

THESIS

THE PERCEPTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL PRESTIGE AND
EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

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Interest concerning employee engagement is on the rise, especially given the reported financial and behavioral gains of engaged employees. Naturally, as a consequence of the astounding reports from consulting firms that significant dollars are saved because of engaged employees, organizations are seeking ways to hire, retain, and foster employee engagement. This study contributes to the literature by examining how perceptions of organizational prestige, a construct studied in recruitment and attraction of employees, relates to experiences of employee engagement. Full-time, working adults completed a web-based survey assessing employee engagement, organizational identification, and perceived organizational prestige. It was hypothesized that perceived organizational prestige would be positively related to employee engagement. This study used this archival data to explore this relationship. Results support the positive association between perceived organizational prestige and employee engagement. Furthermore, results indicate organizational identification partially mediates this relationship. By examining the relationship between employee engagement and perceived organizational prestige, a variable that organizations can influence, this study contributes to the practical application of initiatives to increase employee engagement, as well as the scientific understanding of employee engagement.

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INTRODUCTION

Employee engagement has been a topic of increasing interest to consultants and academics alike. This is not surprising considering the documented beneficial effects of having an engaged workforce. For example, Vance (2006) reports that Molson Coors Brewing Company found that engaged employees were five times less likely to have a safety incident than non-engaged employees. Furthermore, by strengthening employee engagement, Molson Coors was able to save an estimated \$1.7 million dollars annually in safety costs (Vance, 2006). These numbers have impressed organizations into realizing the importance of having an engaged workforce; however, the dearth of academic research on employee engagement (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004) has limited the ability of science to inform practice in this area.

Specifically, little work exists upon which organizations can draw to determine how to foster an engaged workforce. Though some are turning to a focus on job characteristics (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008), organizational leaders are seeking broader-based interventions (i.e., as compared to job-specific interventions) that might affect the organization as a whole (Bunker & Alben, 1992). Thus, examining the influence of organizational characteristics that may affect the entire organization addresses this need and desire for broader-based interventions.

The literature in organizational prestige and image may serve as a fruitful starting ground for examining what an organization can do to promote an engaged workforce.

Namely, perceived organizational prestige is seen as the reputation employees believe the company holds (Carmeli & Freund, 2002; Dutton & Dukerich, 1991). Specifically, when employees believe that outsiders see the organization in a positive light, they “bask in the reflected glory” (Cialdini et al., 1976, p. 366), which translates into desirable outcomes such as intraorganizational cooperation and citizenship behaviors (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). In contrast, when employees believe that outsiders perceive the organization negatively, they experience depression and stress, potentially resulting in disengagement from their work roles or the organization (Dutton et al., 1994).

Because of how it functions in either fostering adaptive or depressive behavior, organizational prestige may serve as a job resource or demand. Specifically, the job-demands resources theory (JD-R; Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) suggests job demands and job resources either inhibit or foster employee engagement, respectively. Variables that have been identified as organizational resources most closely related to the perceptions of organizational prestige include organizational climate (Salanova, Bakker, & Llorens, 2006) and organizational-based self-esteem (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). Thus, according to the JD-R theory, perceived organizational prestige may serve as a job resource that will facilitate and foster employee engagement. An examination of the potential effects of organizational prestige on employee engagement may shed light on an avenue that organizations can pursue for promoting an engaged workforce. Such an examination, as of yet, has not been undertaken.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to examine the relationship between perceived organizational prestige and employee engagement. It is proposed that

perceived organizational prestige is indirectly related to employee engagement through its relationship with organizational identification (see Figure 1). That is, positive perceptions of organizational prestige lead to employee identification with the organization, which leads to employee engagement.

This study contributes to both research and practice in a number of ways. First, this study expands the academic literature on employee engagement by extending the current knowledge base on what might encourage employees to become engaged in their work roles. By focusing on what organizations can do to foster employee engagement, this study contributes to a part of the nomological network (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) of employee engagement that, heretofore, has received little attention. Second, this study contributes to practice by providing empirical support for how organizations might promote and foster employee engagement.

Theoretical Background

Employee Engagement

Kahn (1990) defined employee engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves into their work roles” (p. 694). According to Kahn, employee engagement is a psychological state wherein employees give all of themselves to their work roles. Engaged employees keep themselves in their work role “without sacrificing one for the other” (p. 700). Kahn conceptualized employee engagement as a higher-order construct consisting of three components: physical, cognitive and emotional. When engaged, “people become physically involved in tasks, whether alone or with others, cognitively vigilant, and empathetically connected to others in the service of the work they are doing” (Kahn, p. 700). These three dimensions (i.e., physical, cognitive, and

emotional) of engagement represent Kahn's argument that when individuals are engaged, they use all aspects of themselves in their work activities (Kahn, 1990, 1992). It is the *simultaneous* investment of physical, emotional and cognitive energy that distinguishes Kahn's conceptualization of employee engagement from typical job performance (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010).

Burnout researchers originally defined employee engagement as the opposite of burnout with three components: energy, involvement, and efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Employee engagement has subsequently been redefined as being composed of three slightly different, but related components: vigor, absorption, and dedication (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). These authors further clarify engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by these three components (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience or persistence in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to a sense of enthusiasm, significance, pride and a particularly strong involvement in and for one's work. Absorption refers to full concentration in one's work where time passes quickly and one has difficulty detaching from work. Though these three elements are different from Kahn's (1990), they overlap to the extent that engagement is defined as being comprised of a physical/energy level component, a cognitive/absorption component, and an affective/dedication-enthusiasm component.

Based on a review of the engagement literature, Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) concluded that the vast majority of studies reviewed drew on Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement. The current study is no exception in this regard and also draws on Kahn's conceptualization of engagement. Specifically, employee

engagement is conceptualized as a state wherein individuals bring forth “increasing depths of the self in the service of one’s broadly defined role” (Rich et al., 2010, p. 619). This conceptualization has important implications for understanding the differential relationships between employee engagement and related constructs.

Distinguishing engagement from other constructs. The construct uniqueness of employee engagement has been debated in academic literature (e.g., Macey & Schneider, 2008), though much of this discussion has been conjecture due to the limited empirical evidence for the discriminant validity of employee engagement (for exception see Christian et al., 2011 and Rich et al., 2010). For example, Macey and Schneider (2008) proposed that employee engagement is conceptually distinct from job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement based on the definitions and theoretical implications of these various constructs. Specifically, employee engagement is distinct from job satisfaction in that job satisfaction implies satiation, whereas engagement implies activation (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Moreover, job satisfaction is an evaluative process, whereas engagement is a description of individual’s holistic experiences resulting from the work (Christian et al., 2011). Similarly, organizational commitment refers to an emotional attachment by the employee to the organization (Mowday, 1998).

