ECONOMICS & Sociology

Sulphey, M. M., & Jasim, K. M. (2024). Is workplace identity scale (WIS) applidable across cultures?. *Economics and Sociology*, *18*(4), 256-271. doi:10.14254/2071-789X.2025/18-4/13

IS WORKPLACE IDENTITY SCALE (WIS) APPLICABLE ACROSS CULTURES?

Sulphey M. M.
Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, AlKharj, Saudi Arabia
mmzulfi@hotmail.com
ORCID 0000-0001-6042-2123

K. Mohamed Jasim
VIT Business School, Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India
mohamedjasim.k@vit.ac.in
ORCID 0000-0002-6417-0098

Received: January, 2025
1st Revision: November, 2025
Accepted: December, 2025

DOI: 10.14254/2071-789X.2025/18-4/13

JEL Classification: L84, M12, M54

ABSTRACT. Workplace identity (WI) is a multi-dimensional work-based self-concept that blends organizational, occupational, and other identities to shape people's responsibilities and behaviors. It has a positive impact on employee behavior and organizational outcomes. The study perfected and validated an earlier version of the Workplace Identity Scale (WIS) using a two-country sample (248 respondents from India and 239 – from Saudi Arabia). The revised WIS, which contains 14 items under four factors. It has been proven as a stable, reliable, and valid measure of workplace identity. Hence, the new alternative to the earlier version of WIS can be used across cultures to accurately measure WI. The revised WIS is expected to trigger renewed empirical interest in and examination of WI.

Keywords: identity, validation, workplace identity, workplace identity scale, WIS

Introduction

Workplace identity (WI), a behavioural construct that has recently gained traction in the management literature, is based on understanding one's work role (Sulphey, 2019, 2020). WI is a multi-dimensional work-based self-concept that integrates organizational, occupational, and other identities shaping individual roles and behaviors (Walsh & Gordon, 2008). The construct has a favorable impact on employee behavior and organizational outcomes (Amiot et al., 2007; Sulphey, 2020). With WI, employees experience pleasant sentiments as they perform the actions deemed correct and ethical. In addition, employees with WI identify themselves as an essential and integral part of their organizations (Sulphey, 2019). WI components like occupational knowledge and skills acquired through learning define work roles and tasks and help employees perform effectively. Any lack of congruence between occupational knowledge, skills, and work practices would weaken WI.

Further, for organizational performance to be effective, individuals must have multiple interactions and interconnections inside and outside their respective organizations. WI enables such interactions with ease. As a result, WI greatly impacts employee workplace behavior and

organizational outcomes (Amiot et al., 2007). It also positively impacts individual and group performance (Agostino, 2004). Amiot et al. (2007) claim that WI significantly impacts both "the subjective work and objective organisational outcomes". However, the results of a comprehensive review of WI literature demonstrate a paucity of standardized tools to measure WI, which likely prevents further accumulation of empirical evidence. A few social scientists have developed scales to measure WI (Sulphey, 2020; Walsh & Gordon, 2008), notably Banerjee (2013), with eight items, Cortini (2016), with five, and Bothma & Roodt (2013), with 28 items. All these scales had only a single factor. Another scale created by Sulphey (2020) had 18 items grouped under five factors. However, according to Bothma & Roodt (2012), "no suitable measuring instrument was found that complied with the requirements of the theoretical definition of WI".

A few of these tools were constructed by putting together a few items in an ad-hoc manner. For instance, the Scale by Banerjee (2013) had eight items. The study has reported only Cronbach Alpha, with no mention of validation. Cortini's (2016) scale had only five items, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91. Both of these scales seem not to have followed methodological rigour while constructing them. Bothma & Roodt (2013) developed the questionnaire by combining five different scales or certain portions of other scales that measured varying dimensions of WI. They created a pool of 36 items from multiple questionnaires (Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Roodt, 1997; Serafini et al., 2006).

The pool, after Factor analysis (FA), generated 28 items. They reported a reasonably good Cronbach's Alpha (0.946). Even though the items were drawn from varied scales, the Exploratory FA (EFA) extracted only a single factor. As WI encompasses multiple facets or dimensions (Bothma, 2011; Bothma & Roodt, 2013), it is reasonable to expect the tool to be multi-dimensional. The Workplace Identity Scale (WIS) developed by Sulphey (2020) was based on data collected from 248 respondents from India. WIS was standardized based on well-established methodologies. It had five factors with significant validity and reliability. It has an Alpha of 0.89. This questionnaire was developed based on robust methodologies. However, the cultural sensitivity of the WIS was not examined since the earlier version was developed based on samples from a single country. The present study addresses this by purifying and validating the WIS based on two-country samples. Thus, the current work aims to introduce a short version of the WIS.

1. Literature review

WI refers to a person's psychological bond with their company and identifies themselves within their unique work context. Elsbach (2004) defines it as "an individual's central and enduring status and distinctiveness" at the workplace. According to Agostino (2004), WI is "the sense of individual identity that an employee derives from being part of a particular workplace." It is a multi-dimensional self-concept regarding the self that assists individuals in identifying themselves based on their work roles and help shape their responsibilities (Bothma et al., 2011). WI facilitates individuals to integrate their learned professional skills and internalize organizational standards meaningfully. WI also enables the creation of occupational identities and the resultant new images in their respective professional selves. Recently research in WI has increased manifold, leading to a requirement for an adequately validated scale (Sulphey, 2020).

