The Impact of Organizational Identification and Moral Identity Centrality on Organizational Engagement of Millennials: The Moderating Effect of Work Values

Udayangi, K.A.D.I.[1], Perera, G.A.T.R.[2]

[1] Faculty of Graduate Studies, University of the Visual and Performing Arts, No. 21, Albert Crescent, Colombo 07, Sri Lanka.
[2] Senior Lecturer, Department of Management and Organization Studies, Faculty of Management and Finance, University of Colombo, Colombo 03, Sri Lanka
[1]ishara.u@vpa.ac.lk, [2]ravinda@mos.cmb.ac.lk

Abstract

This study investigates the moderating impact of work values of Millennials on their organizational engagement from a social identity perspective. Organizational engagement which is conceptualized as a dimension of engagement has been rather overlooked in literature. The study of Millennials' work values and their impact on workplace attitudes and behaviour of Millennials is of timely importance given that they are becoming the largest generational cohort in global workforces. Social identity perspective is contemporarily applied in terms of various dimensions of engagement. The survey was conducted involving 285 Millennial MBA students in two of the leading universities in Sri Lanka, using a structured questionnaire. The data was analyzed using structural equation modeling. The results indicated no support for the premise that the work values of Millennials moderated the relationships between organizational identification or moral identity centrality and organizational engagement of Millennials. This study addresses the knowledge gap pertaining to the organizational engagement of Millennials and provides valuable insights into the work values of Millennials, through a social identity perspective. The findings imply that Millennials may not be different from others in terms of the relationships among organizational identification or moral identity centrality and engagement.

Correspondence: ishara.u@vpa.ac.lk

ORCID of authors: Udayangi, K.A.D.I.- https://orcid.org/0009-0003-2852-5167
Perera , G.A.T.R.- https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2788-4099

Introduction

Organizational engagement was defined by Saks et al. (2021) as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their organization role" (p. 24). It is a dimension of engagement distinct from job or work engagement (Saks, 2006; Saks et al., 2021; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Saks (2006) is considered the first author to propose that employee engagement is a multidimensional construct encompassing job and organizational engagement. Job and work engagement have been popular areas of research but empirical research focusing on organizational engagement seems sparse. The research gap addressed by this study responds to a call in literature for research focusing on organizational engagement as distinct from job engagement (Bailey et al., 2017; Saks et al., 2021). In addition, there appears to be a dearth in extant literature on the particular contextual factors pertaining to engagement, for instance, engagement in the context of specific demographic groups (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Fletcher et al. 2020).

Millennials/ Generation Y are expected to comprise three quarters (3/4) of the global workforce by the year 2025 (Omilion-Hodges & Sugg, 2019; Ubl et al., 2017). The workplace dynamics may undergo a paradigm shift with the emergence of Millennials as the majority generational cohort since they tend to demonstrate peculiar work values (Hui et al, 2020; Mahmoud et al., 2020; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Polat & Yılmaz, 2020; Seemiller & Grace, 2018; Ubl et al., 2017). Work values that are significant in Millennials involve non-compliance, work-life balance, leadership and recognition (Gursoy et al., 2013). Millennials are digital natives and considered a key human resource in facing the challenges associated with the Fourth Industrial Revolution/Industry 4.0, which involves cloud computing, cyber-physical systems, artificial intelligence, internet of things, digital transformation etc. (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010; Milkman,

2017; Sarwono & Bernarto, 2020). Therefore, engaging and retaining Millennials is vital for organizational success in the present context (Brant & Castro, 2019; Omilion-Hodges & Sugg, 2019). Yet engaging Millennials appear to be challenging for organizations as they have a tendency for constantly changing jobs and prioritizing individual goals (Chou et al., 2021; Njoroge et al., 2021; Polat & Yılmaz, 2020; Stewart et al., 2017; Udayangi & Perera, 2022). This study attempts to explain why is it that Millennials do not display expected levels of organizational engagement despite their engagement being crucial for organizational effectiveness, utilizing social identity perspective.