Thus, engagement differs from job satisfaction and commitment because it is more than just an evaluative process or an affective reaction to the work environment. Engagement represents the holistic investment of one’s full self into the work role, which involves cognitive, physical, and emotional investments (Kahn, 1990). Macey and Schneider (2008) proposed that organizational commitment is a facet of employee

engagement, but only one of many constructs that comprise the full construct of employee engagement.

Furthermore, Macey and Schneider (2008) proposed that job involvement is closely related to employee engagement, but still distinct from the full construct of employee engagement. Job involvement is defined as “a cognitive or belief state of identification” (Kanungo, 1982, p. 342). By definition, job involvement is distinct from employee engagement in that job involvement *only* refers to cognitive states, whereas engagement encompasses cognitive, physical, and emotional experiences. Some have declared (i.e., Rich et al., 2010) that the broader, more holistic focus of employee engagement on multiple aspects (i.e., cognitive, physical and emotional) of employees’ selves is what explains the stronger relationships between engagement and task and contextual performance, than is explained by the more narrowly defined job attitude constructs such as job satisfaction and job involvement.

Recently, scholars have moved past conjecture and empirically investigated the discriminant validity of employee engagement (Christian et al., 2011). Using meta-analytic procedures and path modeling, Christian et al. (2011) tested the discriminant validity of employee engagement along with proposed antecedents and consequences. They concur with Macey and Schneider (2008) that employee engagement shares conceptual space with job attitudes such as organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. They report moderately strong correlations between these variables (i.e., organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction) and employee engagement ($r = .59, .53, .52$, respectively). However, employee engagement explained incremental variance over these job attitudes in predicting task and contextual

performance, suggesting that employee engagement is, indeed, a unique construct (Christian et al., 2011).

Benefits of engagement. A notable benefit of employee engagement is employee health and happiness. To illustrate, research evidence suggests that engagement is associated with high psychological and physical well-being (Attridge, 2009; Camkin, 2008; Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006; Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008). Several scholars have even proposed that engagement is an indicator of employee well-being (Kinnunen, Feldt, & Makikangas, 2008; Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Ramos, Perio, & Cropanzano, 2008), suggesting that one can gauge an employees' physical and psychological well-being by their level of engagement. Moreover, engaged employees are not only healthier employees, but they are happier than their counterparts who are not engaged. In support, empirical research has shown a positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction (Kamalanabhan, Sai, & Mayuri, 2009; Koyuncu et al., 2006; Saks, 2006), indicating that being engaged is healthy and fun, making engagement a construct of interest to researchers focused on the human aspect of work.

From a practice perspective, empirical research has shown that engagement relates to many beneficial organizational outcomes such as organizational performance, productivity, and profitability (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002), making it a valuable construct for organizations. For example, organizational leaders at Caterpillar, a construction-equipment company, report employee engagement initiatives resulted in annual savings of \$8.8 million from decreased attrition, absenteeism, and overtime in their European plant alone (Vance, 2006). Moreover, Caterpillar reported a 70% increase

in output only four months after employee engagement initiatives were instituted at their Asia Pacific plant (Vance, 2006). Though direct causal evidence has not provided, such numbers are attributed to engaged employees being high performers (Halbeslesben & Wheeler, 2008).

Furthermore, engaged workers are more creative and more willing to expend discretionary effort than unengaged workers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Additionally, employee engagement has been positively correlated with attitudinal organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment (Saks, 2006), job involvement (Rich et al., 2010), workplace optimism (Medlin & Green, 2009), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Saks, 2006), and has been negatively correlated with outcomes that organizations wish to minimize, such as intentions to quit (Harter et al., 2003; Saks, 2006) and absence frequency (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). Hence, research suggests that organizations benefit financially and behaviorally from engaged employees.

Gap in our understanding. The literature regarding employee engagement has been primarily put forth by consulting firms and practitioners, leaving a gap in the empirical research literature. That is, although the consulting orientation is valuable in gaining an understanding of the practice of employee engagement, the theoretical and empirically supported nomological network (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) remains sparse and inconsistent (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Unfortunately, a substantial portion of the empirical research that does exist has been grounded in theories of burnout and stress (e.g. Maslach & Leiter, 1997), which provides only one view of the employee engagement construct. Recently Rich et al. (2010) attempted to address criticisms of previous measures of employee engagement (e.g., Gallup 12, Utrecht Work Engagement

Scale), focusing on the conceptual overlap with related constructs in an effort to promote construct clarification. By operationalizing and measuring employee engagement as distinct from other constructs and grounded in theory, an understanding of the theoretical foundation and nomological network of employee engagement can be advanced to catch-up with the practice of engaging employees. Though a step forward, Rich et al.'s (2010) research is not enough.

In summary, though progress has been made in understanding employee engagement, gaps exist in the current employee engagement literature. Limited research has examined the relationship between employee engagement and variables that organizations have the ability to influence. For example, no research has been published that examines the relationship between employee engagement and perceptions of organizational prestige, even though prestige has been associated with attracting and retaining top performers (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009) – performers who may actually be engaged employees. Thus, although previous engagement theory and research have focused on the relationship between individual employee factors such as job satisfaction, role characteristics, job demands, and resources, the extension of research to factors that organizations have greater control over has been limited (Demerouti et al., 2001; Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006).

Perceived Organizational Prestige (PEP)

One factor that organizations can affect is their image and the subsequent perceptions of organizational prestige (Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001). Mael and Ashforth (1992) defined perceived organizational prestige (PEP) as the degree to which the institution is well regarded, in absolute and comparative terms, by those within the

organization. Smidts et al. (2001) defined perceived organizational prestige as an employee's beliefs about how organizational outsiders view the organization. Other scholars use the term *construed external image* interchangeably with organizational prestige, suggesting that they refer to the same beliefs (Dutton et al., 1994).