Theoretical background

WI has its moorings in the Identity Theory. The theory is based on George Herbert Mead's (1934) sociological and social-psychological framework, which suggests that social roles can be considered a structure and meaning to human behavior. The theory evolved due to the efforts of multiple behavioral scientists, who attempted to elucidate how social structures affect the individual self-identity and how they impact social behaviors. It also suggests that individuals have multiple identities occupying specific positions or roles (Stryker & Burke, 2000). They may have chanched under the circumstances pressure (Hajduova et al., 2025; Mishchuk et al., 2023). Such identities help develop consistent individual behaviors that strengthen the identity. Further, individuals must deal with their identities separately through interactions with the affected persons. Identity theory links the identities of individuals to the various role relationships they occupy in a particular situation and the role-related behaviors (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Two theories that have implications on theoretical perspectives of Identity theory include the Social identity theory (SIT) and Organizational identity theory (OIT). Tajfel and Turner (1986) proposed SIT, which blends sociological and anthropological perspectives on self-categorization and cognitive distinctions between in-groups and out-groups. Tajfel (1981, p. 255) defined social identity as:

> "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group… together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership".

Thus, SIT emphasizes that individual identity is based on social relations (Stone, 1962) and the emotional significance attached to being a member of society. The theory describes identity as unique attributes, connections, and relationships with societal, occupational, and other related affiliations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Finally, the theory proposes that society shapes the self, and the self helps to shape social conduct.

OIT, which emerged recently, examines organizational identity (OI) based on various integrated levels of analysis, which was propounded by Pratt and Foreman (2000). They examined OI against constructs like leadership, adaptation, and the like, which impact organizational and individual effectiveness. According to the theory, OI facilitates integrating the organization's vision, mission, and values as if they were the same as the individual's. Empirical evidence suggests that identification with mission and values leads to employee commitment and organizational effectiveness (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Sulphey, 2021). OIT also focuses on the various factors that influence an individual's identification with his organization, thus having a bearing on the present study. Work and Organizations

Workplace identity (WI)

Despite WI being a new concept, a substantial body of literature has accumulated about it (Sulphey, 2019, 2020). It is a multi-dimensional construct describing the self-concept against the workplace milieu. It attempts to answer the question, "who are you?" and focuses primarily on the multidimensionality of the multiple relationships of an individual against the organizational context. It involves a plethora of paradigms that help to shape workplace behaviours. Walsh and Gordon (2007, p. 2) comprehensively defined WI as:

> "A work-based self-concept constituted of a combination of organisational, occupational and other identities that shape the roles individuals adopt and the corresponding ways they behave when performing their work in the context of their jobs and/or careers."

Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) identified WI to contribute toward a positive self-concept within one's organization. It is an enduring individual character that is continuous and ongoing, with its moorings in the organizational environment.

Utility of WI

WI is now seeing a steady accumulation of theoretical and empirical literature. It has interconnections with multiple OB constructs. Some of them include organizational commitment, positional, task, and group commitment (Baruch & Cohen, 2007), workplace spirituality (Sulphey, 2020), error avoidance, job involvement and commitment (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Hernik et al., 2025; Sandhya & Sulphey, 2020), long-term orientation (Sulphey, 2020), turnover intention, task performance (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Sandhya & Sulphey, 2019), organizational ambidexterity (Sulphey & Alkahtani, 2022), to name a few.

Components of WI include social and role identities. WI significantly influences employee behavior and organizational outcomes since the component of social identity naturally attaches each individual to their groups, and role identity mechanically ties them within their groups (Amiot et al., 2007). Proper managerial actions are of great importance in this process (Savanevičienė et al., 2025), particularly in monitoring the workplace environment (Bencsik & Juhasz, 2023; Karacsony et al., 2025; Michulek et al., 2024). In addition, WI is deidentified as an energy resource and a precursor for further resources in any organization.

2. Methodological approach

The study used the Workplace Identity Scale (WIS) to collect data (Sulphey, 2020). The Scale, which had 18 items under five factors, reported significant validity and reliability (0.87). The factors include Job centrality (JC), Self-identity (SI), Person-organization fit (POF), Job fit (JF), and Collective identity (CI). Therefore, the WIS was chosen for the study because it had good validity and reliability and enjoyed high inter-item correlations and Cronbach α of 0.87. In addition, all the items had good factor loadings, ranging from 0.52 to 0.78. Further, the WIS has been used in several other studies (Sulphey, 2021). The data for the study was collected online for over eight weeks. The questionnaire link was mailed to social media groups where the potential samples were members requesting to respond to the survey. Complete confidentiality was assured to all respondents. An informed consent was obtained, and no personal questions were included in the questionnaire.