Social identity theory has been applied in the context of employee, job or work engagement in contemporary literature. Organizational identification and moral identity centrality are both derived from social identity theory which extant literature indicates as influencing employee, work/job engagement (Conroy et al., 2017; He et al., 2014; He et al., 2019; Ötken and Erben, 2010; Zhu et al., 2017).Organizational identification refers to how important the identity of the organization is to an employee's sense of self (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Moral identity centrality refers to how vital moral traits are to the sense of self of an individual (Aquino & Reed II, 2002, as cited in He et al., 2019). In addition, generational identity of a cohort formed by the amalgamation of characteristics distinct to the said generational cohort is considered a form of social identity (Joshi et al., 2010; Lyons et al., 2019). This study hypothesizes that organizational identification and moral identity centrality, both of which extant literature indicates as influencing employee or work engagement, influence organizational engagement as well and, thereby explores the moderating impact of work values of Millennials on the said relationships in an attempt to explain why Millennials may not display expected levels of organizational engagement.

Literature review

Organizational Engagement

Kahn (1990), in his landmark article, proposed that engagement is a function of psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability. Subsequently, various authors have conceptualized engagement as the antithesis of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002); a multidimensional construct encompassing job/work engagement and organizational engagement (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2006); a dynamic psychological state (Welch, 2011); a work-related attitude under positive organizational behaviour (Robbins et al., 2013); a multidimensional construct comprising person, work, relation and organizational engagement (So et al., 2021) etc. There appears to be no consensus among researchers on what constitutes engagement or its dimensions.

Saks et al. (2021) derived their definition of organizational engagement from the seminal works of Kahn (1990), who proposed that work engagement is "the harnessing of organizational members' selves to their work roles" (p. 694). Accordingly, Saks et al. (2021) proposed that organizational engagement is "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their organization role" (p. 24).

Organizational engagement is essential for organizational success as engaged employees tend to perform better, are more committed, productive, creative and thereby constitute an edge for organizations to outdo competitors (Anitha, 2014; Saks & Gruman, 2014; Suomäki et al., 2019). However, it appears that past researchers have mostly focused on work/job engagement while organizational engagement has been rather overlooked (Bailey et al., 2017; Saks et al., 2021).

Saks et al. (2021) reviewed 40 studies involving organizational engagement in what appears to be the first review article on organizational engagement and categorized antecedents of organizational engagement into four groups proposed by Albrecht et al. (2015): individual differences, job-related resources, organizational-related resources and leadership. Only a few studies have considered individual differences as antecedents of organizational engagement (Saks et al., 2021).

Theoretical perspectives on engagement vary. Engagement literature mostly involves Job Demands-Resources framework, despite lack of empirical evidence demonstrating that engagement can be intensified by resources or weakened by demands, or Social Exchange Theory, despite the proposition that reciprocity and rewards alone cannot guarantee engagement of employees (Bailey et al., 2017; Victor & Hoole, 2017).

Social Identity Theory (SIT)

Recent literature involves the application of social identity perspective with regards to work or employee engagement (Frare & Beuren, 2021; He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2020). According to social identity theory, individuals categorize themselves as well as others into social clusters on the basis of organizational membership, generational cohort, ethnicity, race, religion, gender etc. (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 2004). The probability of members of a particular social group endorsing the norms of the said group depends on the extent of identification with the group (Porck et al., 2019).

Organizational Identification

Organizational identification refers to the like-mindedness with the organization and recognizes how significant the identity of the organization is to a particular employee's sense of self (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Lee et al., 2015; Piening et al., 2020; Riketta, 2005). Organizational identification is associated with a number of workplace behaviours and attitudes such as turnover

intentions, job performance, commitment to the organization and creativity of the employees (Ashforth et al., 2020; Cornwell et al., 2018; Frare & Beuren, 2021; Lee et al., 2015; Riketta, 2005; Zhu et al., 2017). The higher the organizational identification the more likely an employee may consider the organization's accomplishments as well as flaws as his/her own (Traeger and Alfes, (2019).