PEP is distinct from organizational image or organizational reputation in that PEP refers to the organizational image or reputation that employees *believe* outsiders hold of their organization, whereas organizational image or reputation is the image that organizational outsiders *actually* hold. Dutton and Dukerich (1991) suggest that insiders and outsiders have access to different information about the organization and, therefore, apply different values and goals in interpreting this information. Hence, although the inside and outside images may be similar, most organizations are unable to fully align outsiders' beliefs about an organization with insiders' readings of these beliefs (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991), resulting in a discrepancy between PEP and organizational image or reputation. PEP is commonly considered an individual level variable as it refers to individuals' perceptions and interpretations based on their unique exposure to information about the organization (Smidts et al., 2001).

PEP is related to employees' workplace attitudes, such as affective commitment and job satisfaction, as well as employees' overall affective well-being (Carmeli & Freund, 2002; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2004). Results from meta-analytic research suggest that a common behavioral outcome of these positive affective states is organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995), also referred to as extra-role performance behaviors (Organ, 1988). For example, if organizational members believe that outsiders see the organization in a positive light,

they “bask in the reflected glory” (Cialdini et al., 1976, p. 366), which some have suggested often results in employees demonstrating intraorganizational cooperation and organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g, Dutton, et al., 1994). Conversely, Dutton and colleagues (1994) suggest that when the organization is perceived negatively, members experience depression and stress, and disengage themselves from organizational roles or worse yet, exit the organization (Dutton, et al., 1994).

Given the beneficial relationships associated with positive perceptions of organizational prestige, organizations may wish to influence prestige in an attempt to obtain great levels of engagement and organizational citizenship behaviors. Ways organizations can influence PEP include increasing organizational success in goal achievement and increasing the visibility of the organization (Fuller et al, 2006; March & Simon, 1958). These mechanisms, which are considered symbols of success, will likely increase reputation as well as internal perceptions of prestige, offering a greater return on investment. For example, organizations can invest in reputation and perceptions of prestige by increasing external communications through corporate campaigns and advertisements (Fuller et al, 2006; Smidts et al., 2001). However, increasing goal achievement and visibility of the organization can be difficult to implement given the complexity of factors involved and the resources needed to do so. Fortunately, organizations have additional mechanisms by which they can positively influence employees’ perceptions of organizational prestige with relatively minor resources. For example, Fuller et al. (2006) suggests that to improve perceptions of prestige, organizations should highlight organizational and employee achievements through organizational communications internally such as emails, memorandums, recognition

ceremonies, and through the company website. Furthermore, organizations can increase the visibility of organizational and employee accomplishments through recruiting, training, and socialization programs by highlighting organizational and employee accomplishments within the context of these programs (Fuller et al., 2006).

The Current Study Model

Bakker, Schaufeli, and colleagues (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti, et al., 2001) have applied the job-demands resources (JD-R) theory to identify conditions that inhibit or contribute to employee engagement. The JD-R model suggests that every occupation has associated with it both job demands and job resources. Job demands refer to physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that require physical or psychological effort (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources refer to physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that may be functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands by reducing psychological or physical costs, or stimulate personal growth and development. There are three basic premises to the JD-R model. First, job demands are seen as factors that can exhaust employees and deplete their mental and physical resources, thereby reducing the likelihood of them experiencing engagement. Second, job resources are seen as motivational and instrumental in facilitating employee engagement. The third premise of JD-R corresponds to the interaction between job demands and resources. Specifically, the model suggests that job demands and resources interact with one another such that job resources can buffer the negative effects associated with job demands. Following from this theory, Bakker, Schaufeli, and colleagues suggest that employees who have greater resources than demands will be more likely to experience engagement, whereas employees with greater

demands than resources will be more likely to experience exhaustion and burnout (Bakker, et al., 2003).

PEP has been conceptualized as both an organizational and personal resource to employees (Carmeli & Freund, 2002; Fuller et al., 2006; Hall, 1992). Hence, according to the JD-R model of employee engagement, PEP should promote employee engagement. The argument follows as such. Based on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), Tyler and colleagues suggest that “people use groups as sources of information about themselves” (Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996, p. 914). Specifically, employees use the status or perceived status of their organization to assess their own self-worth (Tyler, 1999). Such self-assessments are consistent with Cooley’s concept of the looking-glass self (1902), which refers to the idea that individuals’ self-concepts are formed as reflections of the responses and evaluations of others in the social environment. Thus, according to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), when employees perceive that external evaluations of their organization result in perceptions of positive prestige, they subsequently evaluate their own self-worth as quite high. Furthermore, such positive evaluations contribute to their enhanced self-esteem. Socioemotional resources are those that related to an individual’s social and self-esteem needs (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus, PEP can be considered a socioemotional resource. According to the JD-R, resources are antecedents to employee engagement and, therefore, because PEP is a resource, it will be positively related to employee engagement.

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of organizational prestige will be positively related to employee engagement.

Social identity theory suggests that individuals' self-concept is partly defined by membership in a particular group and that individuals strive to maintain a positive self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Additionally, Tajfel and Turner (1986) argue that positive social identity is based on favorable comparisons between the group to which one identifies with (in-group) and groups with which one does not identify (out-groups). To maintain a positive self-concept, the in-group must be perceived as positively differentiated or distinct from out-groups. Tajfel and Turner argue that when individuals do not perceive their in-group favorably, they will strive to leave that group and join another, more positively perceived group. The ultimate goal of positive differentiation is to achieve or maintain superiority over out-groups on certain dimensions. As such, individuals will join and identify with high status groups and will avoid membership in or identification with low status groups (Tyler & Blader, 2001).

In an application of social identity theory to organizations, Mael and Ashforth (1992) proposed that individuals tend to identify with organizations that are perceived by outsiders as prestigious. Thus, the more prestigious the organization, the greater the enhancement of an individual's self-esteem through the process of social identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). As a result, it is hypothesized that PEP is positively related to organizational identification.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of organizational prestige will be positively related to organizational identification.

Based on the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003), organizational identification should be directly related to employee engagement. The group engagement model holds that social identification with the group influences

individual's behavioral effort on behalf of the group. Specifically, this model suggests that individuals who strongly identify with their group are intrinsically motivated to support the success and viability of their group because of the integration with their own self-concept (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003). Individuals who strongly identify with the group are inherently interested in the group's welfare and therefore, this model suggests they are more willing to display extrarole behaviors to promote the group's welfare (Blader & Tyler, 2009). Though extrarole behavior and employee engagement are not the same, employee engagement is the investment of one's full self into one's work roles (Kahn, 1990) and, therefore, arguably constitutes an additional mechanism through which employees can promote the success and welfare of their group.

Hypothesis 3: Organizational identification will be positively related to employee engagement.

