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An examination of job resources and self-determination in employees' job involvement

Hernan Morales

FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

AN EXAMINATION OF JOB RESOURCES AND SELF-DETERMINATION IN EMPLOYEES' JOB INVOLVEMENT

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by

Hernán Morales

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To: Dean William Hardin
College of Business

This dissertation, written by Hernán Morales, and entitled An Examination of Job Resources and Self-Determination in Employees' Job Involvement, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

_____
Mark Thibodeau

_____
Frederick Perry

_____
Mido Chang

_____
Manjul Gupta, Major Professor

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The dissertation of Hernán Morales is approved.

_____
Dean William Hardin
College of Business

_____
Andrés G. Gil
Vice President for Research and Economic Development
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2022

DEDICATION

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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Professor Manjul Gupta, Major Professor

As employees and organizations continually strive to do more with less, the employer must remain an active partner in understanding the nature of their employees' job involvement for its competitive advantage. The main objective of this research is to evaluate the influence of several work characteristics and motivational forces on job involvement. The study used a quantitative methodology. The sample of the current study was composed of 214 subjects. The reliability and factor structure of the scales used were evaluated and validated. The main results showed that intrinsic and prosocial motivations significantly influenced individual job involvement. Moreover, the results show no statistically significant relationship between the selected job resources on job involvement. Overall, following observations and scholarly echoes to continue identifying causes and consequences of job involvement, this study contributes to the extant literature by supporting that a job-involved individual will differ from others in finding their jobs more intrinsically and prosocially motivated.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BCa	Bias-Corrected and Accelerated
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR	Composite Reliability
DV	Discriminant Validity
FA	Factor Analysis
HIT	Human Intelligence task
HR	Human Resources
MTurk	Mechanical Turk
PLS	Partial Least Squares
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

1. Introduction

It is not surprising that organizations need their employees to be involved with their jobs to account for growth, expansion, performance, or existence. Although a job can be seen as a job, it has different meanings across the spectrum. The most basic meaning is to bring your daily share home. Lambert (2008) reminded us that a person's job fills a significant part of their waking day, consumes a substantial amount of time, and often shapes their identity. In reality, organizations count on their employees to make decisions that will have a meaningful and impactful contribution to their daily success. Deci et al. (2017) suggested that many adults[1] in the world work in organizations, and their jobs vary substantially. For example, some individuals have relatively interesting occupations and are valued by others, while others have jobs that do not provide excitement or desire to be involved. Grant (2008) stated that scholars propose that work can be inherently interesting and enjoyable rather than assuming that employees dislike work.

The truth is that any given job simultaneously has tasks with some complexity and challenges. Organizations and practitioners are likely aware of this reality. However, they need to understand better the magnificent opportunity to calibrate their explicit knowledge and see the wealth of value in realizing the nature of their employees' jobs. Brown and Leigh (1996) indicated that organizations could create a competitive advantage by creating an involving and motivating organizational environment.

[1] In the United States, the age of majority is defined by state laws, which vary by state, but is **18** in most states.

Rothmann, Mostert, and Strydom (2006) signaled that the insurance industry is undergoing swift changes, such as fast economic growth, urbanization, and increased education, leading to high competitiveness and rivalries between companies and employees. This study was prompted by many years of observations as an operational leader at one of the largest property and casualty insurance companies in the United States. This organization has taken a proactive and innovative approach to the auto insurance industry by continuously looking for ways to distinguish and distancing itself from the competition and focusing on its accuracy, efficiency, and other key performance indicators.

This organization experienced a sizeable re-organizational change; specifically, one of its largest groups was impacted, and one was the researcher's workgroup. Some teams were expanded to distribute excess human capital by adding employees from different functional backgrounds and explicitly making room for displaced employees from other cohorts. These changes were implemented to expect these employees to take advantage of their previous work experience and utilize existing resources in their new department to generate positive outcomes. However, that was not the case. Instead, what was noted was a decline in individuals' job performance, criticisms, and complaints about the inadequacy of job resources, which in part may have added to the less job involvement and satisfaction from employees. In addition, the lack of motivation and persistence to drive results were evident.

This quantitative study intends to examine the effect of behavioral factors and work aspects on job involvement at the individual level. Factors such as job motivation and whether having adequate job resources impact employees becoming more involved

in their job. The construct of job involvement has been considered one of the indices of the quality of work-life (Elloy et al., 1991). Irrespective of the employee's job in the organization, a lack of identification with their job can impact their motivation to remain productive and yield an acceptable job performance. Nonetheless, it can also affect the employee's well-being and desire to stay with the organization. When an employee is not involved, it is plausible that their "head is not in the game," and they are not identifying with their job.

There is a sense that when people feel more motivated, they think that what they do will affect the outcome. Motivation is an inner energy that can move an individual from monotony to excitement. It is fair to point out that an employee could be motivated because of the challenging and complex aspect of the job or being intrinsically motivated, or perhaps the organization's resources' availability. Motivation positively impacts numerous job outcomes (Dobre, 2013; Grant, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, well-motivated employees with high job involvement are considered one of the most critical assets for any organization because the individual finds a purpose or energy by performing the job.

Curiously, another concern that fueled interest for this study came from having conversations with organizational leaders about the presence of a degree of ambiguity and ineffective understanding of the impact of their employees' behaviors and the saliency of their needs. Rizwan et al. (2011) pointed out a staggering fact involving the American workforce. Their study argued that most workers are not fully involved or disconnected from their jobs. This behavior costs US businesses $300 billion annually by decreasing productivity; this phenomenon is referred to "involvement gap" in the

employees. Nowadays, organizations have various tools to measure employee behaviors and job characteristics, but the mismatch noted is that these organizations and organizational leaders do not fully comprehend what they intend to measure and how to interpret it.

Demerouti et al. (2001) assert that one characteristic of a work environment is job resources, which can foster an individual to achieve work goals, decrease job demands, and stimulate personal growth, development, and learning. Elloy et al. (1991) suggested that job involved individuals differ from their less involved colleagues in several significant ways. Their jobs are more stimulating or higher in job characteristics, including autonomy and task identity feedback. For example, job characteristics with intrinsically motivating potential may inspire a sense of responsibility. More likely, employees will understand the importance of their work environment and value the mutually dependent relationships among employees (Chen & Chiu, 2009). While on the other hand, job characteristics such as the lack of variety in a job, strict supervision, and their effects on the involvement of workers have different outcomes (Kanungo, 1979).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), employees who have various job resources accessible can better manage their daily job demands. Practitioners may find that these are not necessarily tangible tools for job resources. The reality is that these job resources can be intrinsic and extrinsic. Examples of job resources are feedback (intrinsic), autonomy (intrinsic), and social support (extrinsic), to mention a few. If an employee possesses an adequate and balanced array of job resources, it is plausible to adopt that motivation and job involvement will be present. Jordaan and Rothmann (2006) signaled that job resources might play an intrinsic or an extrinsic motivational role in

their study. However, when employees do not have all the relevant work aspects or tools to perform their job is a different story. That side to the coin can be referred to as having an inadequacy of job resources, which can be hurtful and deprive employees of their desire to get involved in their jobs. When an employee lacks resources, it is difficult to cope with the job demands, and in contrast, there is a reduction in motivation and withdrawal from the job (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Interestingly, the root causes for the deficiency in knowledge and appropriate interpretations of this phenomenon are a priori for this research. From a business perspective, organizations and their leaders are missing the mark to efficiently and accurately measure the effect and potential impact of an involved versus an alienated employee. Organizations that have created cultures of unbalanced exception-based feedback or encourage micromanagement, believing that these practices will correct opportunities and provide employees with options to improve how they should see their job, are not necessarily on the right track. These organizational behaviors often neglect to accomplish anything positive and consistently acceptable, which can take away the energy and shift the way an employee sees their job. Jordaan and Rothmann (2006) pointed out that more research is needed to highlight human behavior's positive aspects and strengths in the work context.

Therefore, this study will answer the following research questions: **What are the effects of the relationship between job resources and job motivation on job involvement? Does job motivation moderate the relationship between job resources and job involvement?**

The opportunity to answer these questions will research why some individuals choose to invest and get immersed in their jobs more positively than others. Based on job observations and the literature reviewed on the constructs of interest for this study, the researcher proposes that some employees' behaviors are driven by external and internal factors, such as individual attributes and aspects of the work context. Testing the combination of these variables will provide information explaining variations in the level of job involvement that the researcher has not observed in the existing literature. Accordingly, this study seeks to answer both research questions by incorporating a review of existing literature and a comprehensive research methodology. The study will also include a conceptual research model along with hypotheses delineating the forecast effects, an analysis of the quantitative data, and a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the findings.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Job Resources

Over the last few decades, the backdrop of many job characteristics and work features, such as the constitution of the workforce, their working conditions, and technology advances, to mention a few, have changed considerably. One thing that has not been altered too much, which applies to any successful organization, is to maximize its investments and performance by reducing service delivery costs, improving its financial performance, and sharing key learnings to minimize the number of exceptions. To accomplish this goal, the organization needs to have a workforce that can cope with the job demands. Chen and Chiu (2009) defined “job characteristics as work-related factors or attributes that include the nature of the work itself and corresponding skills,

autonomy, challenges, work environment, salary, benefits, job security, feedback, interpersonal relationships, knowledge learned, and developmental opportunities" (p. 476).

A way for employees within an organization to decrease the number of work exceptions and better identify with their job is to possess adequate job resources. Bakker (2015) states that job resources can be used optimally to accomplish and reach challenging goals. This is because job resources provide meaning and satisfy people's basic needs. In addition, job resources can be an essential predictor of motivation (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Bakker et al., 2007). Job resources are defined as those "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that help employees achieve work goals; reduce job demands, stimulate personal growth and development" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Examples of job resources are skill variety, performance feedback, and opportunities for growth and development. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) provided additional examples of job resources, such as autonomy and task significance (i.e., the extent to which an identifiable piece of work affects or is necessary to others within or outside the organization). Furthermore, these researchers have contended and demonstrated that job resources have motivational potential. The motivational aspect comes because job resources make employees' work significant and hold them accountable for work processes and outcomes.

Throughout the literature, possessing adequate job resources, specifically intrinsic, can be a strong predictor and significant reason for how an individual gets involved in the job. Interestingly, Bakker et al. (2004) indicated that resources might be located at different levels, such as the organization or the task level. For this research, the

attention will be to what Bakker et al. (2003b) distinguished in their study as intrinsic job resources to the job (e.g., autonomy, feedback, and professional development). The latter is also supported by Rothmann et al. (2006), as these researchers posit that job resources can be an intrinsic motivator by promoting employee growth, learning, and development. In addition, individual intrinsic motivation, which will be discussed later in the chapter, suggests that the individual finds internal rewards and enjoyment in the job or task itself.

