establish a global measure of embeddedness (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007; Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2011), but one of the purposes of my study is to further examine the dimensions of organizational embeddedness. My research investigated links, fit, and sacrifice independently and provided empirical support indicating further research is needed to clarify the relations among them.

Third, the research expanded the application of both culture theory and organizational identity orientation theory. Culture at the individual level described by individualism-collectivism has been associated with many organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and job commitment (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001), cooperation behavior in organizations (Chatman & Barsade, 1995), and leadership that is represented by the GLOBE project (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, & Dastmalchian, 2012). The current research attempts to make the linkage between culture and organizational embeddedness. Organizational identity orientation theory is primarily used in corporate social responsibility research, but my study applied it in organizational behavior research. Furthermore, through investigating each individual employee’s perceived organizational identity orientation, instead of an integrated identity orientation of the organization, the study emphasizes it as a cognitive mechanism in perceiving organizations’ relationship building tendency. In summary, it demonstrates a new approach to apply the
organizational identity orientation construct in employee management research. It is a new direction of research.

Finally, the interaction between employees’ cultural orientation and their organizational identity orientation provides a more direct and closer look at employees’ cognitive processes. One of the purposes of the current research is to examine how the result of the interaction between individual and situational factors influences employees’ tendency to become embedded. The situational factor here was represented by employees’ perceptions of certain organizational characteristics, such as relationship building tendency. Compared with an integrated organizational identity orientation or other organization-level factors, the compatibility generated by cultural orientations and the perception of organizational identity orientations looks into the interaction at the cognitive level only.

6.3 Implications for Practice

Further identification of the antecedents to organizational embeddedness benefits both employees and employers. Previous research found that higher level of organizational embeddedness has positive association with employees’ job performance, organizational commitment, and citizenship behavior (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Lee et al., 2004). From the perspective of organizations, the findings in this study offer several practical implications, primarily reflected in employee recruitment and retention practice. Among the main relationships demonstrated in the study, the findings showed that employees’ cultural orientations were related to overall embeddedness and its dimension in different ways and to various extents. For example, a collectivist orientation is
positively related to overall embeddedness. The more collectivist they are, the higher level of embeddedness would be observed. In companies’ recruitment practice, there is usually a focus on testing job candidates’ skill sets or personality. The ultimate purpose is to determine if a candidate is a good match to the organization. Findings in my current study serve as a reminder that a good fit can also be considered from a cultural perspective. Relevant recruitment policies should take into consideration that some other individual differences, such as cultural orientations, also matter in deciding if a job candidate is a good fit. In reality, it may be unrealistic to suggest that companies should hire more people with collectivist orientation, because it brings a potential risk of discrimination. For example, if employers make the assumption that candidates from North America tend to be more individualistic, and use this as a ground not to hire them. However, it is reasonable to expect companies to adjust their retention strategies depending on such an individual difference. For example, with employees who are more collectivist, organizations should provide them with more opportunities to communicate with each other, and nurture a community belonging in the organization. With this type of employees, financial incentive may not be the only way to keep them.

The second line of main relations investigated in the current study is between employees’ organizational identity orientation and embeddedness. When employees perceive organizations to be relational or collectivistic, they tend to build more links and have a stronger sense of sacrifice if they decide to leave. This is particularly helpful to retention practice. First, organizations should have long-term and clear strategies of relationship building, both externally and internally. For example, in order to nurture a sense of collectivistic identity orientation, organizations can pay more attention to charities or communities. An emphasis on public good is critical in the collectivistic
identity orientation. A particularly valuable function of these strategies is to manage employees’ perceptions. Employees form their perception of organizational identity orientation based on how they perceive the organization’s relationship-building principles. Second, management may consider selectively nurturing certain organizational identity orientations, such as relational and collective. Practice examples include open office space that encourages engagement among employees, or a principle like “client first” that clearly sends a “relationship is important” message to employees. Consequently, organizations create an environment in which employees are more inclined to stay.

6.4 Limitations and Opportunities for Future Research

Despite theoretical and practical contributions, this research has some limitations. First, cross-sectional data do not allow conclusions regarding causality. Future research should consider longitudinal designs to provide better evidence supporting causal relationships. Second, my study only included individualism-collectivism as a major culture orientation dimension, but future research may examine more dimensions. Individualism or collectivism can be subcategorized into horizontal or vertical. Horizontal individualism, vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism, and vertical collectivism can each be examined and differentiated from each other. The power distance dimension can also be studied by future studies. Employees who value hierarchy may find a collectivistic organization environment relatively easier to embed themselves in, because they respect authority and expect more guidance from superiors.
Although online data has been demonstrated to be an effective and reliable data collection method in management research, future research should try collecting data from employees in a single organization. It will allow analyses within organizations and between organizations, for example, a comparison analysis between managers and front line employees to provide further insight. Another important advantage of having data from a single organization is to allow an integrated organizational identity orientation. The current study focuses on each employee’s perception instead of having all the perceptions integrated to generate an organizational level identity orientation. If future research can generate data at organizational level and investigate its interaction with individuals’ cultural orientations, it may provide more findings.