If the first three hypotheses proposed are supported, the combined model proposes organizational identification will partially mediate the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. Though there is reason to suggest a direct relationship between PEP and EE (e.g., JD-R), it is also through the process of incorporating the organizational identity and perceived prestige of the organization with one's *own* identity that PEP will relate to engagement. That is, according to the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003) integration of the group identity (e.g., prestige) with one's own self-concept (i.e., organizational identification) is essential, though not exclusive, in explaining and predicting subsequent behaviors that promote the welfare of the group (i.e., engagement). Thus, organizational identification is proposed to partially mediate, but not fully mediate, the relationship between PEP and employee engagement.

In summary, based on social identity theory, job-demands resources theory, and the group engagement model combined, the model for this study (shown in Figure 1) shows that perceptions of organizational prestige will be positively related to organizational identification, which in turn, will be positively related to employee engagement. Additionally, the three hypotheses combined result in a model wherein organizational identification partially mediates the relationship between PEP and employee engagement.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

The archival data used for this study was part of a larger data set collected by undergraduate psychology students as part of a class project in 2009. Students were instructed to recruit five working adults (20 or more hours per week, permanent job), and that they themselves could not participate in completing the survey. A total of 46 students participated in recruitment. Each student recruited at least five working adults, however many students recruited up to ten participants for extra credit points. Students were given recruitment scripts that were approved by the human subjects review board, training, and were supervised in their recruitment efforts. Students provided the names, email addresses, and phone numbers of recruited participants. In total, students provided the names and contact information for 328 recruited participants. Recruits were then contacted and asked to complete a secure web-based survey and told that the survey looks at working adults' level of engagement, job satisfaction, and workplace attitudes. Participation was voluntary, with no incentives. Random phone calls were made to 50% of recruited participants to ensure that students followed human subjects' protocol.

A total of 272 working adults (i.e., working at least 20 hours per week) completed the survey, for a response rate of 83%. Participants were predominately female (58%) and Caucasian (92%) and worked in for-profit organizations (77%). The majority of participants worked full-time (84%) for an average of 6 years of organizational tenure.

Participants were employed in managerial and non-managerial positions, in a variety of industries including educational services (17%), professional, technical and scientific services (13%), health care and social services (12%), and accommodation and food services (7%), to name a few.

Measures

All measures presented in the survey are listed in Appendix A.

Organizational identification. Organizational identification was measured with a six-item scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992). Sample items read: “I am very interested in what others think about my employer”, “If a story in the media criticized this employer, I would feel embarrassed,” and “This employer’s successes are my successes.” Responses were captured on a 5-point Likert scale format (1 = *Not applicable to me* to 5 = *Definitely True of Me*). Meta-analytic research reports an average reliability estimate to be .84 (Riketta, 2005). The internal consistency reliability estimate in the current study, assessed with Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, was acceptable ($\alpha = .88$). Items were averaged to form an overall score of organizational identification. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed the unidimensional nature of the scale with all items loading greater than .75 on a single factor.

Perceived organizational prestige. Perceived organizational prestige was measured with an eight-item scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992). Sample items include: “People in my community think highly of my employer”, “My employer is considered one of the best,” and “Former employees of my company would be proud to have their children work here.” Responses were captured on a 5-point Likert scale format (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*). Previous research reports a reliability

estimate for this scale to be .79 (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Exploratory factor analysis revealed all but one item, Item 2, loaded on a single scale. The item reads “It is considered prestigious in the religious community to be a former employee of my company”. While prestige within the religious community was justifiably part of the content domain of perceptions of prestige in Mael and Ashforth’s (1992) original sample (i.e., alumnus of a denominational university), the divergent factor loading of this item suggests this is not an appropriate item for the current sample. As such, this item was dropped from further analysis resulting in a 7-item scale. The internal consistency reliability estimate for the 7-item scale, assessed with Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, was acceptable ($\alpha = .80$).

Employee engagement. Employee engagement was assessed using a scale recently developed by Rich et al. (2010) based on Kahn’s (1990) conceptualization of employee engagement. This scale is comprised of three dimensions: physical, affective, and cognitive. Participants rated their levels of employee engagement on a 5-point Likert scale (1= *Strongly Disagree* to 5= *Strongly Agree*). Example items are “I exert my full effort to my job” (physical engagement), “I am proud of my job” (affective engagement), and “At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job” (cognitive engagement). Reliability estimate for this scale have been reported as .95 (Rich et al., 2010). The reliability estimate for the current sample was also found to be .95, supporting the internal consistency of the scale items.

Though the scale measures all three components of engagement (i.e., physical, emotional and cognitive), there is no theoretical or empirical reason to hypothesize differential relationships between the three components of engagement and perceived

organizational prestige or organizational identification. Therefore, all 18 items of the engagement scale were average to create a single scale score. Exploratory factor analysis of this scale (see Table 3) resulted in a three-factor structure as suggested by Rich et al. (2010).

Demographics. Demographic information included gender, race, company size, industry, work status, job tenure, and organizational tenure. March and Simon (1958) initially proposed that organizational tenure is positively related to identification and subsequent research has supported this relationship (Cheney, 1983). As such, organizational tenure was held constant in the examination of the relationship of organizational identification and all other study variables.

Negative affectivity. Additionally, negative affectivity has been cited as a common source of bias in self-report assessments (Watson, Pennebaker, & Folger, 1987). Watson et al. (1987) note that negative affectivity is a widespread biasing variable that is likely to inflate relationships, particularly among variables that reflect perceptions of the job or job conditions. As such, negative affectivity was held constant to examine the relationship of the variables of interest without the confound of dispositional negative affectivity. Negative affectivity was assessed using a ten-item scale developed by Watson et al. (1988). The scale contains a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions, and participants are asked to rate the extent to which they generally feel this way on a 5-point Likert scale (1= *Very Slightly* to 5= *Extremely*). Sample items read: “Distressed”, “Scared” and “Hostile.” Watson et al. (1988) report internal consistency reliability estimates between .84 and .87. The reliability estimate of internal consistency in the present sample ($\alpha = .88$) was slightly higher than those previously reported and is

an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability (Nunnally, 1978; Lance, Butts, & Michaels, 2006). The ten items were summed to create a composite scale score.

RESULTS

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics, correlations between all study variables, and internal consistency reliability estimates along the diagonal. All study variables were entered into a single factor analysis and were subject exploratory factor analysis with oblique rotation. Items belonging to each variable loaded on a distinct factor with no cross loadings above .30 between variables. This indicates that all study variables are unique from each other in this sample.