The data were analyzed in stages. First, after initial screening and evaluation, the mean and standard deviations of the variables were calculated. Next, Factor analysis (FA) and SEM were used to test the research hypotheses (Hair et al., 1998). 269 samples were male (145 from India and 124 from Saudi Arabia), and 218 were female (103 from India and 115 from Saudi Arabia). There was wide diversity regarding qualifications, which ranged from Secondary to Doctorate. All the samples were gainfully employed in various organizations like manufacturing, service, education, hospital, government, etc. The average age of the Indian sample is 33.4 years (standard deviation of 9.78), and that of the Saudi Arabian samples is 34.5 years (standard deviation of 10.59). The average overall experience for Indian samples is 10.05 years (standard deviation of 9.59), and the Saudi Arabian sample is 11.46 (standard deviation of 8.89). The average experience in the present organization for the Indian sample is 7.02 (standard deviation of 8.52), and for the Saudi Arabian sample is 9.49 years (standard deviation of 8.48).

3. Results

The data were analyzed using SPSS and the Lavaan package in the R program. As the data for the study were collected using self-reporting, there is the possibility of Common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Therefore, the study used rigorous procedures to address CMB. Initially, the questionnaire was identified by reviewing the appropriate literature. In addition, no scope for identification of the items was maintained as the responses were kept anonymous. The respondents were requested to respond to the questionnaire as honestly as possible. Further, the items were shuffled thoroughly such that the respondents were not in a position to segregate the variables used for the study.

In addition, CMB was assessed using the Harman single-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ 1986). Harman's single-factor test analyzes whether a single factor accounts for most data variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The Harman single-factor test results revealed 3 factors with an eigenvalue of more than one. The total variance accounted for 79%. The initial factor accounted for only 71% of the variance, the second-factor 82%, and the third-factor 84%. Since no factor accounted for a high level of variance, there is no issue of CMB (Teo & Noyes, 2008).

Several procedures were adopted to ensure the consistency of the questionnaire. Towards this, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire were also assessed. The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha (Nunnally, 1978). The Alpha was found to be 0.981.

Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis

The multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) was carried out in R utilizing the Lavaan package. The MLR estimator in the Lavaan package was used to estimate model parameters and measurement model estimates using the maximum likelihood method with a chi-square value correlation scale and a robust standard error. Multi-group analysis was used to test the conceptual model, with all factor loadings constrained to be equal across the two nations. The analysis results revealed that the structural model fits the data well, which are discussed in the following sections. Chi-square (CMIN) "assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariances matrices" (Hu and Bentler, 1999: 2). It examines the statistical significance of the observed variables and expected results. Although there is no consensus about an acceptable value, it is recommended that ≤ 5.0 is ideal (Wheaton et al., 1977). However, due to the limited application of CMIN, like its sensitivity to sample size (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980), certain alternate indices are now used to assess model fit. Some of them include various other parameters like the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Goodness-of-Fit (GFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). The advantages of these indices are that they are insensitive to sample size and certain other parameter estimates.

CFI, an incremental fit index that assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix to the null model. Values nearer to 1.0 indicates a good fit, and the cut-off criterion is 0.90, as proposed by Hu & Bentler (1999). The value of CFI, presented in Table 1, shows a good fit in all the instances. The GFI estimates the proportion of variance explained by the estimated covariances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The standard cut-off point identified for GFI is 0.90. The current study has GFI values below this cut-off point (Table 1). Like CFI, TLI is also an incremental fit index. It evaluates the fit of a hypothesized model against a baseline model. According to Bentler & Bonett (1980), TLI values above 0.90 indicates a good fit. As can be observed from Table 1, TLI in this study is above the stipulation and hence enjoys a food fit.

The square root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix against the residuals of the hypothesized model is SRMR. Any SRMR value over 0.08 are considered good and acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, the SRMR values of the present study indicate a good fit. The RMSEA developed by Steiger (2016) identifies how well the model fits the covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). Diamantopoulos & Siguaw (2000: 85) identified it as one of the "most informative fit indices." Steiger (2016) identified the cut-off value or the upper limit for RMSEA to be 0.07. In the instant case, the RMSEA values (with CLF and without CLF) are within the stipulated limits (Table 1).

Table 1. Testing the first-order factor model

Fit Indices	Critical limits	India		Saudi		Combined	
		With CLF	Without CLF	With CLF	Without CLF	With CLF	Without CLF
CMIN/df	<5	1.23	2.38	1.24	2.45	2.86	2.11
CFI	>0.90	0.91	0.94	0.98	0.97	0.91	0.95
GFI	>0.90	0.97	0.93	0.97	0.94	0.93	0.91
IFI	>0.90	0.93	0.95	0.97	0.99	0.92	0.97
TLI	>0.90	0.92	0.92	0.91	0.94	0.95	0.94
RFI	>0.90	0.95	0.94	0.92	0.96	0.94	0.97
SRMR	<0.08	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09
RMSEA	<0.07	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.02

Next, the measurement invariance was investigated. The configure invariance was tested using a multi-group model, as Teo & Noyes (2010) stipulated. Table 2 presents the test of the measurement invariance for the multi-group measurement model. Model one examined the equal factor loadings, which considered the relationship between individual constructs and items of the combined data.