Breaugh (1985) referred to autonomy as "the degree of control and discretion a worker can exercise concerning work methods, work scheduling, and work criteria. One of the three most distinct facets of autonomy is work methods autonomy, the degree of discretion individuals have regarding the procedures they utilize in going about their work" (p. 556). Breaugh also described autonomy as an insight of self-determination regarding work procedures, goals, and priorities. He further added a link between autonomy and various well-known variables in the social sciences, job involvement, job satisfaction, and job performance. For this study, the focus will be on work method autonomy.

Intrinsic motivation and involvement have often been used together because researchers have assumed that a person involved in their job is due to intrinsic job factors such as autonomy (Gorn & Kanungo, 1980). Interestingly, autonomy is seeing a psychological contract entitlement provided by the organizations. In their study, De Cuyper et al. (2010) hypothesized a strong positive relationship between autonomy and job involvement. Their assessment indicated that when an employer fulfills this entitlement, the employee feels compelled to reciprocate, which may take higher job involvement. Chen and Chiu (2009) indicated that employees' job involvement might

increase when they feel that they have greater decision-making authority at work. Bacharach and Bamberger (1995) emphasized that job autonomy may be necessary for employee health and well-being due to a positive association with better coping with circumstances where stress is present.

Bakker and Demerouti (2014) defined feedback as the "amount of information provided about the effectiveness of job performance" (p. 3). For example, there is a dual benefit to constructive feedback; as suggested by Bakker and Demerouti (2007), it helps the employees and aids leaders to improve or even consider adjusting their performance when specific and accurate information is provided constructively. For instance, feedback falls under the task level of job resources because it motivates individuals to grow and learn from their feedback (Bakker et al., 2007). Feedback positively correlates with job involvement because individuals see the value in what they do (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). According to Mgedezi et al. (2014), employees are intrinsically motivated to perform well as they expect their job to provide the feedback they value.

For example, several studies have shown that developmental opportunities are important motivators (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) described what people want most from their jobs: opportunities to develop skills and have a realistic chance to advance in the company. Bakker et al. (2003a) referred to professional development opportunities as a job characteristic that fits within job resources, stimulating personal growth, learning, and development. Rothmann et al. (2006) used the term growth opportunities and defined it as "having enough variety, opportunities to learn and independence in the job" (p. 79). Fernández-Salinero et al. (2020) view that job involvement is associated with individual growth in an organization.

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), while reasoning and logical thinking have become essential characteristics relevant for many jobs, opportunities for development and learning are highly sought resources that individuals seek in their jobs nowadays. Throughout the literature, job resources and, specifically, opportunities for professional development will evoke a sense of significance to employees, as Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) stated. They added that employees with sufficient job resources would feel efficacious, valuable to the organization, and optimistic about their future. Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006) also supported that employees will be more content with their work situation when they have sufficient job resources.

Bacharach and Bamberger (1995) proposed that individual performance at work was influenced by individual effort or ability and situational constraints. On the other hand, Bakker and Demerouti (2014) stimulate the argument that job resources interact in predicting occupational wellbeing and indirectly influence performance. Having the availability of job resources is not a bad thing, but the opposite is a good thing. By increasing resources, such as autonomy, job control, and feedback, two birds are hit by one stone, according to Schaufeli (2017). One advantageous observation comes from Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), which found that research shows that job resources may have a strong (longitudinal) impact on motivational outcomes. As previously mentioned, it is assumed that job resources have motivational potential. As per Bakker et al. (2003a), a lack of such resources will negatively affect workers' motivation and performance, eventually leading to disconnection from work.

2.2 Job Motivation

Employee motivation has been studied for a long time, especially related to organizational behaviors, such as job involvement. Well-motivated employees who demonstrate high levels of job involvement are considered the most important asset for any organization (Mgedezi et al., 2014; Mohsan et al., 2011). Grant (2008) referred to motivation as an inner desire to make an effort. Because it describes the reasons that drive actions, understanding motivation is central to explaining individual and organizational behavior.

Why do employees go above and beyond the call of duty to perform their work effectively? Amabile (1993) elucidated that employees will produce better results when motivated about their job. Scholars and practitioners believed that external controls, punishments, and rewards were necessary to motivate persistence and performance in the previous century, according to Grant (2008). Motivated individuals are moved to be involved in their jobs for many reasons, such as earning a paycheck, benefits, developmental, promotional opportunities, helping others, and even termination of employment to have the tranquility of having a job simply. On the other hand, there are many factors why a person lacking motivation tends not to get involved and perform to their peak potential. Ryan and Deci (2000) proposed that this energy called motivation has been associated with direction, persistence, and equifinality – all aspects of activation and intention for individuals to be involved in their jobs.

Extrinsic motivation via rewards can impact an employee's motivation and job involvement; the attention of this research will aim at intrinsic motivation versus extrinsic. Blau (1985) defined “intrinsic motivation as the degree to which a job holder is

motivated to perform well because of some subjective rewards or feelings that they expect to experience" (p. 121). When one compares people authentically motivated versus extrinsically driven people, according to Ryan and Deci (2000), individuals with genuine motivation have more interest and confidence, enhancing persistence. Mgedezi et al. (2014) contended that an organization's rewards could affect employees' attitudes towards their job and the organization. Equally important definitions come from Grant (2008). He stated that "intrinsic motivation refers to the desire to expend effort based on interest in and enjoyment of the work itself and that prosocial motivation is the desire to expend effort to benefit other people" (p. 49). Grant suggested that empirical results indicate a difference between the two motivations, and while these are positively related but distinct, they can predict important outcomes in the employee's life. Bakker and Demerouti (2014) referred to several core job characteristics expected to influence intrinsic motivation. In line with the intent of this study, Lawler and Hall (1970) indicated that more data were needed to help resolve the involvement- intrinsic-motivation relationship's ambiguity.

Grant (2007) indicated that when employees are motivated to make a prosocial difference, they are likely to invest significant time and energy because they are aware of behavior-outcome possibilities and ultimately value these outcomes. He also added that motivated employees have an inner desire to make an effort. By contrast, Dobre (2013) illustrated that individuals have many needs that continuously compete, making it a puzzle to understand each person's different concoctions and requirements that make people drive to achieve their goals. According to Nesje (2015), most insurance companies' mission statements aid their customers through challenging, sudden, and

unexpected circumstances. Nesje also added that prosocial motivation is central in helping professions; however, the association between prosocial motivation and job involvement is unclear. Grant (2008) proposed a need for more research on how employees become prosocially motivated to help particular beneficiaries and how this influences their work behaviors and experiences.

Moreover, Grant (2008) found evidence to support that when intrinsic motivation is high, so are prosocial motivation, performance, and productivity. Thus, if you want people to perform better, do you reward them? His research showed that employee motivation could come from different places. Nevertheless, here is where intrinsic and prosocial motivations come into play. First, Grant highlighted that neither intrinsic nor prosocial motivation independently predicted performance. However, he used hierarchical ordinary least squares regression analyses and found that interactions between intrinsic and prosocial motivation with performance were significant. Grant also explains that intrinsically and prosocially motivated employees will feel naturally drawn and more likely to push themselves towards achieving their work. Drawing on the self-determination theory, Grant recommended that prosocial motivation is more likely to predict determination accompanied by intrinsic motivation.

The researcher found the observation made by Grant (2008) interesting for this research. Grant encouraged practitioners to embrace and focus on the role of context, content, and change in the desire to make a difference. For example, Grant implied that prosocial motivation could be centered on various levels of autonomous regulation and feelings of identification, leading to the desire to benefit others. Grant (2007) refers to prosocial motivation as an allocentric psychological state, where highly prosocially

employees are prone to construct identities as competent and self-determined. Many employees who pursue to do good in ways that the organization values should most likely translate their prosocial motivation into performance (Grant & Sumanth, 2009).

2.3 Job Involvement

Job involvement is a critical factor in shaping worker outcomes (Diefendorff et al., 2002; Lambert, 2008; Scrima et al., 2014). In an epoch of pervasive disruption and volatile job evolution, it is hard to argue that organizations need to identify better what gets an employee more involved with their job and persuades or motivates them to stay on the job, be productive, satisfied, and perform at optimal levels. Is it the company's culture, job autonomy, premium benefits, monetary considerations, or simply the nature of the job that keeps an employee involved? All those mentioned can motivate and stimulate individuals to see their job differently, meaning positive.

While the concept of job involvement is not new and dates back to 1965, when Lodahl and Kejner first defined it, it is not clear why organizations and practitioners have not paid more attention to this construct as much as they have to job satisfaction, job engagement, organizational commitment, and job performance. There is a particular disparity and stagnancy in the work and research of job involvement. A remarkable observation comes from Diefendorff et al. (2021). Since its introduction, they stated that job involvement had been referenced in more than 1,817 peer-reviewed articles in the PsycINFO database. Far more surprisingly, it was compared to the number of papers written about job satisfaction. Papers on job satisfaction have almost tripled, from 5,039 papers in 1990 to 14,564 in 2019, versus 394 papers and 409 papers correspondingly for papers referencing job involvement during the same period. This presents an opportunity

to fill a gap in the literature on how job involvement relates to the selected intrinsic job resources and job motivations.

Throughout the literature, there are still echoes of scholarly voices calling for further exploration of job involvement's construct to understand its benefits better. Secondly, a great deal of research has shown that many social scientists researchers have studied and attempted to explain what the elusive construct of job involvement means (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Lawler & Hall, 1970; Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Kanungo, 1979, 1982; Paullay et al., 1994; Brown & Leigh, 1996). However, one valuable commentary has come from these studies, and it points out that job involvement remains a cause of discovery for practitioners who lack the knowledge and understanding that job involvement is a different concept and has a different effect and outcome than other constructs such as job performance or job satisfaction. Kanungo (1979) added that increasing job involvement would remain vague without understanding the nature and the saliency of the needs of the workers. Furthermore, it is essential to analyze the work situation from the standpoint of job design, complexity, and the nature of the job. Rizwan et al. (2011) elaborated that in the research of job involvement, the nature of work is one of the most important factors the employee considers. Management neglects this factor and supposes that, for example, salary or benefits are essential for the employee's motivation.

Social scientists have recognized the importance of good conceptual definitions for quite some time; however, the opportunity remains an issue for scholars in the organizational, behavioral, and social sciences, according to Podsakoff et al. (2016). From Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Lawler and Hall (1970), Kanungo (1979, 1982), Paullay

et al. (1994) to Brown (1996), the concern has been with the relationship of job involvement, including its different interpretations and measurements introduced throughout the years as stated by Saleh and Hosek (1976). Kanungo (1982) stated that previous research (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Saleh & Hosek, 1976) on job involvement is beset with questions of conceptual ambiguities and measurement shortcomings.

A review of the literature on job involvement demonstrates this dilemma. To illustrate, Reeve and Smith (2001) pointed out that job involvement has been of interest to psychologists as Allport (1943) first proposed it as a job attitude. Allport defined job involvement "in terms of the degree to which an employee participates in their job and meets such needs as prestige and autonomy. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined it as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image" (p. 24). Saleh and Hosek (1976) completed a literature review about the construct of job involvement conceptualizations. Two of their findings suggested that a person is involved when actively participates in his job and perceives performance as consistent with his self-concept. Kanungo (1982) conceptualized job involvement as the degree to which one identifies psychologically with one's job. Paullay et al. (1994) defined job involvement as "the degree to which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one's present job" (p. 225).