Mediated hierarchical regression was performed to test all study hypotheses, following the steps outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). Prior to specifying regression models, all assumptions for multiple linear regression were checked. Examination of scatterplots showed linear relationships between the independent variables (i.e., PEP and organizational identification) and employee engagement, suggesting that multiple linear regression is appropriate. Partial regression plots also confirmed the variables of interest are related in a linear fashion. Additionally, the partial regression plots showed no indication of homogeneity variance issues. Standardized residuals were normally distributed suggesting this data meets the assumption of homoscedasticity, as well.

Examination of discrepancy and leverage statistics was performed to check for outliers. One case repeatedly offended conservative cut-offs for all of these analyses. Cook's distance was calculated to examine the amount of influence this particular case was having on the analysis. Using a conservative cut-off, this case exceeded the cut-off

suggesting that this case alone was exerting extreme influence on the outcome of the regression equation. Since this case repeatedly offended discrepancy, leverage, and influence statistics, this case was removed from subsequent analyses. It should be noted the process of removing influential outliers is controversial and there is no agreed upon method of handling such cases (see Orr, Sackett, & Dubois, 1991). However, using statistical approaches, such as the analyses described above, to identify influential outliers is a best practice (Roth & Switzer, 2002). Moreover, deleting influential cases on the basis of these statistics (e.g., DFFITS and Cook's D), though still controversial, is an appropriate way to deal with influential outliers (Roth & Switzer, 2002).

To test study hypotheses, mediated hierarchical regression was performed on the remaining cases ($n = 271$). A summary of all multiple regression analyses is provided in Table 2. In step one, employee engagement was regressed on the control variables (i.e., organizational tenure and negative affectivity). Negative affectivity significantly predicted employee engagement but organizational tenure did not.

In step two, PEP was added to the model to test Hypothesis 1 and establish there is a significant relationship between PEP and employee engagement to be mediated after controlling for organizational tenure and negative affectivity. PEP was a positive and significant predictor of employee engagement, thereby supporting my first hypothesis. In a separate regression, organizational identification was regressed on PEP and the control variables. PEP was found to be a significant and positive predictor of organizational identification, after controlling for organizational tenure and negative affectivity thereby supporting Hypothesis 2.

To test for mediation, employee engagement was simultaneously regressed on organizational tenure, negative affectivity, and PEP while controlling for the mediator: organizational identification. Organizational identification was positively related to employee engagement thereby supporting Hypothesis 3 (see Table 2). The relationship between PEP and employee engagement, after adding organizational identification, remained positive and significant. The strength of the relationship between PEP and employee engagement, after controlling for organizational identification, was smaller in absolute value than the relationship found above in step two. To test the significance of the change in beta, a Sobel test was performed (Sobel, 1982, 1986). The change in beta was significant ($z' = 3.76, p < .001$) indicating the indirect effect was significantly different from zero. Thus, organizational identification partially mediates the relationship between PEP and employee engagement in this study.

In summary, the results of this study suggest that (a) PEP directly predicts employee engagement and (b) the relationship between PEP and employee engagement is partially explained by organizational identification. The direction of the beta weights indicates the relationship between PEP and employee engagement is positive and that, in this sample, employees who perceived greater organizational prestige report higher levels of organizational identification and employee engagement. The positive relationship between organizational identification and employee engagement indicates that employees who identify with their organization report greater levels of employee engagement.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to explore the relationship between PEP and employee engagement in an attempt to expand the nomological network of employee engagement, as well as extend the current knowledge base on a variable organizations can manipulate (i.e., PEP) and employee engagement. The results fully supported the hypothesis that PEP is positively related to employee engagement. Additional analysis confirmed that organizational identification partially explains the relationship between PEP and employee engagement.

Based on the JD-R model, I proposed that because PEP functions as a socioemotional resource, PEP promotes employee engagement. Suppositions of the JD-R theory suggest that resources serve to promote engagement, whereas demands detract from engagement. The results reported in this study support my hypothesis indicating PEP is positively related to employee engagement. This is consistent with previous research showing that job and organizational resources foster employee engagement (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Moreover, these findings extend previous research in that PEP, before this study, has not been examined as an organizational or personal resource in the context of promoting employee engagement.

Based on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), I further proposed that PEP would be positively related to organizational identification. Findings from the current study supported this hypothesis indicating that employees identify more with

organizations perceived to be prestigious. This finding is consistent with an extensive collection of previous research that has found PEP to be positively related to organizational identification (Carmeli, 2005; Carmeli & Freund, 2002; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Smidts et al., 2001). The implication of this finding is that employees who perceive their organization as prestigious are more likely to incorporate this social identity into their own self-concept and identify with the organization. The role of organizational identification is, therefore, important in understanding the relationship between PEP and outcomes of interest (e.g., employee engagement).

Lastly, based on the group engagement model, I hypothesized that organizational identification would be positively related to employee engagement and that, as a result of the overall model proposed, organizational identification would partially mediate the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. Findings from the current study support this hypothesis and further indicate that organizational identification is more strongly related to employee engagement than PEP. Following from the group engagement model, support for this hypothesis suggests that when employees identify with an organization, they are more likely to want to support the success and viability of their organization (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003) and employee engagement is one mechanism for doing so.

Alternatively, the relationship between organizational identification and employee engagement might be explained using Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory. Cognitive dissonance theory suggests that when a person holds two cognitions that are opposing or inconsistent with one another, the person will experience dissonance and become motivated to alter and remove one of the two cognitions to relieve the dissonance

(Festinger, 1957). Given that both identification and engagement have a cognitive component, it is feasible that individuals who experience high identification and low engagement (or vice versa) will also experience cognitive dissonance. Identifying with an organization and incorporating this as part of one's self-concept conflicts with notion of cognitively detaching from one's work roles and organization (i.e., disengagement). Thus, according to cognitive dissonance theory, these individuals will subsequently feel motivated to alter their cognitions to be consistent with one another, resulting in a positive relationship between organizational identification and employee engagement. Accordingly, individuals who identify with the organization may be motivated to invest greater cognitive energy into their work role in effort to achieve harmonious cognitions. However, it is questionable as to whether this would result in increased levels of engagement given engagement is, by definition, the simultaneous investment of cognitive, physical and emotional energy (i.e., as opposed to only a cognitive investment). Thus, the group engagement model offers a superior explanation for why the relationship between organizational identification and employee engagement exists.