Table 2. Test of measurement invariance for the multi-group measurement model

	Model Explanation	Fit Indices					Model Comparison	
		χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	SRMR	Nested Model Comparison	Model Comparison
1	Equal factor loadings	2.63	0.012	0.92	0.852	0.081	0.945**	Accepted level
2	Equal intercepts and factor loadings	1.52	0.054	0.95	0.951	0.083	0.811**	Accepted level
3	Equal intercepts and factor loadings – Freeing intercepts	2.56	0.041	0.97	0.847	0.085	0.849**	Accepted level
4	Add second-order factor with no constraints	3.37	0.058	0.94	0.895	0.081	0.748**	Accepted level
5	Equal factor loadings of second-order factor	2.69	0.028	0.98	0.846	0.086	0.759**	Accepted level

Model one had a good fit with an RMSEA of 0.012 (Steiger, 2016) and SRMR of 0.09 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), with the data supporting the configurable validity for the common latent factor (CLF). Next, model two examined the equal intercepts and factor loadings, which involved the relationship between all the constructs and items. This also indicated a good fit

(RMSEA is 0.054 and SRMR is 0.83), with the data supporting the configurable validity for the combined samples' common latent factor (CLF). This meets the stipulations of the accepted region. Further, model two also had an acceptable fit for combined samples when tested for metric invariance without a common latent factor (CLF). These additional constraints did not result in a significant difference between Model one and Model two when using an analysis of non-central chi-square distribution. The result supported the metric invariance between the two groups (81 % which is greater than 60%).

Model three examined the equal intercepts and factor loadings involving the freeing intercepts or the scalar invariance. Here the relationship between the inner and outer models for the combined data was tested. Model three provided a poor fit for full scalar invariance (RMSEA is 0.041, and SRMR is 0.81). Finally, modification indices were studied, revealing that the poor fit for the full scalar invariance model was due to a lack of invariance in some item intercepts.

Model four involved adding a second-order factor with no constraints. In this model, the factors were individually measured for the combined samples. In addition, the relationship between the individual constructs and items was assessed. Table 2 shows that Model four fits the data well due to its freely estimated factor loadings for the second-order factor. Model five examined the equal factor loadings of the second-order factor. This model measured the factors for Indian and Saudi samples individually. The relationship between all the constructs and items was measured separately for both samples. Thus, it can be observed that a second-order factor loading constraint (Model 5) was added to ensure equality across groups. No significance was observed since the RMSEA was 0.028, SRMR was 0.086, and the non-central chi-square distribution test was not significant (Steiger & Lind, 1980; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Thus, it is evident from the results that the second-order factor loadings are in variance across the Indian and Saudi samples. Regressions of the factors on the background variables and the results of difference testing are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Testing higher order factor model - Initial

Hypothesis	Regression path	β coefficients	t-value		
			India	Saudi	Both
H1	JCA ---> WIS	0.46	0.243**	0.256**	0.459**
H2	SIB---> WIS	0.31	0.311**	0.311**	0.358**
H3	PO ---> WIS	0.37	0.246**	0.058	0.014**
H4	JF ---> WIS	0.44	0.217**	0.258**	0.241**
H5	CI ---> WIS	0.41	0.224**	0.398**	0.234**

The path analysis estimates the t-statistics and the variables' Standardized Path Coefficient (β coefficients), which examines their significance. According to Aibinu and Al-Lawati (2010), a significant effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables is signified by high β. In addition, the t-statistic examines the level of significance of β values. Hair et al. (2013) opined that the path coefficient is significant at 1% if the t-value is greater than 2.58. In Table 3, WIS is the dependent variable, and all the factors (JCA, SIB, PO, JF, and CI) are independent variables. The first hypothesis (H1) examined the connection between JCA and WIS. The JCA is the independent variable, and the WIS is the dependent variable. The analysis was done to test the relationship between the Saudi and the combined samples. It was found that the two variables have a significant positive relationship between Saudi and combined samples (t-value of 0.256). The second hypothesis (H2) examined the relationship between SIB and WIS. The t-value of the Saudi sample was 0.311, and that of the combined sample was 0.358, which is significant at a 0.01 level.

The next hypothesis (H3) examined the relationship between PO and WIS. The t-values for Saudi and combined samples are 0.058 and 0.014. As per the stipulation of Hair et al. (2013), the t-value of the Saudi sample was not significant. The t-value of the combined sample is also low. Next, H4 examined the relationship between JF and WIS. The t-values (Saudi sample – 0.258 and combined sample – 0.241) were significant at a 0.01 level. Finally, H5 examined the relationship between CI and WIS. The results show a significant relationship (Saudi sample – 0.398 and combined sample – 0.234). Thus, other than one hypothesis (H3), all the others were supported.

Scale evaluation

The scale evaluation is presented in the following sections. This section presents the results of Factor analysis (FA) – both exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory (EFA). The loadings of only the significant factors are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Factor Loadings

Factor	Items	EFA	Item to total correlation	CFA	Alpha	AVE	CR
JCA	I am valued because of my work	0.987	0.897	0.878	0.971	0.756	0.913
	My work is the most important aspect of my life	0.967	0.986	0.765			
	I am more known in society because of my organization	0.956	0.866	0.789			
	I am something in life because of my organization	0.945	0.855	0.811			
SIB	My values and organizational values match each other	0.906	0.877	0.789	0.907	0.785	0.904
	In my job, I have the freedom to decide what to do	0.944	0.856	0.709			
	I will recommend my organization to others	0.936	0.887	0.765			
	My job prevents me from becoming what I want to be**	0.924	0.908	0.771			
JF	The work I do at my organization is meaningful	0.933	0.921	0.876	0.933	0.724	0.946
	My work is a rewarding activity for me	0.924	0.978	0.811			
	I consider my job an important part of my life	0.911	0.897	0.877			
CI	When I talk about my organization, I often say "we."	0.976	0.893	0.745	0.942	0.711	0.927
	I contribute my maximum to group tasks	0.944	0.877	0.734			
	In my organization, I feel of being an integral part of the group I work with	0.934	0.944	0.711			