Moreover, "job involvement may be defined as the degree to which the self, with its three components, identity, connative, and evaluative, is reflected in the individual's job" (Saleh & Hosek, 1976, p. 223). Interestingly, different interpretations of job involvement have evolved by studying the relationship between it and numerous variables (Fernandez-Salinero et al., 2020; Scrima et al., 2014). In his meta-analysis,

Brown (1996) concluded that a job-involved person finds their job motivating and challenging, are committed to their job, and has close professional relationships with others in their organization.

The other predicament involves the measurement of job involvement. When tracing the history in the literature of job involvement, there has been a significant discussion when measuring an employee's involvement from an effective, emotional, or cognitive view. Conceivably, the most important observation here is what observable variables to use. Reeve and Smith (2001) referred to Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) 20-items scale as the most commonly used measure of job involvement. Kanungo (1982) challenged the latter scale, indicating items representing two meanings; affective and cognitive states were selected to measure job involvement. Kanungo developed the 10-item Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ), which is considered by Brown (1996) and Diefendorff et al. (2021) a purer measure of job involvement that captured cognitive states only. Paullay et al. (1994) took a different direction from previous job involvement' scales, arguing that job involvement consisted of two dimensions: job involvement-role and job involvement-setting. As a result, these researchers developed a 27-item measure of job involvement. Diefendorff et al. emphasized how critical defining and measuring a construct is to ensure conceptually and empirically distant from other constructs. These researchers also provide a great revelation: various constructs stern from how important the work is to the employee. To illustrate the ongoing case, Reeve and Smith revised Lodahl and Kejner's scale by removing the contingent self-esteem items and producing a 9-item scale that showed superior performance and contained more congruent content with the conceptualization of job involvement.

Chen and Chiu (2009) asserted that job characteristics could influence job involvement because they may inspire employees' internal motivation. They also added that highly internally motivated employees are more likely to be job involved due to their internal desires to devote more effort to their jobs. Employees with high internal motivation are more likely to be involved in their jobs because they have inner desires to devote more effort to their jobs (Brown, 1996). Brown also maintained that employee work behaviors should be categorized as consequences of job involvement and hypothesized that job involvement affected employees' motivation and effort.

The opportunity to identify and address employee job involvement has consequences. For example, job involvement has been associated with moderately lower turnover intentions (Brown, 1996), and many researchers have demonstrated that organizational commitment results from job involvement (Brown, 1996; Scrima et al., 2014;). Thus, job involvement could be regarded as to what extent individuals are immersed in their present jobs and what conditions exist in their current employment situation. It is plausible that when employees find an association making their job a central part of their lives, and as stated by Rizwan et al. (2011), this connection can be seen as a virtue of an end itself and possesses a high job ethic level. Lambert and Pauline (2012) pointed out that an employee with high job involvement would place the job in the middle of their life's interests. Consequently, employees perceive their job as an essential part of their lives.

When isolating the distinction between a high and low involvement employee, the disparity comes down to a better identification with their work and intrinsic motivation. Decades ago, a low involvement employee was portrayed as one who made their living

off the job and whose identity was determined by neither the type nor the quality of their work (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Low-involved employees do not look forward to their jobs; as Lambert (2008) expressed, they work in jobs they care little about; conversely, high-involved employees who psychologically identify with their jobs may look forward to work.

In contrast, Kanungo (1979) stressed that people become more involved in different activities when they recognize their potential for satisfying relevant psychological needs. Interestingly, job involvement is typically related to the satisfaction of intrinsic rather than extrinsic needs (Lawler & Hall, 1970). In his study about job involvement in correctional staff, Lambert (2008) states that staff with high job involvement should report greater satisfaction with life because they think they have a purpose; on the other hand, low job involvement staff have little interest in doing the job.

Brown (1996) stated that job involvement is essential in most people's lives. Job involvement matters when the person sees their job as a central part of their psychological self (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Blau (1985) supported the latter statement in which he indicates that a job-involved person is highly affected by the job because they perceive the job as a critical part of their total self-image. For employees with a high level of job involvement, the job is essential to one's self-image, according to Kanungo (1982). Previous research has linked job involvement to self-image and identity, showing direct and significant relations with professional self-image (Fernández-Salinero et al., 2020).

Rich et al. (2010) indicated that organizational characteristics and individual differences influence job involvement. Some visible traits in high jobs involving

employees are independence and self-confidence. According to Chen and Chiu (2009), these employees go beyond their assigned company job duties and consider their job perception. They also theorized that this psychological boost of the employees' job involvement occurs when employees feel they contributed to their job. Moreover, according to Bakker (2015), job involvement can identify psychologically with work and emotional attachment to the organization.

For example, Elloy et al. (1991) suggested that future research can serve multiple purposes: to increase our understanding of the limitations that influence and are impacted by job involvement. Scrima et al. (2014) argued the importance of helping employers understand how human resources practices promote job involvement might affect other workplace behaviors. Furthermore, employees will perform at a higher level not necessarily because of extrinsic rewards but because they see their organization as a place to satisfy their needs. These researchers also referred to other researchers (e.g., Latham & Pinder, 2005).

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The overarching theoretical background used in this study is self-determination theory (SDT). Ryan and Deci (2000) indicated that SDT is an approach to human motivation and personality. This theory has identified several distinctive types of motivation, each of which has specifiable consequences for learning, performance, personal experience, and well-being.

Concerning self-determination**,** because employees feel that their actions affect others and cause them to feel personally responsible for the choice to expend more significant effort, persistence, and helping behavior, they are likely to experience their

actions as self-determined (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This motivational theory provides an overall framework for human flourishing, using three essential building blocks, according to Bakker and Woerkem (2017). One of those blocks states that people have an inherent tendency toward growth, development, and integrated functioning. They added that the need for a supportive environment that provided the necessary resources (called "nutriments" in self-determination theory) might actualize their potential. Grant (2007) resonated with the latter. Grant implied that with increased employees' high levels of effort, persistence, and helping behavior to make a prosocial difference, these employees are prompt to build their identities as self-determined individuals.

Self-determination is an approach to human motivation, and its arena is the investigation of people's inherent growth tendencies and psychological needs that are the basis for self-motivation and the conditions that foster those positive processes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). One main difference between SDT and other motivation theories is that SDT focuses on autonomous versus controlled motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Drawing on SDT, the researcher proposes that employees be most likely involved with their job when intrinsically and prosocially motivated. These researchers also postulated that SDT has several types of regulated behaviors; one is integrated regulation, where the people fully sense that the behavior is an integral part of who they are. Interestingly, their example to reflect in the latter type of behavior was to think broadly speaking that if people identified the importance of their job activities, regulation of the activities would be integrated with other aspects of their jobs and lives. Ryan and Deci (2000) described SDT eloquently as follows, this theory is a metatheory of human motivation and personality development, and it has been a "Copernican turn" in the field.

SDT focuses on individuals' satisfaction with their needs within social environments (Gagné & Deci, 2005). SDT suggests that encouraging proper workplace environments where employees' autonomy is supported will boost employee satisfaction (Deci et al., 2017). These researchers add that in cases where the employees' motivation for their job is lacking, it can affect their performance and well-being, among other needs. Legault (2017) added that SDT had been supported by more than four decades of research. The success of this motivational theory can be attributed to its degree of comprehensiveness and testability.

SDT is the personal decision to do something or think a certain way, according to Grant (2008). Although having intrinsic motivation can be rewarding, Ryan and Deci (2000) referred to the cognitive evaluation theory (CET), a sub-theory within SDT, and can explain variability in intrinsic motivation. They referred to intrinsic motivation as a natural inclination toward spontaneous interest. "Intrinsic motivation is an example of autonomous motivation, and when people engage in an activity because they find it interesting, they are doing the activity wholly volitionally" (Gagné & Deci, 2005, p. 334). Following the above theoretical reasoning, the researcher believes that individuals possessing higher intrinsic and prosocial motivations are naturally better equipped (in terms of responding to their work environment demands). Their job involvement will lead to other job outcomes such as job satisfaction and culminate in better job performance.

3. Research Model and Hypotheses

The model categories and their respective hypotheses are defined as follows:

Job Resources. As previously stated, Bakker et al. (2003b) distinguished their study as intrinsic job resources to the job (e.g., autonomy, feedback, and professional development). Bakker and Demerouti (2014) suggested that resources are essential predictors of motivation. The researcher believes these job resources are relevant and can help explain occupation-specific motivators. According to Bakker (2015), highly involved employees are likely dedicated to their job. Finally, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) stated that the utilization of job resources might be of value for employees to thrive.

A lack of autonomy can aid the employee to become less job involved (Kanungo, 1979). According to Deci and Ryan (2000), autonomy is critical for creating self-determination and meaning. When the autonomy needs are satisfied, other outcomes such as completing work tasks will covary positively with job involvement (Breaugh, 1985). Specifically, Humphrey et al. (2007) suggest that job involvement is higher when jobs involve autonomy, complexity, tasks that impact others' lives, use of various skills, and the chance to observe a visible outcome. A work environment that supports psychological autonomy will increase job competence (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Consistent with this stream of literature, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1a: Access to autonomy job resources enhances employee job involvement.

For example, several studies have shown that development opportunities are important motivators (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Jordaan and Rothmann (2006), with a lack of job resources, individuals cannot achieve their work goals, nor can they develop themselves further in their job. These same researchers concluded that job resources such as growth opportunities in the job (i.e., learning opportunities and autonomy) were moderate predictors of when individuals devote themselves to their job.

An individual's belief that they are job involved can depend if the employee sees the potential to satisfy their most essential needs (Kanungo, 1979). Learning and developmental opportunities allow employees to better identify with the job and satisfy their needs.

H1b: Access to professional development job resources enhances employee job involvement.

Several job characteristics are moderately connected to job involvement and promote a positive attitudinal outcome, such as feedback, motivating potential, and autonomy (Diefendorff et al., 2021). One of several job resources, feedback, allows an employee to cope with demanding conditions, promoting further job involvement. In most cases, feedback to an employee can be simply reactive activity. Feedback needs to be tangible and specific to the individual for developmental purposes. In addition, this type of feedback helps people feel more competent, which is critical for personal growth. Furthermore, when an employee plunges into their job, and behavioral feedback is present, the belief is that the employee will consider the job an essential part of themselves or the job involved (Kanungo, 1979). One last critical supporting assertion comes from Ryan and Deci's (2017) perspective, which suggests that offering unexpected positive encouragement and feedback on a person's performance on a task can increase intrinsic motivation.

H1c: Access to feedback job resources enhances employee job involvement.