Regardless of explanation, the finding remains that organizational identification and employee engagement are positively related. The implications of these findings are that how an employee perceives how others view the organization ultimately relates to his or her level of engagement. Though previous theory and research has suggested that characteristics and resources of the job promote employee engagement, the role of features of the organization as a whole has been largely ignored. This study suggests that this oversight is problematic. That is, features of the organization as a whole (i.e., PEP)

and the resulting relationship with the organization (i.e., identification) play a bigger role in employee engagement than previously considered.

Study Strengths and Limitations

This study has both strengths and limitations that warrant discussion. A strength of this study is the sample, which was a large field sample of working adults from diverse industries. Additionally, attempts were made to mitigate the effects of common method variance by controlling for negative affectivity. This study also controlled for potential confounds with the proposed mediator, organizational identification, by controlling for organizational tenure. Lastly, this study focused on explaining organizational factors that promote employee engagement, rather than just examining the consequences of employee engagement, as many other studies have done.

A limitation of this study is the sampling strategy used. This study utilized a snowball sampling approach in which students were instructed to recruit working adults from their social network. Despite the generalizable characteristics of the final sample (i.e., diversity in terms of industry and organizational level), this strategy introduces counter reasons to question the generalizability of these results. For example, it is plausible the students who recruited for this study selected individuals they believed to be engaged rather than recruiting randomly. Indeed, the mean engagement level reported in this study was fairly high. Further, snowball sampling is a type of nonprobability sampling in which individuals volunteer to participate. Individuals who volunteer to participate in research studies tend to be systematically different than individuals who do not volunteer (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975). For example, volunteers tend to be better educated, higher in social-class status, higher in need for approval, and generally more

intelligent than non-volunteers (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975). However, this limitation is not unique to this particular study. Many studies, especially those conducted in field settings, rely on volunteers and thus, suffer from this same limitation. That is not to say the frequency of this approach makes this less of a limitation, but rather, this limitation reflects an unfortunate reality of conducting research in organizational settings.

Another limitation of the current study is the cross-sectional nature of the data. As a result, this study is unable to make causal claims in regards to the relationship between PEP and employee engagement which is presumed in mediational models. For instance, one could suggest that the direction of the relationship between PEP and employee engagement found in this study could actually be a bi-directional or a converse relationship. Previous research findings indicate that prestigious organizations are more likely to attract and retain top performers (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2009). Thus, it is feasible that prestigious organizations also attract and retain more engaged employees *because* they are a prestigious organization, calling into question the direction of the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. However, this study is grounded in previous theory and models that support the direction of the relationship proposed. Given the paucity of longitudinal research in organizational research, specifically in regards to employee engagement (Christian et al., 2011), theory-based hypotheses and explanations are the best practice available. Moreover, the finding remains that PEP and employee engagement are positively related, regardless of causal direction, which contributes to our understanding of factors related to employee engagement.

The use of only self-report data may introduce another limitation, common method bias or variance. Common method variance is variance that can be attributed to the measurement method rather than the constructs of interest (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), and may be potentially problematic in this sample given that all constructs were measured using a single self-report questionnaire. Negative affectivity has been cited as one potential source of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and was, therefore, included as a control to mitigate this effect. Moreover, all of the variables of interest rely on the subjective perceptions of individuals. Thus, self-report data is the best way to represent these variables and relationships. Regardless, future research should attempt to replicate the findings reported here, using methods that further minimize the potential for common method bias.

Further, the culture of the organization may explain both why an organization is perceived as prestigious as well as why employees are engaged (i.e., a confounding variable). For example, organizations with a strong, positive cultures tend to be perceived as prestigious because of the culture (both internally and externally; Hatch & Schultz, 1997). Likewise, previous research findings demonstrate that organizations with stronger cultures also have more engaged employees (Denison Consulting, 2010). Researchers at Denison Consulting suggest their research indicates that engagement is an outcome of strong, healthy organizational cultures (2010). If this were indeed the case, the exclusion of organizational culture in this study is a significant limitation that may result in an increased false positive rate (i.e., Type 1 error) and a potentially spurious relationship between PEP and employee engagement. Given the theoretical support for the hypotheses proposed, it is unlikely the observed relationship is spurious. However, the exclusion of

organizational culture is an important limitation of the current study that should be addressed in future research.

Lastly, the availability (or lack thereof) of other socioemotional resources may diminish (or strengthen) the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. The JD-R theory suggests that resources are interchangeable and the relationship between employee engagement and resources is somewhat irrespective of the particular resources involved (Bakker et al., 2003). The more important implication of the theory is the balance between resources and demands. As such, the availability of other socioemotional resources could aid in balancing the demands and therefore, weaken the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. Given that these variables (i.e., organizational culture and availability of other socioemotional resources) were not measured in the current study, one can only speculate as to how these variables would influence the observed relationship between PEP and employee engagement.

Practical and Theoretical Contributions

Despite the limitations previously discussed, this study has notable contributions for practice and theory. To begin, this study answers requests from organizational leaders seeking broad-based interventions to foster employee engagement. The findings of this study suggest that one way for organizational leaders to promote employee engagement is by increasing the perceptions of organizational prestige. Ways to increase perceptions of prestige include communicating employee and organizational achievements internally through emails, recognition ceremonies, and the organization's website (Fuller et al., 2006). Moreover, organizations can increase perceptions of prestige by communicating individual and organizational accomplishments during recruitment, socialization, and

training programs (Fuller et al., 2006). For organizational leaders wishing to promote employee engagement, the results of this study suggest investments in prestige perceptions are likely to offer the desired return.

Theoretically, this study extends previous theories and models in regards to employee engagement. For example, this study extends our current understanding of resources that foster employee engagement. Though PEP was theoretically conceived to be a resource for employees, this study is the first to operationalize PEP in this way. Additionally, this study extends the group engagement model by suggesting an additional mechanism for employees who identify with the organization can contribute to the welfare of their organization. Lastly, by examining previously unexplored relationships with employee engagement, this study contributes to explicating the nomological network of employee engagement, further defining its conceptual space. Delineating the conceptual space of a given construct is one of the defining features of a good scientific theory (Gelso, 2006). Consequently, this study contributes to advancing a theory of employee engagement.