The FA identified four factors – Job centrality, Self-identity, Job-fit, and Collective identity, as presented in Table 4. The EFA scores ranged between 0.906 and 0.987, and CFA ranged between 0.711 and 0.978. These values meet the 0.40 stipulation of Hinkin (1995). Next,

the reliability of the toll was examined using Cronbach's Alpha and item-to-total correlation. The Cronbach alpha values ranged between 0.907 and 0.971, which are robust and well above the 0.70 stipulated by Nunnally (1978). Further, the item-to-total correlation ranged between 0.856 and 0.978, which also meets the stipulation of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2013). The convergent validity was examined with average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR), as stipulated by Hair et al. (2013). The stipulation of AVE by Hair et al. (2013) and Barclay et al. (1995) is 0.50. From the table, it can be seen that the AVE ranged between 0.711 and 0.785, thus meeting the stipulation. The rule of the thump for CR, as stipulated by Henseler & Sarstedt (2013), is 0.70. In the current case, it ranged between 0.904 and 0.946, which is well above the thump rule, indicating convergent validity. Figure 1 presents the initial structural model for the combined samples. It can be observed that one path was not significant.

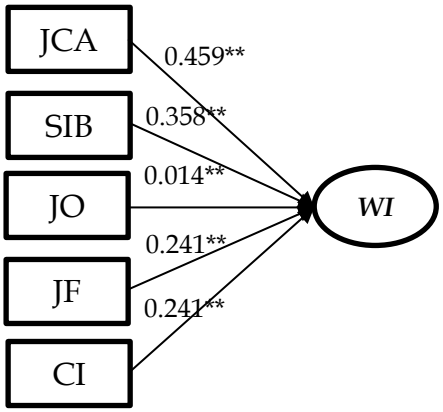

Figure 1. Initial Structural Model for the combined Samples (N=487)
Source: *own data*

Since one path was not significant in the initial model, the final model was then estimated. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5 and Figures 2 to 4. The table shows that all the paths, for both the Indian, Saudi and combined samples, have a significant relationship at 0.01 level, as Hair et al. (2013) proposed.

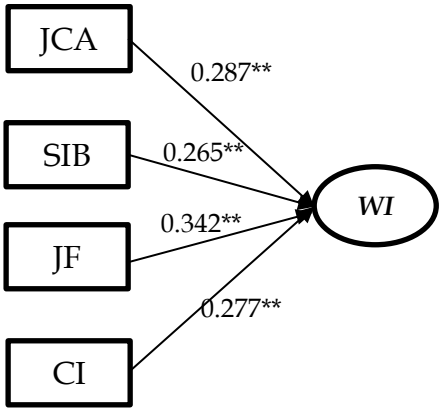

Figure 2. Final structural model for the Indian Samples (N=248)
Source: *own data*

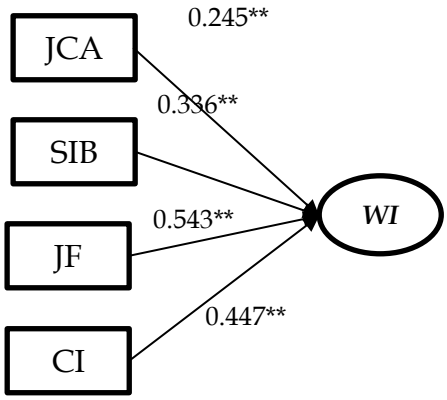

Figure 3. Final structural model for the Saudi Arabia Samples (N=239)
Source: *own data*

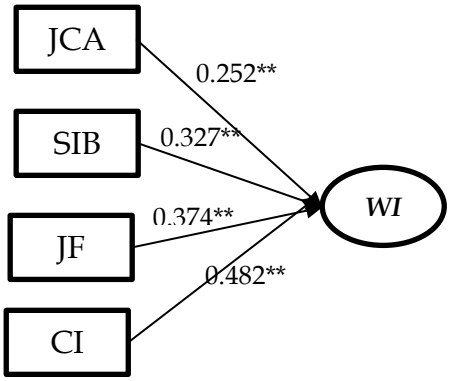

Figure 4. Final structural model for the combined Samples (N=487)
Source: *own data*

The final model is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Results of the final higher-order factor model

Hypothesis	Regression path	β coefficient	t-value			Result of hypothesis
			India	Saudi	Both	
H1	JCA ---> WIS	0.44	0.287**	0.245**	0.252**	Supported
H2	SIB---> WIS	0.39	0.265**	0.336**	0.327**	Supported
H4	JF ---> WIS	0.32	0.342**	0.543	0.374**	Supported
H5	CI ---> WIS	0.41	0.277**	0.447**	0.482**	Supported

This study further validated the WIS developed by Sulphey (2020). The analyses suggest that the WIS has satisfactory structural invariance for the two nationalities and is an ideal instrument for measuring workplace identity. Next, the WI between the two nations was examined using the WIS. The mean value for Indian sample was 53.92 and standard deviation 7.08. The meah value of Saudi Sample was 42. 02 with the standard deviation 12.22. Results show that there existed a significant difference (t-value of 12.98 – significant at 0.01 level) in WI between the employees of India and Saudi Arabia. This difference was observed in all four factors. Further, the WI of Indian employees is higher for all the factors and the overall score of WI. It is presumed that this difference in WI could be due to the cultural and social

differences between the two countries. This finding is a significant new addition to the management literature.