Intrinsic and Prosocial Motivations: In their study, Saleh and Hosek (1976) suggested that self-determination leads to job involvement. Grant (2008) demonstrated

that when intrinsic motivation is present because employees enjoy completing their tasks, autonomy is present and a free choice to benefit others. Interestingly, people endeavor to understand themselves by cultivating their needs, desires, and interests; and connecting with others (Legault, 2017). Previous and recent literature has shown that intrinsically motivated employees are focused in two ways: the job's enjoyment and the outcome of their involvement. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H2a: Intrinsically motivated employees are positively more job involved.

Bakker (2015) pointed out that research on prosocial motivation has influenced employee work behaviors. Prosocial motivation has been related to persistence in meaningful tasks. When the employee identifies with their job, and as stated by Grant (2008), there is a connection between employees completing their tasks, seeing it as a benefit to them completing their own goals, as they value working and helping others. Grant also provided another benefit of prosocial motivation, which this motivation boosts the employees' tendency to invest time and energy in their tasks.

H2b: Prosocially motivated employees are positively more job involved.

Recalled from the previous section that motivation was a direct factor with persistence and energy that drives individuals to get the work done, it is reasonable to assume that high motivation, specifically intrinsic and prosocial, would be directly related to a condition of optimal job in the absence of job resources. Job resources will aid the employee in managing in achieving work goals and reduce psychological costs, which will encourage greater identification with the job. According to Brown and Leigh (1996), one of the antecedent influences on job involvement includes job characteristics such as autonomy and individual differences such as internal motivation. Intrinsically

motivated employees expend efforts based on interest, curiosity, and desire to learn (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Deci and Ryan (2000) characterized intrinsic motivation as energy toward activities completed for the inherent interest and enjoyment. In addition, when employees are motivated by their sense of calling, they mobilize their job resources (Bakker, 2015). Diefendorff et al. (2006) explained that people who experience more intrinsic motivation tend to have greater job satisfaction. They advise that where there is a flow when the individual is working, they become immersed in the activity and support the observation that highly job-involved employees have a more robust identification with their job and greater intrinsic motivation. Moreover, understanding whether intrinsic motivation moderates the relationships between several intrinsic job resources and individual job involvement may assist organizations looking to anticipate barriers such as lack of productivity, job alienation, turnover, or even turnover intentions.

These hypotheses emphasize the moderation effect of intrinsic motivation and job resources on job involvement; therefore, considering the factors outlined in existing literature, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H3a: Intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between autonomy, job resources and job involvement. The higher intrinsic motivated employees are, the stronger the positive association between autonomy and job involvement is.

H3b: Intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between feedback on job resources and job involvement. The higher intrinsic motivated employees are, the stronger the positive association between feedback and job involvement is.

H3c: Intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between professional development, job resources, and job involvement. The higher intrinsic motivated employees are, the stronger the positive association between professional development opportunities and job involvement is.

In the workplace, employees who demonstrate being prosocially are interested in benefiting others. There may be a causal direction in job involvement and helping others, according to Diefendorff et al. (2021), in which helping behaviors are associated with psychological safety and higher job involvement. Being prosocial can serve multiple purposes, such as helping others because they feel it is the right thing to do or having a good sense (Grant & Berry, 2011). Employees that act prosocially can be construed as an outcome of identification, and prosocial motivation can elevate an employee's disposition to choose to invest time and energy in their tasks (Grant, 2008). Especially when their job resources are adequate, this theory suggests that prosocial motivation can be based on different levels of autonomous regulation; the desire to benefit others can be autonomously supported by feelings of identification (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Therefore, the following hypotheses proposed a positive moderation effect of prosocial motivation and job resources on job involvement; therefore, considering the factors outlined in the existing literature:

H3d: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between autonomy, job resources, and job involvement. The higher prosocially motivated employees are, the stronger the positive association between autonomy and job involvement is.

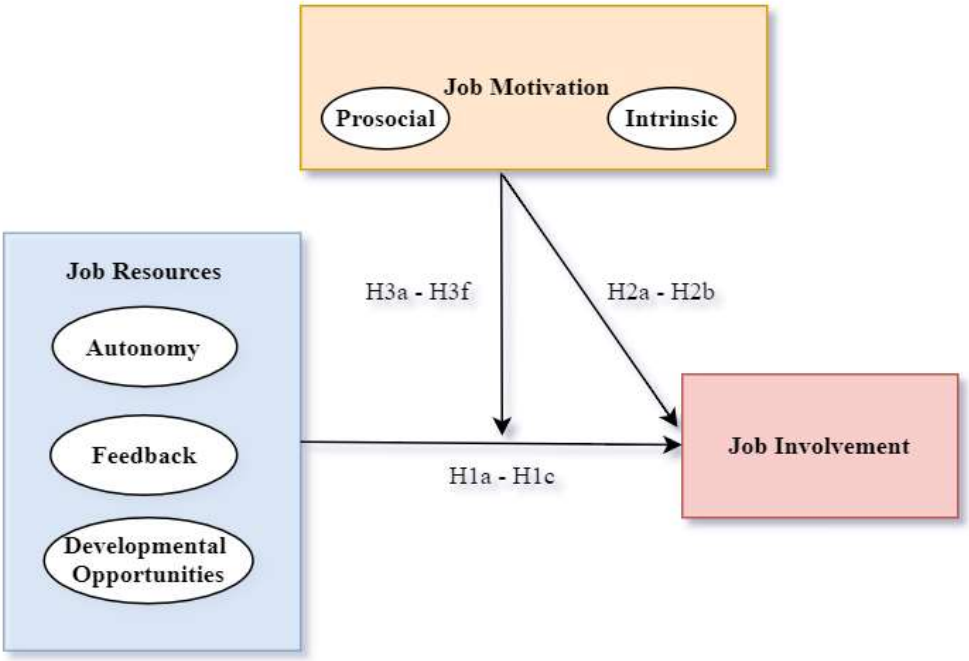
H3e: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between feedback on job resources and job involvement. The higher prosocially motivated employees are, the stronger the positive association between feedback and job involvement is.

H3f: Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between professional development, job resources, and job involvement. The higher prosocially motivated employees are, the stronger the positive association between professional development opportunities and job involvement is.

The proposed framework consisted of five independent variables, two moderators, and a dependent variable—the selected model adopted factors and measures from the following studies: Breaugh (1985), Bakker et al.(2003b), Grant (2008), Kanungo (1982), Karasek (1985), Rothmann et al.(2006), and Zhou (2003).

Figure 1

Research Model



4. Methodology

4.1 Construct Measures

A quantitative, deductive approach using a cross-sectional questionnaire survey was applied to assess and test the relationships of the variables in the proposed model. The questionnaire survey utilized a closed-ended response format. The unit of analysis was at the individual level. The target population was defined as professional individuals above 18 years old. The research model consisted of five independent variables, two moderators, and a dependent variable. Hinkin (1998) outlined how crucial it is for survey measures to adequately represent the constructs under examination. To establish the validity of the survey questionnaire, the scale latent constructs and observable items were

derived from Bakker et al. (2003b), Breaugh (1985), Grant (2008), Karasek (1985), Rothmann et al. (2006), Kanungo (1982), and Zhou (2003). The scales were distributed using a format with 7-point Likert-type responses.

In the framework, the dependent variable is job involvement. This variable will be operationalized by utilizing Kanungo's (1982) measure of job involvement. Kanungo proposed a 10-item measure of job involvement which he felt was more representative of the psychological identification of job involvement. Blau's (1985) study indicated Kanungo's measure to be slightly "purer" in operationalizing the psychological identification conceptualization of job involvement.

As mentioned previously, the interest of this research was to test what Bakker et al. (2003b) described as intrinsic job resources (Autonomy, feedback, and developmental opportunities) on job involvement. The autonomy scale was assessed with a three-item scale based on Karasek's (1985) job content instrument and three items developed by Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke (2004). The autonomy scale contains six items; three variables came from Breaugh (1985) and three others from Karasek's (1985) job content questionnaire scale. The feedback scale was assessed with five items. Three items will come from Zhou's (2003) instrument and two from Karasek's job content questionnaire scale. The professional opportunities for development scale were measured utilizing two variables from Bakker et al. (2003b) and four from Rothmann et al. (2006).

Grant (2008) used the following introductory question, "why are you motivated to do your work?" (p. 51). This researcher adopted Grant's scales to measure intrinsic and prosocial motivations. The intrinsic motivation scale will use the following items: " I enjoy the work itself," "Work is fun," "I find the work engaging," and "Because I enjoy

it." His prosocial motivation scale had the following items: "I care about benefiting others through my work," "I want to help others through my work," "I want to have a positive impact on others," and "It is important to me to do good for others through my work."

A cross-sectional questionnaire survey was deployed using a deductive approach to assess the effect of the framework's relationships. The questionnaire also contained screening questions to identify participants' demographics. These were: time in current position (How many years have you been in your present position?), organizational tenure (How many years have you worked for this organization?), educational level, gender, and age. The entire instrument was responded to utilizing a seven-point Likert continuum (1 = *Strongly Agree, 7 = Strongly Disagree*).

Ordinal scale data is frequently encountered in social and behavioral science research. Almost all opinion surveys today request answers on three-, five- or seven-point Likert scales to measure respondents' degree of agreement with questionnaire items, according to Gibbons (1993). Participants were provided with a consent form at the start of the survey with options to accept or decline their voluntary participation, and lastly, the survey was anonymous.

In his article, Straub (1989) indicated that construct measurement was not a simple process. Straub recommended a well-executed validation process to establish greater confidence in its results. Furthermore, as MacKenzie et al. (2011) outlined, validating measures adopted from existing research is essential before collecting data for hypothesis testing. An informed pilot study was conducted to establish validity for the main construct measures in the survey. A copy of the survey was administered to seven

doctoral students to critique the instrument's content wording and style. The respondents' feedback allowed the researcher to make several adjustments to the original questionnaire. In no specific order, the recommended changes were correcting spelling and grammar typos to increase the anchors' font size. The instrument's changes were based on feedback, providing clarity, better readability, and face validity.

4.2 Pilot study

A pilot study is a critical component in research and is conducted to identify potential problem areas and deficiencies in the research instruments; as complemented by Thabane et al. (2010), a pilot study could help the researcher avoid potentially catastrophic consequences before undertaking a larger study. There are many benefits from conducting a pilot study, such as testing the instrument, the questionnaire's appropriateness, sample size calculations, and identifying weaknesses. This quantitative study examined the effect of several intrinsic job resources and motivations on job involvement at the individual level.

The data collection was carried out using the web-based survey tool, Qualtrics. The online survey was distributed via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Within MTurk, one Human Intelligence Task (HIT) was created with a title, brief description, and relevant keywords, e.g., job involvement, motivation, and job resources. Participants were asked to read and complete a consent before starting the survey. Participants were only allowed to take the survey one time only. There were no costs, and the participant could have withdrawn during the study. The study had no possible benefits for the participants besides the nominal compensation offered through MTurk.