Future Directions

To address the limitations of the current study, future research should explore the possible influences of unmeasured variables identified as potentially influential in the relationship between PEP and employee engagement observed in this study. Specifically, future research could examine how, if at all, organizational culture impacts the influence of PEP on employee engagement. By examining the influence of organizational culture simultaneously with PEP, future research could shed more light on the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. Moreover, future research could examine if

different types of prestige perceptions (e.g., social, economic, etc.) have differential relationships with employee engagement. In a related manner, future research could explore if this relationship (i.e., between prestige and employee engagement) is moderated by the source of organizational prestige and value congruence of the employee. That is, the source of organizational prestige, essentially why an organization is perceived as prestigious, may influence how PEP relates to employee engagement. Further, the value employees' assign to this prestige, in addition to the congruence with their own values, may influence the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. For example, an employee who perceives his or her organization as prestigious because the organization is socially responsible, may be more (or less) likely to report engagement depending on their own values of social responsibility.

Future research should also investigate the relationship between PEP and employee engagement while accounting for the availability of other resources, particularly socioemotional resources. As discussed previously, the availability (or lack thereof) of other resources may influence the relationship between PEP and employee engagement. Likewise, future research could investigate the influence of PEP on organization-based self-esteem and reported levels of employee engagement. Given PEP is conceptualized as a socioemotional resource with beneficial effects for employees' self-esteem based on organizational membership, it would be interesting to examine the relationship between PEP and employee engagement while accounting for organizationally-based self-esteem. By partialling out the effects of organizationally-based self-esteem, future research could further examine the tenants and potential boundary conditions of the JD-R model. Ideally, future research could determine the

causal direction of the relationship between PEP and employee engagement by conducting experimental, longitudinal studies of this relationship.

Conclusion

As organizational leaders are increasingly looking for ways to promote employee engagement, the goal of the present study was to explore how perceptions of organizational prestige may relate to engagement. By specifying organizational identification as a partial mediator of this relationship, the current study went beyond description of this relationship and offers initial evidence for why this relationship may exist. Findings of this study reveal PEP positively influences employee engagement and this relationship is partially explained by identification with the organization. These results have implications for organizations seeking to introduce broad-based organizational interventions in an effort to promote employee engagement.

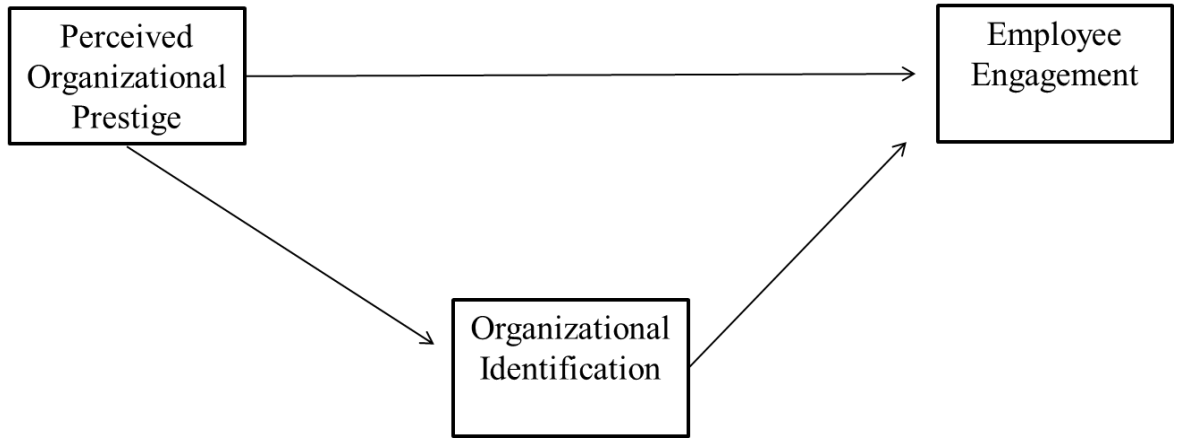


Figure 1. Overall model of the hypothesized relationship between perceived organizational prestige and employee engagement.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables(N = 271)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Organizational identification	3.68	0.85	(0.89)				
2. Perceived organizational prestige	3.82	0.79	0.36**	(0.80)			
3. Employee engagement	4.08	0.64	0.39**	0.34**	(0.95)		
4. Organizational tenure	6.03	6.11	0.12	0.13*	0.14*	—	
5. Negative affectivity	17.55	6.12	-0.11	-0.14*	-0.24*	-0.15*	(0.88)

Note. The alpha internal-consistency reliability coefficients appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

Table 2

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Organizational Identification Mediating the Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Prestige and Employee Engagement

Equation	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	β	se β	F	R ²	ΔR^2
1	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement	-.11	.01	9.97**	.07	
	Negative Affectivity		-.22**	.01			
2	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement	.08	.01	15.84**	.15	.08**
	Negative Affectivity		-.18*	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.29**	.04			
3	Organizational Tenure	Organizational Identification	.07	.01	13.56**	.13	
	Negative Affectivity		-.05	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.34**	.06			
4	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement	.06	.01	19.16**	.22	.07**
	Negative Affectivity		-.17**	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.19**	.04			
	Organizational Identification		.29**	.04			

Note. N = 271, β = standardized regression coefficients after all variables have been entered into the regression equation, se β = std error, ΔR^2 = change in R², * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 3
Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Employee Engagement Scale

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Item 1 (physical)	.11	.44	.67
Item 2 (physical)	.22	.39	.74
Item 3 (physical)	.21	.31	.79
Item 4 (physical)	.27	.34	.67
Item 5 (physical)	.24	.33	.67
Item 6 (physical)	.12	.21	.79
Item 7 (emotional)	.76	.25	.32
Item 8 (emotional)	.78	.19	.36
Item 9 (emotional)	.88	.20	.15
Item 10 (emotional)	.80	.30	.17
Item 11 (emotional)	.88	.19	.11
Item 12 (emotional)	.88	.16	.08
Item 13 (cognitive)	.29	.71	.33
Item 14 (cognitive)	.26	.81	.34
Item 15 (cognitive)	.26	.83	.28
Item 16 (cognitive)	.29	.80	.34
Item 17 (cognitive)	.19	.71	.39
Item 18 (cognitive)	.20	.75	.40

Note. Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Study Measures

Organizational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)

Not applicable for me	Not true of me at all	Mostly not True of me	Somewhat True of me	Definitely True of me
NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT

When answering the questions below, think of your employer or company for whom you work.