4. Discussion

The rapidly accumulating empirical data indicates that workplace complexity is a product of employee behaviour brought about by organizational competition. In addition, individual differences permeate all organizational levels making the situation further complex (Woods and Hampson 2010). WI is a work-based self-concept that blends organizational, occupational, and other identities that shape individual behaviors. It positively influences employee behavior and organizational outcomes. The study validated the WI scale on a two-country population. First, the Scale was developed and validated based on samples from India. The WIS is further validated based on samples from two nations – India and Saudi Arabia. Although collecting data from Middle Eastern samples bears multiple challenges (Banai et al., 2014), the challenges were addressed in the research. The two nationalities have different social backgrounds and cultures. The results presented in Table 6 show that most of the hypotheses, but for one, received consistent support across both countries. This research work has thus contributed to the refinement of the Scale.

The first version of WIS developed based on samples from India was a five-factor, 18-item questionnaire. The revised 14-item WIS, based on samples from two nationalities, captures four positively valanced factors of WI. The four factors are Job centrality (four items), Self-identity (four items), Job fit (three items), and Collective identity (three items). The internal consistency of the revised Scale is stronger than in the first version. Both measures share between 91% and 94% of their variances. The Scale has demonstrated robust reliability and different validities, presenting adequate evidence of its psychometric soundness and utility. The study has thus established the internal consistency of the WIS, and replicated and presented a robust model that aligns with the conceptual foundations of WI. Further, the WIS is a simple and easy-to-use tool for examining the employees' WI.

The study found the level of WI is much lower in KSA than in India. This difference could be due to the unique cultures prevalent in the two countries. While the former is a kingdom and is theocratic, with Islam forming the base, the latter is a democracy. In contrast to KSA, India is highly populous, and the survival of individuals is based on their competitive identity. Many Indian-born CEOs and executives in large multinational corporations across the globe are a testimony to this competitive spirit.

Implications

The study has several theoretical and practical implications. The most significant implication and contribution are that it revised the WIS, making it a psychometrically sound measure of WI. Social scientists, scholars, and management practitioners who intend to measure WI could benefit, as they can utilize the WIS developed and refined by this study. Measuring WI is essential as empirical evidence suggests that it is closely related to multiple salient organizational behavioural constructs. A few of them include satisfaction (Cortini, 2016), group identification (Whetten, 2007), long-term orientation (Sulphey, 2020a); commitment (Baruch and Cohen, 2007; Sandhya and Sulphey, 2020), workplace spirituality (Sulphey, 2020a); turnover intention (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Sandhya & Sulphey, 2019), task and organizational performance, and several others. These empirical findings accentuate this construct's resplendence and indispensability in modern-day work settings. Thus, WIS is expected to help researchers accurately measure WI, thereby triggering further research on the concept. It will

also be ideal if future studies examine the antecedents and consequences of WI. Examples could include behavioural factors, like leadership styles and interpersonal relationships. Further, WIS could also be used as a diagnostic tool to examine the WI of vulnerable employee populations like temp workers and non-standard workers to determine the need for effective identity dignity interventions.

Limitations

This research may have some limitations despite the theoretical and practical contributions. Initially, though the study was conducted with samples from two nations, the sample was limited to the Asian population. Though the belief structures in both nations from which the samples were captured are different, they are most likely to be culturally bound. The underlying cultural milieu differs drastically despite both nations having paternalistic and collectivist cultures (Hofstede, 1984). For instance, Saudi culture is predominantly Islamic and highly, with predominant tribal affiliation, while Indian culture is a blend of multiple religious, linguistic, and ethnic groups. According to Hofstede (https://www.hofstede-insights.com/), Saudi and Indian societies scored high in power distance. In contrast, Saudi Arabia scores low in long-term orientation, and India has an intermediate score. Thus, the dominant preference of individuals in Indian culture cannot be determined.

Asian culture, notably Japanese, refrains from self-enhancement, and the workplace is strongly linked to sacrifice, duty, and labour (Sagie et al., 1996). Both Saudi Arabia and India have Restrained societies. Restrained societies do not strongly emphasize leisure time, unlike Indulgent societies. Individuals in Restraint societies tend towards cynicism and pessimism and often exercise control over how their desires are satisfied. People in such societies perceive their actions as Restrained by societal norms and feel that indulging themselves is identified as wrong. Further, they strive to maintain some links with their past while dealing with challenges, and societies prioritize these two existential goals differently. In contrast, members of Western societies are reflected by contradictory attitudes and behaviour. They work and play hard.