Coefficient alpha is a summary measure of the internal homogeneity among a set of items, representing an estimate of alternative forms' reliability (Churchill et al., 1974). After reviewing the responses received, three responses were omitted from the analysis due to incomplete surveys. The final sample size consisted of seventy-five (n=75) complete and usable MTurk responses. The initial reliability analysis showed that all of the scales' Cronbach's alphas had an acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha above .80. A rule of thumb is that .70 and above is sound, .80 and above is better, and.90 and above is best.

Table 1 outlines the descriptive statistic of the pilot study data.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Pilot Data (N=75)[a].

Construct (Reference)	Item Code	Mean	SD	α
J/R-Autonomy Breaugh (1985)	J/R-Auto_1	5.57	1.232	.843
	J/R-Auto_2	5.68	1.117	
	J/R-Auto_3	5.44	1.276	
	J/R-Auto_4	5.64	1.401	
	J/R-Auto_5	5.60	1.273	
	J/R-Auto_6	5.65	1.330	
J/R-DevOpp Bakker et al. (2003b), Rothmann et al. (2006)	J/R-DevOpp_1	5.44	1.307	.884
	J/R-DevOpp_2	5.21	1.562	
	J/R-DevOpp_3	5.33	1.483	
	J/R-DevOpp_4	5.41	1.386	
	J/R-DevOpp_5	5.48	1.437	
	J/R-DevOpp_6	5.69	1.230	
J/R-Feedback Zhou (2003), Karasek (1985)	*J/R-Feed_1*	5.49	1.309	.834
	J/R-Feed_2	5.09	1.621	
	J/R-Feed_3	5.13	1.464	
	J/R-Feed_4	5.24	1.344	
	J/R-Feed_5	5.33	1.388	
Prosocial Motivation Grant (2008)	PSMot_1	5.41	1.517	.840
	PSMot_2	5.31	1.395	
	PSMot_3	5.49	1.359	

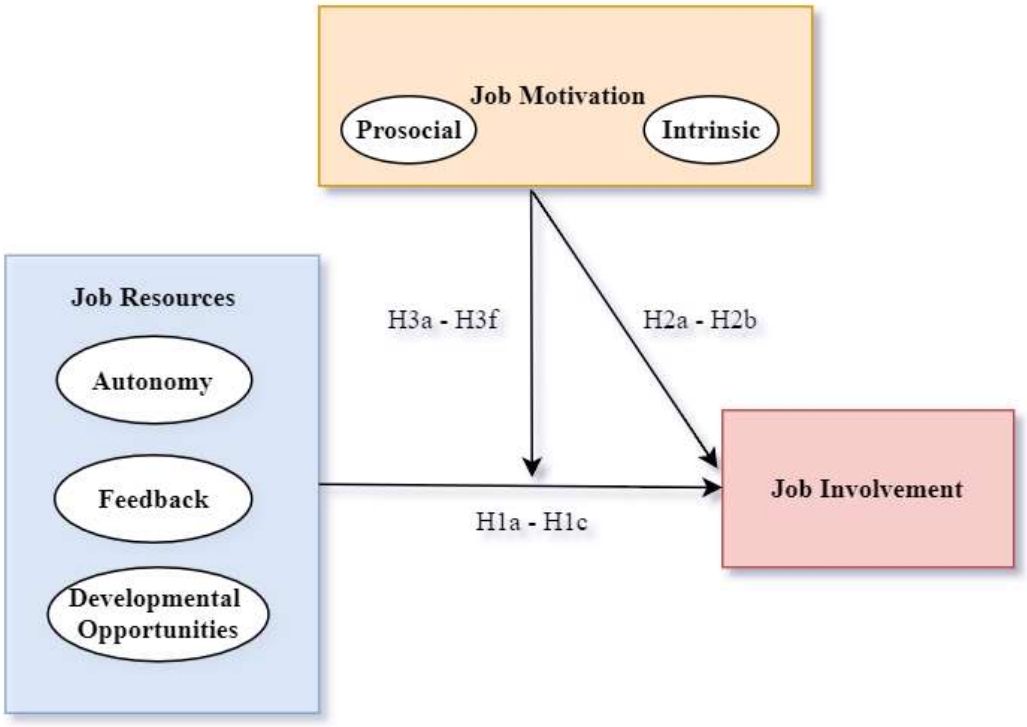
	PSMot_4	5.55	1.369	
Intrinsic Motivation Grant (2008)	IntMot_1	5.57	1.367	.822
	IntMot_2	5.24	1.618	
	IntMot_3	5.47	1.359	
	IntMot_4	5.35	1.656	
Job Involvement Kanungo (1982)	JobInv_1	5.09	1.621	.910
	JobInv_2	5.00	1.560	
	JobInv_3	5.41	1.347	
	JobInv_4	4.87	1.870	
	JobInv_5	5.23	1.632	
	JobInv_6	4.87	1.655	
	JobInv_7	4.85	1.722	
	JobInv_8	4.92	1.617	
	JobInv_9	5.12	1.594	
	JobInv_10	4.87	1.796	
Gender		1.25	.438	
Age		2.84	1.295	
Position		2.80	.805	
Job Experience		2.76	.819	
Education		4.67	1.107	

Note. J/R stands for job resources to identify the constructs, and DevOpp stands for developmental opportunities.

Knowing that the scales selected to measure these constructs have been previously validated and very well established, the researcher opted to run a confirmatory factor analysis for the main study.

Figure 2.

Main study model



5. Main Study Data Analysis and Results.

For hypothesis testing, the main study survey was created using the web-based survey tool, Qualtrics. The survey was distributed utilizing the crowdsourcing website Mechanical Turk (MTurk). The survey was kept open for two days. At the end of the survey period, 230 responses were collected; of the 230 surveys, 16 participants were removed from the final data used to test the hypotheses due to missing relevant information or incomplete survey responses. The final sample used for hypothesis testing was 214 participants, with a survey completion rate of 93%.

Regarding the sample size, Ullman and Bentler (2012) indicated that although SEM is a large data technique is possible to use it for estimation in small models with as

few as 60 respondents. Thus, Schumacker and Lomax (2004) demonstrated in their study that 20 subjects per variable are a good recommendation for factor analysis. Hinkin (1998) indicated that a minimum sample size of 200 has been recommended for a conservative approach when performing confirmatory factor analysis. Taking into consideration the type of variables tested in this research, following an acceptable margin of error, which, according to Barlett et al. (2001) in social research, a relative range between 3% and 5% is acceptable, a confidence level of 95%, the use of a seven-point scale, six standard deviations (three to each side of the mean), and a high response rate from MTurk, the final number of completed surveys served as an acceptable sample size for this study.

Table 2 outlines the main study characteristics. The sample consisted of 58.9% (126) male respondents and 41.1% (88) females. Interestingly, approximately 48% of the respondents have worked in the same position between 4 and 10 years, and a majority (64.5%) of the respondents held a 4-years college degree.

Table 2.

Main Sample Study Characteristics

		Mean	SD	*n*	%
Gender		1.41	0.493	214	
	Male			126	58.9%
	Female			88	41.1%
Age		3.07	1.365	214	
	18 to 25			28	13.1%
	26 to 30			58	27.1%
	31 to 35			39	18.2%
	36 to 45			56	26.2%
	46 to 55			25	11.7%
	56 or older			8	3.7%
Job Position		2.80	0.823	214	
	Less than a year			4	1.9%
	1-3 years			76	35.5%
	4-10 years			103	48.1%

	11-15 years			21	9.8%
	16 or more years			10	4.7%
Job Experience		2.71	0.799	214	
	Less than a year			5	2.3%
	1-3 years			86	40.2%
	4-10 years			96	44.9%
	11-15 years			20	9.3%
	16 or more years			7	3.3%
Education		4.94	0.982	214	
	Less than High School			1	0.5%
	High School Graduate			8	3.7%
	Some College			15	7.0%
	2 Years Degree			4	1.9%
	4 Years Degree			138	64.5%
	Professional Degree			46	21.5%
	Doctorate			2	0.9%
Industry		3.05	1.687	214	
	Finance, Accounting, Customer Service			54	25.2%
	Construction, Transportation, Utilities			24	11.2%
	IT, Telecommunications			72	33.6%
	Professional, Scientific, Technical Services			18	8.4%
	Educational Services			13	6.1%
	Marketing, Sales			33	15.4%

As a result of the previous validation of the used scales, a conceptual framework was outlined to conduct a structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis. SEM's goal is to determine the extent to which the sample data support the theoretical model and the benefit of better understanding the researchers' area of scientific inquiry (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Descriptive analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural

equation modeling (SEM) were performed to test the proposed hypotheses. The researcher conducted a partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) analysis. Hair et al. (2019) described PLS-SEM as a causal-predictive approach to SEM that emphasizes prediction in estimating statistical models and provides causal explanations. SEM provides greater recognition validity and reliability and the ability to analyze more advanced theoretical models. SEM can expand the statistical efficiency of model testing (Altindis, 2011).

The SEM technique allows questions to be answered that involve multiple regression analyses of factors. Regression analysis is the "bread and butter" of social science research, as stated by Schroeder et al. (2017), and was utilized to understand better the relationship between job involvement and how the other variables influence it. This research successfully demonstrated that regression analysis was the appropriate statistical technique to observe the impact of the selected multiple independent variables on the dependent variable. Other tested assumptions were that the data did not show multicollinearity, and the dependent variable was measured on a continuous scale (Likert scale). This type of scale is one of the most frequently used in survey questionnaire research and is more suitable for use in factor analysis, according to Hinkin (1998).

Table 3 reports the cross-loadings of the final twenty-two indicators or items retained. Tables 4 and 5 show the alpha, means, standard derivations, and AVE.

Table 3

Cross loadings.

	J/R Auto	J/R DevOpp	PS Mot	Int Mot	Job Inv
J/R Auto_1	**0.792**	0.446	0.368	0.407	0.406
J/R Auto_2	**0.719**	0.365	0.293	0.436	0.336
J/R Auto_3	**0.743**	0.377	0.312	0.368	0.379
J/R Auto_4	**0.751**	0.432	0.361	0.294	0.39
J/R Auto_5	**0.763**	0.336	0.304	0.315	0.379
J/R Auto_6	**0.792**	0.387	0.301	0.38	0.406
JobRDevOpp_1	0.379	**0.795**	0.485	0.516	0.525
JobRDevOpp_2	0.425	**0.802**	0.526	0.537	0.442
JobRDevOpp_3	0.413	**0.80**	0.470	0.435	0.439
JobRDevOpp_4	0.346	**0.679**	0.459	0.416	0.323
JobRDevOpp_6	0.426	**0.783**	0.589	0.534	0.463
PSMot_2	0.332	0.557	**0.843**	0.541	0.545
PSMot_3	0.400	0.604	**0.847**	0.596	0.583
PSMot_4	0.364	0.528	**0.887**	0.598	0.620
IntMot_1	0.457	0.594	0.583	**0.849**	0.585
IntMot_2	0.348	0.485	0.556	**0.839**	0.601
IntMot_3	0.406	0.520	0.559	**0.832**	0.533
JobInv_4	0.417	0.500	0.584	0.574	**0.878**
JobInv_5	0.415	0.482	0.501	0.571	**0.774**
JobInv_7	0.415	0.483	0.599	0.608	**0.862**
JobInv_8	0.510	0.567	0.643	0.568	**0.845**
JobInv_10	0.3144	0.330	0.467	0.510	**0.783**

According to Ullman (2006), “Structural equation modeling is also called causal modeling, causal analysis, simultaneous equation modeling, analysis of covariance structures, path analysis, or confirmatory factor analysis” (p. 35). Ullman also suggested that CFA is the type of analysis that addresses critical practical issues such as the validity of the structure of a scale.