Finally, the relationship among three dimensions of organizational embeddedness needs further clarification. In both my study and Michell et al.’s study in 2001, the coefficient alpha of the links dimension was relatively lower than fit and sacrifice dimensions. Furthermore, my statistical analysis on the construct show there is a lack of dimensionality. My finding also supports the claim that psychological sacrifice is partially made up of the perceived loss of links and fit (Mitchell et al., 2001). It is still to be determined if links or fit has a mediating effect on the result found on sacrifice dimension and overall embeddedness. It is difficult to segregate the effect of each dimension based on current theoretical model of organizational embeddedness and its measure. Future research may focus on further clarifying this construct.

6.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the current research extends existing research on the antecedents of organizational embeddedness and provides a more nuanced look at the dimensions of
embeddedness. Overall, the results partially supported the proposed theoretical model. My research highlights the role of employees’ cultural orientation and their organizational identity orientation in the development of embeddedness or the links, fit, and sacrifice dimensions. Adding to previous research, findings from the current research suggests that employees’ dispositions and certain perceptions of their organization, such as cultural orientation and organizational identity orientation, also play a pivotal role in managing organizational embeddedness.
References


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Appendix

LETTER OF CONSENT

Dear Participants:

You are being invited to participate in a research study on employees’ work related opinions. This research will require about 20 minutes of your time. There are no anticipated risks or discomforts related to this research. By participating, you may benefit others by helping people to better understand the relationship between employees and their organizations.

Several steps will be taken to protect your identity and keep your responses anonymous. The survey website temporarily collects your IP address to avoid duplicate responses but will not collect information that could identify you. The data will also be stored in a password-protected computer at the University of Lethbridge, and only the main researchers will have access to the data. All information will be destroyed after 5 years. This survey uses Qualtrics™ survey platform, which is a United States of America company. Consequently, USA authorities under provisions of the PATRIOT Act may access this survey data.

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may decline to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer and you can withdraw your participation at any time by ceasing to answer questions, without penalty or loss of remuneration. Please obtain the survey code that appears in bold at the end of the survey, and enter it into the "survey code" box on the web page from which you started this survey. After submitting the survey code you will receive participation credit from Mechanical Turk.

The results from this study will be presented in writing in journals read by academic scholars and by business professionals. The results may also be presented in person to groups of business professionals or academic scholars. All data are presented in aggregate format; at no time will your identifying information be revealed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, you may contact one of the researchers (lei.jing@uleth.ca). If you have any other questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research, you may contact the Office of Research Services at the University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747 or research.services@uleth.ca.

Your completion of this survey indicates your agreement to participate. Once you have completed the survey, nothing further will be asked of you. We would like to express our sincerest thanks for your participation in this research.

I have read (or have been read) the above information regarding this research study on work related perceptions, and consent to participate in this study.

Emma (Lei) Jing, MSc Candidate, Faculty of Management, lei.jing@uleth.ca
Nathaniel Lupton, Assistant Professor, Faculty of Management, nathaniel.lupton@uleth.ca

○ I agree with the above terms
○ I disagree with the above terms

Please read the detailed instructions and fill in the questions, thank you!
Part one: The following statements are about beliefs and opinions that you hold. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by CLICKING your choice, based on the scale given. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. Winning is everything.
2. It is important that I do my job better than others.
3. The well being of my co-workers is important to me.
4. I often do “my own thing”. *
5. Competition is the law of nature.
6. If a co-worker gets a prize I would feel proud.
7. To me, pleasure is spending time with others.
8. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.
9. I feel good when I cooperate with others.
10. It is important to me that I respect decisions made by my group. *
11. I would rather depend on myself than on others. *
12. Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required. *
13. I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others. *
14. Parents and children must stay together, as much as possible. *
15. My personal identity independent from others is very important to me. *
16. It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.*
17. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.
18. Group success is more important than individual success.
19. Being accepted by members of your work group is very important.
20. Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.
21. Managers should encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer.
22. Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success.
23. Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.
24. It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.
25. Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.
26. Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees.
27. Employees should not disagree with management decisions.
28. Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.
Part two: The following statements are about your organization and occupation. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by CLICKING your choice, based on the scale given. There are no right or wrong answers.