Future studies need to be conducted with samples from Japanese and Western cultures. The Western culture is predominantly individualistic, and such studies would help identify whether beliefs' structure and endorsements would impact WI. In addition, western cultures place individuals in a superior position in the group, impacting individual and workplace identity. Further, the study did not investigate the respondents' actual identity behavior. It was limited to the identity at work. Individual identities in real-world behavior may differ from those in professional settings. Future researchers can use observational data collection as a complementary way to gather real-world data to attenuate these limitations.

Conclusion

The idea of identity has been the subject of earlier contributions from numerous disciplines, including sociology, psychology, and philosophy. According to Burke and Reitzes (1981), identity is "like a compass helping us steer a course of interaction in a sea of social meaning." It is a fundamental, cognitive, socialized, phenomenological, or psychic and discursive phenomenon that the public observes and interprets to direct human behavior. Interactions between people and their immediate environments affect how identity develops and takes shape. These interactions may shape a highly sophisticated cognitive identity development process. Any person could have a distinct self-concept and a unique personal identity (Sulphey, 2019). Bothma et al. (2015) identified WI as "a multi-identity, multifaceted and multi-layered construct within the self." Obschonka et al. (2015) identified that previous

behaviors, personality, competencies, and early parental role models could predict the identity and have provided social scientists the capability to control these variables, creating a strong identity. Identity is a definite resource for members to deal with organizational situations wherein job demands exceed available resources and help tide over crises. WI is necessary because it promotes alignment between the individual, his job, group identity, and engagement (Whetten, 2007).

The study was conducted to refine the WIS developed by Sulphey (2020). This refining has been done based on the samples collected from two nations. As a result, it is now a stable and reliable tool for measuring workplace identity. The refined WIS now has 17 items under four factors. More broadly, further research needs to examine whether culture determines WI. The validation of WIS from multiple cultures would yield a further refined, widely applicable scale. It is expected that this work will trigger further studies about WI.

Data availability

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Funding

The authors extend their appreciation to Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University for funding this research work through the project number 2025/02/32304.

Informed consent

We confirm that all the subjects were provided appropriate informed consent, and details on how this was obtained are detailed in the manuscript.

References

Agostino, J. (2004). *Workplace identity*. Unpublished thesis Doctor of Business Administration, Swinburne University of Technology, Hawthorn, Victoria, Australia.

Al Kahtani, N. S., & Sulphey, M. M. (2022). A study on how psychological capital, social capital, workplace wellbeing, and employee engagement relate to task performance. *SAGE Open*, *12*(2), 215824402210950. https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221095010

Amiot, C.E., De la Sablonnière, R., Terry, D.J., & Smith, J.R. (2007). Integration of social identities in the self: Toward a cognitive-developmental model. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *11*(4), 364-388. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868307304091

Ashforth, B. E. & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20-39.

Bajerjee, D. (2013). Workplace Identities of Women in the US Labor Market. *Sociology Mind*, 3(1), 19-24. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/sm.2013.31004

Banai, M., Stefanidis, A., Shetach, A., & Özbek, M. F. (2014). Attitudes toward ethically questionable negotiation tactics: A two-country study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *123*(4), 669-685. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-2016-4

Barclay, D., Higgins, C., & Thompson, R. (1995). The Partial Least Squares (PLS) Approach to Causal Modeling: Personal Computer Adoption and Use as an Illustration. *Technology Studies*, 2, 285-309.

Bencsik, A., & Juhasz, T. (2023). Impact of technostress on work-life balance. *Human Technology*, *19*(1), 41–61. https://doi.org/10.14254/1795-6889.2023.19-1.4

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin, 88*(3), 588–606. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.88.3.588

Bothma, F. C., & Roodt, G. (2013). Work-based identity and work engagement as potential antecedents of task performance and turnover intention: Unravelling a complex relationship. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 38(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v38i1.893

Bothma, F.C., Lloyd, S. & Khapova, S. (2015). Work Identity: Clarifying the Concept in Jansen, P. G. W. & Roodt G. (eds.), *Conceptualising and Measuring Work Identity*, Dordrecht: Springer Science+Business Media. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9242-4_2

Bothma, F. C., & Roodt, G. (2012). Work-based identity and work engagement as potential antecedents of task performance and turnover intention: Unravelling a complex relationship. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *38*(1). https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v38i1.893

Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1981). The link between identity and role performance. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *44*(2), 83–92. https://doi.org/10.2307/3033704

Cortini, M., Pivetti, M., & Cervai, S. (2016). Learning climate and job performance among health workers. A pilot study. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *7*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01644

Elsbach, K.D. (2006), Perceptual biases and misinterpretation of artifacts, in Rafaeli, A. and Pratt, M.G. (Eds), *Artifacts and Organizations: Beyond Mere Symbolism*, Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E. & Tatham, R.L. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. 5(3), 207-219, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.