Ullman and Bentler (2012) indicated that a model specification's first step in an SEM analysis is a model specification, making it confirmatory rather than an exploratory technique. According to Schumacker and Lomax (2004), “Path analysis is not a method for discovering causes; rather, to test theoretical relationships, which historically has been

termed causal modeling, and in addition model specification is necessary for examining multiple variable relationships in path models, just as in the case of multiple regression" (pp. 143, 147). Following the model, the specification includes the hypotheses to be tested and depicts the lines to show the relationships between variables to develop an SEM diagram. The next step was to connect the measured, observed variables or indicators to specify the number of factors or latent variables through regression or path analysis. Before testing for a significant relationship in the structural model, an initial recommendation comes from Fornell and Larcker (1981); the measurement model must have a satisfactory level of validity.

According to Hair et al. (2019), interpreting the PLS-SEM results involves several robustness checks to support the stability of the results, and "the relevance of these robustness checks depends on the research context, such as the aim of the analysis and the availability of data" (p. 8). The first step was to assess the internal reliability by examining the indicator loadings. The relationships between the observed and latent variables, plus the extent to which a given observed variable can measure the latent variable, are indicated by factor loadings (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). All indicators had considerable outer loadings above .65 and were retained.

The next step was to evaluate the internal consistency reliability by reviewing the composite reliability. Values between 0.70 and 0.90 range from "satisfactory to good," but values of 0.95 and higher are problematic (Hair et al., 2019). Another measure to assess internal consistency reliability was Cronbach's α. This measure summarizes the internal homogeneity among a set of items and represents an estimate of the reliability (Churchill et al., 1974). The results were excellent for all constructs above .8 except for

intrinsic motivation, which was acceptable, above .7. The subsequent measurement was Composite Reliability (CR), which is another internal consistency reliability measure. All of the constructs' composite reliability were above 0.80.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of Main Study Data (N=214).

Construct (Reference)	Item Code	Mean	SD	α
J/R-Autonomy Breaugh (1985)	J/R-Auto_1	5.50	1.221	.854
	J/R-Auto_2	5.67	1.149	
	J/R-Auto_3	5.66	1.187	
	J/R-Auto_4	5.49	1.150	
	J/R-Auto_5	5.80	1.182	
	J/R-Auto_6	5.80	1.100	
J/R-DevOpp Bakker et al. (2003b), Rothmann et al. (2006)	J/R-DevOpp_1	5.43	1.418	.832
	J/R-DevOpp_2	5.48	1.320	
	J/R-DevOpp_3	5.44	1.250	
	J/R-DevOpp_4	5.55	1.136	
	J/R-DevOpp_6	5.73	1.139	
Prosocial Motivation Grant (2008)	PSMot_2	5.48	1.284	.823
	PSMot_3	5.43	1.378	
	PSMot_4	5.44	1.355	
Intrinsic Motivation Grant (2008)	IntMot_1	5.59	1.241	.792
	IntMot_2	5.30	1.527	
	IntMot_3	5.60	1.324	
Job Involvement Kanungo (1982)	JobInv_4	5.07	1.567	.886
	JobInv_5	5.20	1.514	
	JobInv_7	5.20	1.605	
	JobInv_8	4.97	1.571	
	JobInv_10	4.99	1.763	
Gender		1.41	.493	
Age		3.07	1.365	
Position		2.80	.823	
Job Experience		2.71	.799	
Education		4.94	1.107	
Industry		3.05	1.687	

The discriminant validity (DV) assessment was the next benchmark to be reviewed. As noted by Hair et al. (2019), "convergent validity is the extent to which the construct converges to explain the variance of its items, and the metric used for evaluating a construct's convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE), (p.9). An AVE greater than .50 is desirable because it suggests that the latent construct accounts for most of the variance in its indicators on average, according to MacKenzie et al. (2011). The following action was to assess discriminant validity through the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which proposed examining whether each construct's AVE is greater than the square of the correlation between the constructs in the structural model (MacKenzie et al., 2011). The constructs' AVE scores ranged from 0.57 to 0.73, exceeding all phi-squared correlations between the constructs and the minimum acceptable of 0.5. Discriminant validity was confirmed. The variance inflation factor (VIF) is often used to evaluate the collinearity of the formative indicators, and ideally, the VIF values should be close to 3 and lower (Hair et al., 2019). The results ranged from 1.6 to 2.8, within the acceptable value. Also, cross-loadings were examined, and no exceptions were noted.

Fornell and Larcker (1981) noted that:

> The properties of interest are reliability (convergent validity), average variance extracted, and discriminant validity for each unobserved variable. The measurement model tests can calculate the average variance extracted and provide a procedure complementary to the traditional Campbell & Fiske approach for establishing discriminant validity (p. 49).

Figure 3 depicts the main study structural equation model—Table 5 showcases the above values. Overall, the psychometric properties of the model were found satisfactory.

Figure 3

Structural Equation Model

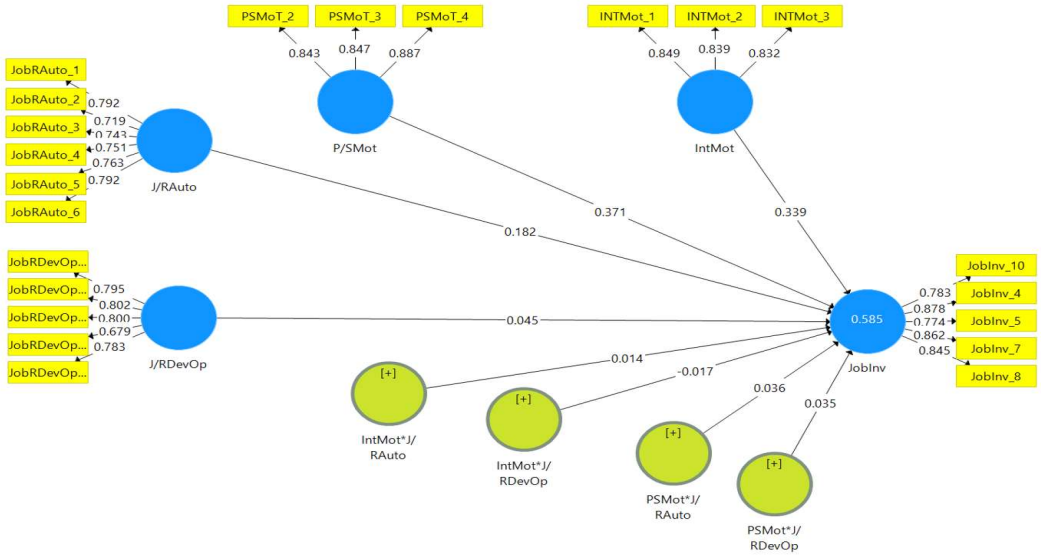


Table 5

Reliabilities and Correlations[a]

	α	CR	AVE	J/RAuto	J/RDevOpp	PSMot	IntMot	JobInv
J/RAuto	.85	.89	.57	***0.76***				
J/RDevOpp	.83	.88	.59	0.51	***0.77***			
PSMot	.82	.89	.73	0.42	0.65	***0.85***		
IntMot	.79	.87	.70	0.48	0.63	0.67	**0.84**	
JobInv	.88	.91	.68	0.50	0.57	0.67	0.68	***0.82***

a. Note. The square roots of average variance extracted (AVE) appear on the diagonals and are italicized and bold.

Hair et al. (2019) asserted that PLS-SEM is a nonparametric method. Therefore, bootstrapping is used to determine statistical significance and test all hypotheses in the theoretical model. Hair et al. (2017a) suggest using BCa bootstrap confidence intervals for significance testing. Throughout the PLS-SEM literature, the use of "Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) Bootstrap" is considered a stable method (Ringle et al., 2015). Streukens and Leroi-Werelds (2016) noted, “in a nutshell, bootstrapping is a non-parametric resampling procedure that assesses the variability of a statistic by examining the variability of the sample data rather than using parametric assumptions to determine the precision of the estimates” (p. 619).

The measuring model explained .58% of the variance in job involvement. As a rule of thumb, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 can be considered substantial, moderate, and weak (Hair et al., 2019). For example, MacKenzie et al. (2011) indicated that R^2 values greater than .50 would mean that the indicators’ variance is shared with the construct more significantly. Other robust checks were reviewed as steps to ensure the model fit. The standardized root means square residual (SRMR) determined value was 0.067. A value less than 0.10 or 0.08 is considered a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The results could not support several hypotheses, yet a couple had a significant and positive relationship with the main study outcome latent variable. The main study consisted of eight hypotheses proposed; two were supported, as outlined in Table 6.

Table 6

Summary of Results [a].

	Hypotheses	Result	Significance
H1a	Access to autonomy job resources enhances employee job involvement.	Not Supported	β=.182
H1b	Access to professional development job resources enhances employee job involvement.	Not Supported	β=.045
H2a	Prosocially motivated employees are positively involved with their job.	Supported	β=.371**
H2b	Intrinsically motivated employees are positively involved with their job.	Supported	β=.339**
H3a	Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between autonomy and job involvement.	Not Supported	β=.036
H3b	Prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between developmental opportunities and job involvement.	Not Supported	β=.035
H3c	Intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between autonomy and job involvement.	Not Supported	β=.014
H3d	Intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between developmental	Not Supported	β= -0.017

	opportunities and job involvement.

a. Note: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

The first hypothesis proposed that access to autonomy job resources positively enhances an employee's job involvement (H1a). The literature reviewed noted that individuals who feel more in control play a role in directing people to think more self-determined about their jobs. This hypothesis was not supported and not significant ($p = 0.074$). In addition, it was expected that access to professional development job resources positively enhances employee job involvement (H1b). While job resources can stimulate personal learning, development, and growth in the workplace, this hypothesis was insignificant ($p = 0.308$). H1c was not tested due to removing the construct job resources feedback, which presented significant cross-loading issues when examined with the study's other variables.

The second hypothesis predicted that intrinsically motivated employees were more positively involved with their job (H2a) and prosocially motivated employees were more positively involved (H2b). Both of these hypotheses were positively associated with job involvement and supported. These relationships were both significant; intrinsic motivation ($p < 0.001$) and prosocial motivation ($p < 0.001$).