1.	When someone criticizes (name of employer), it feels like a personal insult.	NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT
2.	I am very interested in what others think about (name of employer).	NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT
3.	When I talk about this employer, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT
4.	This employer's successes are my successes.	NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT
5.	When someone praises this employer, it feels like a personal compliment.	NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT
6.	If a story in the media criticized this employer, I would feel embarrassed.	NA	NT	MNT	ST	DT

Perceived Organizational Prestige (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Don't really disagree or agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	People in my community think highly of my employer.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	It is considered prestigious in the religious community to be a former employee of my company.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My employer is considered one of the best.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	People look down at my employer.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Former employees of my company would be proud to have their children work here.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	My employer does not have a good reputation in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
7..	A person seeking to advance his or her career in this area of employment should downplay his or her association with my employer.	1	2	3	4	5
8..	When other employers are recruiting, they would not want employees from my company.	1	2	3	4	5

Employee Engagement (Rich et al., 2010)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	I work with intensity on my job. (physical)
2.	I exert my full effort to my job. (physical)
3.	I devote a lot of energy to my job. (physical)
4.	I try my hardest to perform well on my job. (physical)
5.	I strive as hard as I can to complete my job. (physical)
6.	I exert a lot of energy on my job. (physical)
7.	I am enthusiastic about my job. (emotional)
8.	I feel energetic about my job. (emotional)
9.	I am interested in my job. (emotional)
10.	I am proud of my job. (emotional)
11.	I feel positive about my job. (emotional)
12.	I am excited about my job. (emotional)
13.	At work, my mind is focused on my job. (cognitive)
14.	At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job. (cognitive)
15.	At work, I concentrate on my job. (cognitive)
16.	At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job. (cognitive)
17.	At work, I am absorbed in my job. (cognitive)
18.	At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job. (cognitive)

Negative Affectivity (Watson et al., 1987)

The following scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate number in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

Very Slightly (1)	A Little (2)	Moderately (3)	Quite A Bit (4)	Extremely (5)
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1.	Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Scared	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic Variables

1. In what year were you born? (years range from 1915-1995)
2. Gender (M/F)
3. Race
 - a. Hispanic or Latino
 - b. White
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
 - e. Asian
 - f. American Indian or Alaska Native
 - g. Two or more races
4. Is your company
 - a. For profit
 - b. Not for profit
5. Number of employees in your company:
 - a. 25 or less

- b. 26-100
 - c. 101-500
 - d. 500 or more
6. What industry best describes your company?
- a. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting
 - b. Mining
 - c. Utilities
 - d. Construction
 - e. Manufacturing
 - f. Wholesale Trade
 - g. Retail Trade
 - h. Transportation and Warehousing
 - i. Information
 - j. Finance and Insurance
 - k. Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
 - l. Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
 - m. Management of Companies and Enterprises
 - n. Administrative and Support and Waste Management and Remediation Services
 - o. Education Services
 - p. Health Care and Social Assistance
 - q. Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
 - r. Accommodation and Food Services
 - s. Other Services (except Public Administration)
 - t. Public Administration
 - u. Other
7. Which of the following best describes your level within your organization?
- a. Owner/Partner
 - b. Upper management
 - c. Mid-level management
 - d. First-line management
 - e. Non-management supervisor
 - f. Non-managerial with no supervisory responsibilities
 - g. Other
8. Are you...
- a. Part-time (at least 20 hrs/wk but less than 40 hrs/wk)
 - b. Full-time (at least 40 hrs/wk)
9. What is your tenure in years...
- a. With your company
 - b. In your current job

Appendix B

Post-Hoc Analysis with Physical Dimension of Employee Engagement

Post-Hoc Analysis of Multiple Regression Analysis for Organizational Identification Mediating the Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Prestige and the Physical Dimension of Employee Engagement

Equation	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	β	se β	F	R ²	ΔR^2
1	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Physical Dimension)	.15	.01	4.12*	.03	
	Negative Affectivity		-.07	.01			
2	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Physical Dimension)	.14*	.01	5.28**	.06	.03**
	Negative Affectivity		-.04	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.17**	.06			
3	Organizational Tenure	Organizational Identification	.07	.01	13.56**	.13	
	Negative Affectivity		-.05	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.34**	.06			
4	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Physical Dimension)	.12*	.01	7.23**	.10	.04**
	Negative Affectivity		-.03	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.09	.04			
	Organizational Identification		.22**	.04			

Note. N = 271, β = standardized regression coefficients after all variables have been entered into the regression equation, se β = std error, ΔR^2 = change in R², * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Appendix C

Post-Hoc Analysis with Cognitive Dimension of Employee Engagement

Post-Hoc Analysis of Multiple Regression Analysis for Organizational Identification Mediating the Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Prestige and the Cognitive Dimension of Employee Engagement

Equation	Independent	Dependent	β	se β	F	R ²	ΔR^2
1	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Cognitive Dimension)	.10	.01	6.08**	.04	
	Negative Affectivity		-.17**	.01			
2	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Cognitive Dimension)	.08	.01	6.32**	.07	.03*
	Negative Affectivity		-.15*	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.15*	.05			
3	Organizational Tenure	Organizational Identification	.07	.01	13.56**	.13	
	Negative Affectivity		-.05	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.34**	.06			
4	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Cognitive Dimension)	.07	.01	8.51**	.11	.04**
	Negative Affectivity		-.14*	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.08	.06			
	Organizational Identification		.23**	.06			

Note. N = 271, β = standardized regression coefficients after all variables have been entered into the regression equation, se β = std error, ΔR^2 = change in R², * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Appendix D

Post-Hoc Analysis with Emotional Dimension of Employee Engagement

Post-Hoc Analysis of Multiple Regression Analysis for Organizational Identification Mediating the Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Prestige and the Emotional Dimension of Employee Engagement

Equation	Independent	Dependent	β	se β	F	R ²	ΔR^2
1	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Emotional Dimension)	.04	.01	15.32**	.10	
	Negative Affectivity		-.31**	.01			
2	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Emotional Dimension)	.01	.01	30.80**	.26	.16**
	Negative Affectivity		-.25**	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.40**	.05			
3	Organizational Tenure	Organizational Identification	.07	.01	13.56**	.13	
	Negative Affectivity		-.05	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.34**	.06			
4	Organizational Tenure	Employee Engagement (Emotional Dimension)	.01	.01	32.32**	.33	.07**
	Negative Affectivity		-.24**	.01			
	Perceived Organizational Prestige		.31**	.06			
	Organizational Identification		.29**	.06			

Note. N = 271, β = standardized regression coefficients after all variables have been entered into the regression equation, se β = std error, ΔR^2 = change in R², * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$