Hair, J.F., Ringle, C.M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. *Long Range Planning*, *46*(1-2), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2013.01.001

Hajduova, Z., Mura, L., & Ostrihoňova, M. (2025). Exploring generational differences in corporate culture perception and career orientation in the environment of family businesses. *Journal of International Studies, 18*(3), 219-236. doi:10.14254/2071-8330.2025/18-3/11

Henseler, J. & Sarstedt, M. (2013) Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Partial Least Squares Path Modeling. *Computational Statistics*, 28, 565-580. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00180-012-0317-1

Hernik, J., Sagan, A., Jarecki, W., & Grinberga-Zalite, G. (2025). Digital transformation in business process management: The role of employee engagement. *Human Technology*, *21*(1), 203–221. https://doi.org/10.14254/1795-6889.2025.21-1.10

Hinkin, T.R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*, *21*(5), 967-988. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639502100509

Hofstede, G. (1984), *Culture's Consequences*, Sage, London.

Hofstede, G., & Bond, M.H. (1984). Hofstede's culture dimensions: An independent validation using Rokeach's Value Survey. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *15*(4), 417–433. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002184015004003

Hu, L.T., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes in Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria versus New Alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1-55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Karacsony, P., Czokolyova, A., Imreh-Tóth, M.. & Vandor, Cs. (2025). Analysis of well-being at work and working from home based on the results of a survey in Slovakia. *Economics and Sociology*, *18*(3), 160-174. https://doi.org/10.14254/2071- 789X.2025/18-3/9

Mael, F., & Ashforth, B.E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organisation. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 13, 103– 124. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030130202

Mead, G. H. (1934) *Mind, self, and society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Michulek, J., Majerova, J., Gajanova, L., Nadanyiova, M., & Hajdu, Z. (2024). Don't you know that you're toxic? Regression model of a toxic workplace environment identification. *Journal of International Studies, 17*(3), 226-243. https://doi.org/10.14254/2071-8330.2024/17-3/12

Mishchuk, H., Bilan, Y., & Mishchuk, V. (2023). Employment risks under the conditions of the Covid-19 pandemic and their impact on changes in economic behaviour. *Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review, 11*(2), 201-216. https://doi.org/10.15678/EBER.2023.110211

Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. 2nd Edition, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Obschonka, M., Moeller, J., & Goethner, M. (2019). Entrepreneurial passion and personality: The case of academic entrepreneurship. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02697

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management, 12*(4), 531–544. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920638601200408

Pratt, M. G., & Foreman, P. O. (2000). Classifying managerial responses to multiple organizational identities. *The Academy of Management Review, 25*(1), 18–42. https://doi.org/10.2307/259261

Sagie, A., Elizur, D., & Koslowsky, M. (1996). Work values: A theoretical overview and a model of their effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17*, 503-514.

Sandhya, S., & Sulphey, M. M. (2020). Influence of empowerment, psychological contract and employee engagement on voluntary turnover intentions. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *70*(2), 325-349. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijppm-04-2019-0189

Savanevičienė, A., Stankevičiūtė, Ž., & Girdauskienė, L. (2025). Exploring the effects of managerial behavior on STEM workers‘ psychosocial experience. *Economics and Sociology*, *18*(2), 119-138. doi:10.14254/2071-789X.2025/18-2/7

Steiger, J. H. (2016). Notes on the Steiger–Lind (1980) handout. *Structural Equation Modeling, 23*(6), 777–781. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2016.1217487

Stone, G. P. (1962). Appearance and the Self. In A. M. Rose (Ed.), *Human Behavior and Social Processes: An Interactionist Approach* (pp. 86-118). New York: Houghton Mifflin.

Stryker, S. & Burke, P., J. (2000). The past, present, and future of an identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 63, 284-297.

Sulphey, M. M. (2020a). A Study on the effect of Long-term Orientation and Risk propensity on Resilience, *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 40 (11/12), 1585-1610. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-09-2019-0192

Sulphey, M. M. (2021). Can spirituality and long-term orientation relate to workplace identity? An examination using SEM, *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 41 (9/10), 1038-1057. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-06-2020-0211

Sulphey, M.M. (2020). Construction and Validation of Workplace Identity Scale (WIS). *Economics and Sociology*, 13 (2), 53-69. https://doi.org/10.14254/2071-789X.2020/13-2/4

Sulphey, M. M. (2019). The concept of workplace identity, its evolution, antecedents and development. *International Journal of Environment, Workplace and Employment*, *5*(2), 151-168. https://doi.org/10.1504/ijewe.2019.103022

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.). New York: Allyn and Bacon.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel and L.W. Austin (eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations*. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human Groups and Social Categories—Studies in Social Psychology.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Teo, T., & Noyes, J. (2008). Development and validation of a computer attitude measure for young students (CAMYS). *Computers in Human Behavior*, 24, 2659-2667.

Van Knippenberg, D., & Sleebos, E. (2006). Organizational Identification Versus Organizational Commitment: Self-Definition, Social Exchange, and Job Attitudes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(5), 571–584. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.359

Walsh, K., & Gordon, J.R. (2008). Creating an Individual Work Identity. *Human Resource Management Review, 18*, 46-61.

Wheaton, B., Muthen, B., Alwin, D. F., & Summers, G. (1977). Assessing Reliability and Stability in Panel Models. *Sociological Methodology*, 8, 84-136. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/270754

Whetten, D.A. (2007). *A critique of organizational identity scholarship: Challenging the uncritical use of social identity theory when social identities are also social actors*. In C. A. Bartel, S. L. Blader, & A. Wrzesniewski (Eds.), *Identity and the modern organization*: 253-272. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.