Kanungo (1979) elucidates that an individual's job behavior aims to satisfy the individual's intrinsic needs. Grant (2009) proposed that prosocial and intrinsic motivations exist; employees enjoy the work itself and experience the desire to help others as self-determined and invest more significant effort in their jobs. Grant (2008) states that when individuals are intrinsically motivated, they will feel more innately

drawn to complete their work. When prosocially motivated, these employees are more likely to push themselves towards achieving their work. Grant and Berry (2011) talked about how from the standpoint of SDT, intrinsic motivation encourages employees to become psychologically absorbed in working on their jobs.

Lastly, hypotheses H3a to H3d proposed a positive moderating effect of intrinsic and prosocial motivations between the job resources-autonomy and job resources-developmental opportunities on job involvement. It was hypothesized that the moderators would affect the independent variables' strength or direction on the dependent variable. Moreover, moderation analyses may help clarify when motivation may account for any incremental variance between job resources and job involvement. However, after collecting data for the main study, the moderation effects were not significant and were not supported by this research. Although, a review of the literature on job resources suggested that these intrinsic job resources or job characteristics were associated with higher job involved individuals, as stated by Humphrey et al. (2007). It is not solely to give individuals the job resources they need or motivation, but rather the interaction changing the relationship's significance.

Hypothesis H3a stipulated that prosocial motivation moderated the relationship between job resources autonomy and job involvement. However, this hypothesis was not supported; the positive relationship was insignificant (ß = 0.036, p = 0.776).

Hypothesis H3b proposed that prosocial motivation moderated the relationship between job resources developmental opportunities and job involvement. However, this hypothesis was not supported; the positive relationship was insignificant (ß = 0.035, p = 0.747).

Hypothesis H3c predicted that intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship between job resources autonomy and job involvement. This hypothesis had a positive relationship but was not supported and not significant (ß = 0.014, p = 0.908).

The final hypothesis, H3d, proposed that intrinsic motivation moderated the relationship between job resources–developmental opportunities and job involvement. This was not supported. The interaction was negative and not significant (ß = -0.017, p = 0.867).

The analyses were well done, involving several robustness and detailed checks to support the stability of the results, such as assessing convergence and discriminant validities, composite reliability, and bootstrapping to test the hypotheses.

6. Discussion and Implications.

This study aimed to examine the relationship and the effect of several job resource variables on job involvement based on a focused motivational framework. A question posted earlier in the introduction section was why some individuals get involved more than others and what motivates these individuals to do so? This research intended to continue expanding the impetus on how vital the elusive construct of job involvement still is, especially nowadays when industries are re-learning to cope and adapt to understand the essence of an individual's job design, job environment, and nature of the job itself for many internal and external motives. Organizations have a fresh opportunity to reignite the fuel and recognize that motivated employees will get involved with their jobs more than their less-involved peers when they think their actions will affect the outcome.

Kanungo (1979) indicated that for purposes of job involvement, the more the employee sees their value, including influencing outcomes and the use of their skills, the more involved they will be in the job.

6.1 Theoretical Implications.

Many social scientists and researchers have studied the elusive construct of job involvement from the 1940s to the present. This phenomenon remains a cause of discovery due to a lack of knowledge and understanding that makes job involvement different from other variables, such as job satisfaction, job engagement, and even organizational commitment by practitioners, Kanungo (1979) advocated. Most importantly, the effect and outcome are distinct. Interestingly, Kanungo's perspective was a priori for this research.

The SDT is a motivational theory that presumes people are inherently prone to psychological growth and connection with others (Ryan & Deci, 2020). This research was motivationally encouraged and grounded on the theory of SDT, heavily as a result of what this theory depicts, which is to investigate "people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs, as described by Ryan and Deci (2000). The researcher's model explored how several intrinsic job resources, intrinsic and prosocial motivations, would influence job involvement. For the researcher, SDT provided a more evident motivational design of the phenomena needed to test the relationships amongst these concepts. The researcher utilized SDT to study causal explanations for the connection between the selected intrinsic job resources, selected job motivations, and the variable of interest, job involvement. Specifically, they provide a framework for understanding why

some intrinsic and prosocial individuals experience higher job involvement whereas others experience a lack of involvement or alienation.

Importantly, these motivations were observed to interact directly with job involvement versus the projected moderating effect of the job characteristics and job involvement. About Blau (1985), my study also supported an empirical distinction between the constructs of job involvement and intrinsic motivation. While Nesje (2015) did not find prosocial motivation significantly related to job involvement, my research did.

The researcher desired to test job involvement as an outcome variable and prosocial and intrinsic motivations as moderators and independent variables. Interestingly, throughout the literature, job involvement has been tested as an independent variable, moderator, and mediator (Chen & Chiu, 2009; Fernández-Salinero et al., 2020; Lambert, 2008; Rizwan et al., 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), but not too often as an outcome variable. For example, Grant's (2008) research was theoretically grounded and framed around this motivational theory and examined the same type of motivations, prosocial and intrinsic. However, he describes the interaction of these motivations to be synergetic. His study noted a discrepancy when testing intrinsic motivation as an independent variable. His plausible explanation was based on disparities in the diversity and complexity of the work.

Although only two of the eight proposed hypotheses were supported, these results encouraged and extended the existing literature on the construct of job involvement and Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory (SDT). This research took a step into

identifying several variables that link employee motivation and self-determination to the strength of their identification with the job.

6.2 Practical Implications

Employee job involvement has been predicted to significantly impact numerous organizationally important outcomes throughout the literature. Organizations have flourished in the business of multiplying their workforce and expanding across the globe, yet not fully considering the effect that an involved employee has on their existence. For example, job resources vary considerably from one employee to another and from one leader to another. Job resources stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. In their research, Hackman and Oldham (1975) investigated the effect of people who strongly valued accomplishment and growth and pointed out that these employees should respond very positively to a job.

Adequate job resources can stimulate and generate individuals to get involved with their jobs, translating into other positive behaviors, such as job satisfaction, fewer intentions to turnover, organizational commitment, and optimal job performance. Employees can experience several outcomes due to these daily job characteristics, affecting their job involvement. A practical implication presented by Bakker (2015) suggests that managers should ask themselves daily which specific job resources they offer their employees. For example, when providing an employee with feedback, a question remains about the frequency and quality that the employee receives about their job tasks and activities. Another noteworthy reflection is how balanced the feedback is; is it all constructive or encouraging to which the employee learn and develop a sense of

ownership, accountability, and desire to be involved with their job due to supervisory coaching experience.

In 1979, Kanungo eloquently presented the following position: to increase job involvement; organizations should consider designing jobs with greater autonomy and control available to the workers. He referred to a universal prescription that addresses workers' most salient needs. Organizations need to increase their efforts and oversight when investigating why employees are not involved in their jobs or potentially dealing with other related symptoms. Managers should continue to pay attention to the benefits associated with employee autonomy and developmental opportunities. After all, freedom, flexibility, and career growth are just some individual job characteristics that almost every employee aspires to have while being a working professional. Understanding those high-in-demand employees' needs is a key to unlocking other associated benefits for the organization.

Focusing on this elusive construct remains an opportunity for scholars, consultants, and organizations with a dedicated workforce that caters to various customers and industries. The global market is changing rapidly due to external forces including and are not limited to technological advances, newly created jobs, job redesign, the nature of the job itself, and workers demanding better work environments. If an employee is not job involved, the consequences and outcomes can affect other areas such as productivity, employee well-being, or performance, to mention just a few. In their research, Ryan and Deci (2008) stated that considerable empirical work has focused on how people guide their activities and long-term goals. They also clarify that such aspirations can be similar to what other researchers refer to as needs and motives.

Managers should recognize that highly-involved employees see their job as personally meaningful and are affected by their whole job situation, likely due to how essential it is to their needs (Diefendorff et al., 2020; Kanungo, 1979). Furthermore, Gagné and Deci (2005) suggested that managers must remain vigilant when creating work tasks that help satisfy a person's needs for self-determination because these factors are more likely to produce intrinsic and identified motivations. Managers should recognize intrinsic and prosocial motivations' weight and socialize these motivations to increase effective outcomes and design work contexts that cultivate both motivations (Grant, 2008).

Kanungo (1979) recommended that an employee's belief that they are job involved depends on whether the employee has the potential to satisfy their salient needs. He added that the importance of different necessities could be traced back to the individual's past experiences with groups, so it is not only about the job. Managers should explore and capture how applicable this relationship is; the job, the employee's salient needs, and past group experiences and behaviors before making employment decisions such as hiring or lateral employment movement. Elloy et al. (1991) recommended a valid and practical need to continue identifying the causes and consequences of job involvement. They proposed such inference, so practitioners could understand how to recognize and value the differences between their employees and their environments.

Scrima et al. (2014) provided an impactful recommendation for managers, which could increase job involvement at the individual level. Should these company leaders treat their employees fairly, the message they will be sending is significant and a message

of how much the organization values their job and efforts. In return, employees' organizational identification and job involvement would increase. In many different ways, it can be argued that the managerial understanding and significance of the array of topics and existing tools to promote individual job involvement can be challenging. However, it is not impossible if the proper knowledge is used. One reasonable explanation comes from Bates's (2004) HR article. Bates pointed out that no matter how hard leaders and their organizations attempt to involve them, these employees will not give their best effort. He suggested that, for the most part, "employees want to commit to companies because doing so satisfies a powerful and basic human need to connect with and contribute to something significant" (p. 45).

6.3 Study limitations and Future Research

In light of this research's contributions, this empirical research has several limitations that can be addressed in future research. The present study is cross-sectional as far as the questionnaire data are concerned; all these data were collected at one point, making it impossible to prove the relationships' causality. The collected responses only represent a small sample of the population. It will be beneficial to test these variables in a longitudinal study and even secure a larger sample. Secondly, self-reported questionnaires were used to gather data. An issue arises when more than two measures are collected from the same respondents. This raises the possibility of common method bias (CMB). Podsakoff and Organ (1986) recommended the use of procedural or design remedies versus statistical remedies or post hoc tests to counter the effect of CMB. Another recommendation comes from Podsakoff et al. (2003), who stated that carefully

evaluating the conditions stipulated before collecting the data will help minimize the CMB effect.

Next, while crowdsourcing platforms like Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) have become increasingly common among researchers, the data collection engine is limited. As Gorn and Kanungo's (1980) research pointed out, emphasis should be given to involvement in a particular job versus involvement with work in general. Individuals' job involvement differs from job to job. Many respondents who completed the survey came from various industries, and no specific job titles or responsibilities were collected. Using non-probability sampling makes it more challenging to generalize the results. A fourth limitation reflects the number of job resources selected for this study. The result could have a significant and different effect when introducing other job resources to test their effect on job involvement. This study only tested three intrinsic job resources, and one of them, feedback, had to be removed from the main study due to high levels of cross-loading during the pilot test. Due to the high correlation and significant cross-loadings between the tested intrinsic job resources, a fifth limitation was the inability to keep the job resources feedback construct. The selected job resources are well-established variables. Based on the results and not loading well in the presence of the other job resources constructs, job resources feedback was removed, and the hypothesis was not tested. Future research may include other job resources or characteristics to test their potential in predicting higher job involvement.