29. I like the members of my work group.
30. My coworkers are similar to me.
31. My job utilizes my skills and talents well.
32. I feel like I am a good match for this company.
33. I fit with the company’s culture.
34. I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company.
35. My values are compatible with the organization’s values.
36. I can reach my professional goals working for this organization.
37. I feel good about my professional growth and development.
38. I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals.
39. The perks on this job are outstanding.
40. I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.
41. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job.
42. My promotional opportunities are excellent here.
43. I am well compensated for my level of performance.
44. The benefits are good on this job.
45. The health-care benefits provided by the organization are excellent.
46. The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent.
47. The prospects for continuing employment with this organization are excellent.
Part three: Below are 10 fill-in-the-blank questions. Please complete the sentence, "My organization is ____________." 10 times however you think is most appropriate. On the second line for each question, please explain your answer in more detail. Please try to think of 10 items, but if you get stuck at the end, you may move on to the next question.

When answering questions, think about your company in terms of those qualities that are most CENTRAL (defining), DISTINCTIVE (distinguishable from those of other companies) and ENDURING (long-term). Think about your company as a whole, and not in terms of specific individuals or departments. Also, please answer in terms of how the company is rather than as how you would ideally like it to be. There are no right or wrong answers.

48. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
49. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
50. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
51. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
52. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
53. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
54. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
55. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
56. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
57. My organization is ______________
   (more detail) ______________
Part four: please answer the following three questions, with as many details as possible. There are no right or wrong answers.

58. Please take a moment to write about EITHER an actual event that was troubling to your company as an organization OR a hypothetical event that would be troubling to your company as an organization if it occurred. Why was or would this event be troubling to your organization?

59. If your company were a person, describe him or her.

60. What do you think is the most accurate motto of your organization?
Part five: Below are 3 multiple-choice questions. Please select the ONE answer that seems to reflect what is most central, distinctive, and enduring about your organization and fill in the associated short answer. As before, please think about your organization as a whole and also about your organization as it is rather than how you might like for it to be. There are no right or wrong answers.

61. My organization views itself primarily as:
   a) Distinct and standing apart from other organizations.
      Indicate what other organizations and why: ________________
   b) A good partner to those with whom it interacts (e.g., employees, customers, nonprofit organizations).
      Indicate to whom is your organization a good partner and why: ________________
   c) A good member to a larger community (all those with whom it interacts, as a common group; a group of organizations promoting a cause it cares about; local community; etc.). Indicate what type of community and why: ________________

62. What is most important to my organization is:
   a) Working to improve the welfare of particular others with whom the organization has significant and gratifying relationships (e.g., employees, customers, nonprofit organizations). Indicate which others and why: ________________
   b) Working to improve the welfare of a community it values and/or belongs to (e.g., all those with whom it interacts, as a common group; a group of organizations promoting a cause; local community; etc.).
      Indicate what type of community and why: ________________
   c) Working to promote and maintain its own welfare (e.g., profitability, image, etc.). Indicate what type of welfare and why: ________________

63. My organization is most concerned about:
   a) Its relationship with a greater community it values and/or belongs to (e.g., all those with whom it interacts, as a common group; a group of organizations promoting a cause it cares about; local community; etc.).
      Indicate what community and why: ________________
   b) Its distinctiveness from other organizations.
      Indicate what organizations and why: ________________
   c) Its relationships with particular others whose welfare it values (e.g., employees, customers, a nonprofit organization).
      Indicate what others and why: ________________
**Part six:** The following statements are about your **general attitudes and behaviors.** Please indicate whether the statement below is **True or False** by clicking the response (T or F) that applies to you. There are no right or wrong answers.

64. I have never intensely disliked anyone.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]

65. No matter whom I am talking to, I am always a good listener.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]

66. I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]

67. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]

68. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]

69. I have never felt that I was punished without cause.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]

70. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone’s feelings.  
   **T**[ ] **F**[ ]
**Part seven:** Please note that your identity information is not required in this survey, but please tell us the following information **about yourself:**

71. How long have you worked in this industry: ________________
72. How long have you worked for this company: ________________
73. How long have you been in your present position: ________________
74. How many coworkers do you interact with regularly: ________________
75. How many coworkers are highly dependent on you: ________________
76. How many work teams are you on: ________________
77. How many work committees are you on: ________________
78. Please tell us the industry you are in: ______
79. Please tell us your nationality: ______
80. You are a female ______ male______
81. What’s your education level: PhD ______ Master’s ______ Bachelor’s ______
   High School ______ Middle School ______
82. Please indicate how many employees your company has:
   Less than 50 people ______ Between 50 to 100 people ______ More than 100 people ______
83. Please indicate the type of your company:
   Multinational corporation ______ Domestic business ______

All information collected in this survey will be kept confidential.