This research intended to contribute to the understanding and impact of job involvement on an employee at the micro-level. Such information will be valuable in explaining job involvement variations. Brown (1996) recommended that job involvement

be understood from its antecedents and consequent influences to benefit the individual, organization, and society. An excellent reminder for organizations came from Bakker et al. (2004); when organizations fail to provide their employees with adequate job resources, there are consequences for both sides; less employee involvement and reduced commitment.

Another recommendation that still echoes comes from Elloy et al. (1991). This group of researchers suggests completing studies to identify what variables will produce the maximum payoff before investing in improving job involvement. Knowing how job and personal factors correlate with job involvement would help isolate and study variables predicting higher job involvement. Organizations should be paying more attention to identifying ways to get their employees to have and keep "their head in the game." for example, Brown and Leigh (1996) suggested that when employees have favorable perceptions of the organizational environment, job involvement, effort, and performance are positive outcomes. A good start or continuation could focus on job design, job crafting, turnover, psychological safety or climate, a sense of belonging at work, inclusion, and work-family conflict.

The present study findings encourage practitioners and more academic cadre to continue their thirst for further exploration of one of the most meaningful concepts in the social science literature. While the motivation of this research was focused on positive hypotheses, further research should focus on this concept but continue exploring other relationships, other interactions, other side-effects, positive or negative, and even travel beyond the internal borders across cultures within organizations for an opportunity to

explain the phenomena of job involvement in terms of diminishing fuzziness, and in turn, adding more practical knowledge and clarity to it.

Very importantly, highlighted several decades ago and still applicable today, Blau (1985) stated that additional research is needed to examine possible conceptual redundancies between job involvement conceptualizations and other constructs. Also, Podsakoff et al. (2016) maintained that clear conceptual definitions are essential for scientific progress and encourage researchers to continue identifying problems associated with a lack of conceptual clarity. Some of the root causes for this deficiency in knowledge and interpretation of this phenomenon lie in practitioners' tragic truth, including human resources and managers of people not understanding how, why, or what affects an employee's job involvement. It will be fruitful to understand better this construct's relationship with other job characteristics or behaviors.

More longitudinal studies involving employees who perform the same job at one organization, across multiple organizations, or even in different countries can further validate future research on job involvement. Therefore, it will be interesting to test and observe how relationships relate to other antecedents, consequences, or expanding the nomological network of job involvement.

7. Conclusion

This research was intended to motivate further research that appeals to academic and practitioner audiences to continue researching how and why some employees are willing to do more than others and what type of energy persuades them to do so. One common theme was discussed throughout the literature surrounding the conceptualization and operationalization of job involvement. It was noted by Brown (1996), Diefendorff et

al. (2021), Kanungo (1982), and Paullay et al. (1994) that consistency in the conceptual definition and construct validity are crucial to the degree to which job involvement measures an individual' psychological identity with their job versus their work or perhaps, other constructs. This conundrum affects both researchers and practitioners.

This study aimed to identify the effects of several intrinsic job resources and motivations on the elusive construct of job involvement to provide light and a point of reference that an intrinsic and prosocial employee will be more job involved. The following research questions were proposed to be answered by this research: What are the effects of the relationship between job resources and job motivation on job involvement? Does job motivation moderate the relationship between job resources and job involvement? While job motivation did not significantly moderate the relationship between job resources and job involvement, nor did job resources significantly affect job involvement, this research concluded that an intrinsically motivated employee would also be willing to help others. These motivations will allow the employee to be more job involved. A highly motivated employee can see their job completely different and leap into prosocially helping others achieve their jobs. Nesje (2015) pictures the latter statement as signaling that prosocial motivation is related to a call, which includes a strong intrinsic motivation and compassion to perform the job.

The shift that has taken place within many organizations to move their workforce to a hybrid or entirely remote setting creates an opening for further studying the impact and benefits of an involved employee nowadays from the standpoint of motivation. Organizations are in the business of being profitable, which, according to Deci et al. (2017), is a minimum expectation for an organization. They added that very effective

organizations are more than merely profitable for investors; they benefit all stakeholders, including their employees. In their terms, these highly efficient organizations should promote a work environment where employees thrive in motivation to work.

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Appendix A

Florida International University Chapman Graduate School

"An Examination of Job Resources and self-determination in employees' involvement"

Participant Recruitment Advertisement, June 2021

We are looking for Adults between the ages of 18 – 60+ years old. Individuals who are more involved with their jobs are considered an incredible asset for a driven organization. You must be willing to provide feedback based on your opinions about job involvement. You also must commit to spending at least fifteen minutes to do so. We know that you care how information about you is used and shared. We protect your data and privacy under the Amazon Privacy Notice by accessing this survey using the Amazon Mechanical Turk ("MTurk") platform. You may visit and review it in detail at mturk.com/privacy-notice. By completing this survey, you will receive a $1.00 Amazon.com account credit from MTurk as compensation for your time and input. If you would like to participate, please click to accept, and proceed to the survey. You are also the choice to exit the survey at any point. We much appreciate your willingness to give us valuable feedback. It can help improve individuals' performance with different characteristics such as values, attitudes, and motivations employed in workgroups.

Best Regards,

Hernan Morales

FIU Research Study Author

hmora049@fiu.edu

Appendix B

Consent Form

The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the effect of several behavioral factors on job involvement. Precisely, factors such as motivation and whether having adequate job resources make a difference in motivating employees to be more involved with their job. If you decide to be in this study, you will be one of approximately 250 to 500 participants in this research study. Your participation will take no more than 15 minutes of your time to complete the survey.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be requested to complete an online questionnaire consisting of a pre-determined number of items and choose the response that best represents your situation or sentiments regarding the statements provided.

There are no specific risks, harm, or discomfort anticipated by participating in this study beyond the possibility of discomfort associated with answering questions on a survey. We are not aware of any known risks from participating in completing the survey. However, if at any time you feel uncomfortable while answering the questions, you can stop and exit the survey at any point in time. Your participation will be confidential, voluntary, and anonymous. The results of the research will only be utilized for this one research alone.

The study has no possible benefits for you other than the nominal compensation offered to participants through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). However, it is hoped that through your participation, researchers will learn more about the understanding of what factors may affect or contribute to a higher level of job performance. Your individual involvement in this study may benefit organizations by identifying underlying causes and the insights of this research to reduce employee performance losses. As a participant, you can select to participate in this study or not to participate. The survey will be voluntary, and an alternative will be for you to participate in other different studies if you select to do so.

This study's records will be kept private and protected to the fullest extent provided by law. In any sort of report that we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be stored securely, and only the research team will have access to the records. However, your records may be inspected by authorized University or other agents who will keep the information confidential.

We know that you care how information about you is used and shared; by accessing this survey using the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) platform, your privacy is protected according to the Amazon Privacy Notice, which you may visit and review in detail at mturk.com/privacy-notice. MTurk is not designed for sharing or publishing personal or sensitive data. Therefore, this study does not require a Certificate of Confidentiality.

Your information collected as part of the research will not be used or distributed for future research studies, even if identifiers are removed. You will receive a payment for completing the survey, and Amazon MTurk will distribute the payment to you once you complete the survey. There are no costs to you for participating in this study.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to participate in the study or withdraw your consent at any time during the study. If you have any questions about the purpose, procedures, or any other issues relating to this research study, please contact us via email at hmora049@fiu.edu. If you would like to talk with someone about your rights of being a subject in this research study or about ethical issues with this research study, you may contact the FIU Office of Research Integrity by phone at 305-348-2494 or by email at ori@fiu.edu.

Appendix C

Main Study Survey

An Examination of Job Resources and Self-Determination in Employees' Job Involvement Survey

What is your gender?

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

What is your age?

- ○ 18 - 25
- ○ 26 - 30
- ○ 31 - 35
- ○ 36 - 45
- ○ 46 - 55
- ○ 56 or older

How long have you worked in your current position?

- ○ Less than a year
- ○ 1 - 3 years
- ○ 4 - 10 years
- ○ 11 - 15
- ○ 16 or more years

How long have you worked at your company, regardless of job title?

- ○ Less than a year
- ○ 1 - 3 years
- ○ 4 - 10 years
- ○ 11 - 15 years
- ○ 16 or more years

What is your highest educational level?

- ○ Less than high school
- ○ High school graduate
- ○ Some college
- ○ 2 year degree
- ○ 4 year degree
- ○ Professional degree
- ○ Doctorate

Which of the following best describes your industry?

- ○ Finance, Accounting or Customer Service
- ○ Construction, Transportation or Utilities
- ○ Information Technology or Telecommunications
- ○ Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
- ○ Educational Services
- ○ Marketing and Sales

Job Resources Autonomy: When you think about your discretion and independence at your current job - to what extent do you agree or disagree with each other of the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am allowed to decide how to go about getting my job done.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am able to choose the way to go about my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am free to choose the method (s) to use in carrying out my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am able to decide how to execute my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have the opportunity to decide myself the order of my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a lot of freedom to execute my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Job Resources Opportunities for Development: Do you have enough variety and opportunities to learn at your current job. Please take a moment to answer the following statements and to what extent do you agree or disagree with each one of the statements below.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My job allows me to be promoted.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My job offers me opportunities for personal growth and development.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have sufficient possibilities to develop myself at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My work offers me the opportunity to learn new things.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My job gives me the feeling that I can achieve something.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Prosocial Motivation: Please select the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements. Why are you motivated to do your work?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Because I want to help others through my work	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I want to have a positive impact on others	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because it is important to me to do good for others through my work	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Intrinsic Motivation: The following series of statements should prompt you to consider your views about your motivation at work. Please select the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements and answer the following question: Why are you motivated to do your work?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Because I enjoy the work itself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because it is fun	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I find the work engaging	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Job Involvement: Below are a number of statements, each of which you may agree or disagree with, depending on your own personal evaluation of your present job. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Most of my interests are centered around my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have very strong ties with my present job, which would be very difficult to break.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I consider my job to be very central to my existence.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I live, eat, and breathe my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

VITA

HERNÁN MORALES

	Born, Ponce, Puerto Rico
1990 -1994	B.A., Communications and Public Relations Campbell University Buies Creek, North Carolina
1990 – 1996	Prior Military Service, Honorable Discharge Army Reserve and National Guard
1998 – Present	Progressive Insurance Company Kennesaw, Georgia
1999 - 2000	M.A., Organizational Management University of Phoenix Plantation, Florida
2012 – Present	Work and community mentor. Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion Champion.
2015	Honored to be highlighted in the Progressive Insurance' Social Responsibility report for my leading community efforts. The article was titled "*Helping Others: A Sole Effort Guided by the Golden Rule."*
2019 - 2022	Doctoral Candidate, Business Administration (DBA) Florida International University Miami, Florida
2021 – 2022	Beta Gamma Sigma, Florida International University
2022 – Present	Adjunct Professor, MIU City University Miami, Florida