Moral Identity and Moral Identity Centrality

Moral identity is considered "a self-conception organized around a set of moral traits" (Aquino & Reed II, 2002, p. 1424). Moral identity is considered to be a prerequisite for moral behaviour (Hardy & Carlo, 2011; Stets et al., 2008; Stets & Carter, 2012; Stets & Serpe, 2013). Moral identity leads individuals to picture themselves as "caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, and kind" (Aquino & Reed II, 2002, p. 1426). According to Aquino et al. (2007), individuals display behaviours that are in agreement with their moral identity.

Centrality of a particular identity represents the assumed importance of that identity (Stets & Serpe, 2013). Moral identity centrality implies how imperative moral traits are to the self-construction of an individual (Aquino & Reed II, 2002, as cited in He et al., 2019). Those who view themselves as being moral persons are more likely to exhibit moral behaviour in any given situation and this likelihood increases with greater centrality (Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007; Stets & Serpe, 2013).

Work Values of Millennials

Millennials/ Generation Y were born between the years 1982 and 2000 (United States Census Bureau, 2015). The birth years vary between the early 1980s and mid-to-late 1990s depending on the author but almost all sources agree that they were born before the year 2000. Millennials are dubbed the Generation Me (Twenge, 2013); the entitled generation (Allen et al., 2015); the most praised generation (Anderson et al., 2016); digital natives (Milkman, 2017); job hoppers (Seemiller & Grace, 2018) and, in the case of Chinese Millennials, the little emperors, as they are products of China's one-child policy (Zhao & Xu, 2019).

Generational cohort theory suggests that those who were born in a particular time period and thereby encountered similar socio-economic, political, technological and environmental factors develop distinctive views and traits (Glazer et al., 2019; Inglehart, 2015; Lyons et al., 2019). The combination of such traits builds a generational identity and as it is socially constructed, it is deemed to be a social identity (Joshi et al., 2010; Lyons et al., 2019). Shared values function as a basis of generational identity (Khan et al., 2021; Lyons & Schweitzer, 2017). Employees representing different generational cohorts demonstrate work values that are distinctive to their particular generational cohort (Gursoy et al., 2013; Pasko et al., 2020).

Extant literature indicates that Millennials value flexible work, regular feedback, intrinsic satisfaction, work-life balance, leisure, teamwork, recognition and professional advancement while displaying a propensity for nonconformity and non-compliance along with a strong dislike of bureaucracy (Chou et al., 2021; Gursoy et al., 2013; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Pasko et al., 2020; Rather, 2018; Rosa & Hastings, 2018; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010). They prefer natural leaders to managers (Rather, 2018). Many of them pursue continued education by enrolling in graduate degrees and training programmes (Goyal & Gupta, 2019; Hui et al., 2020; Rosa & Hastings, 2018; Sandeen, 2008).

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development

The conceptual model was developed based on the extant literature relating to the research issue and incorporating the social

identity theory and generational cohort theory.

Organizational Identification and Organizational Engagement of Millennials

Tyler and Blader (2003) postulated that individuals get involved in groups or organizations so as to construct and sustain their identities. Organizational identification involves the assimilation of organizational norms and values into the self-construction of an individual (Traeger & Alfes, 2019). Past research indicates that organizational identification has an empirical association with turnover intentions by way of social, relational or personal identification while turnover intentions are negatively correlated with organizational engagement (Abrams et al., 1998; Ashforth et al., 2020; Conroy et al., 2017; Saks, 2006; Van Dick et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2017). Millennials are called 'job hoppers' as their turnover intentions are deemed to be relatively high (Glazer et al., 2019; Hoffman, 2018;
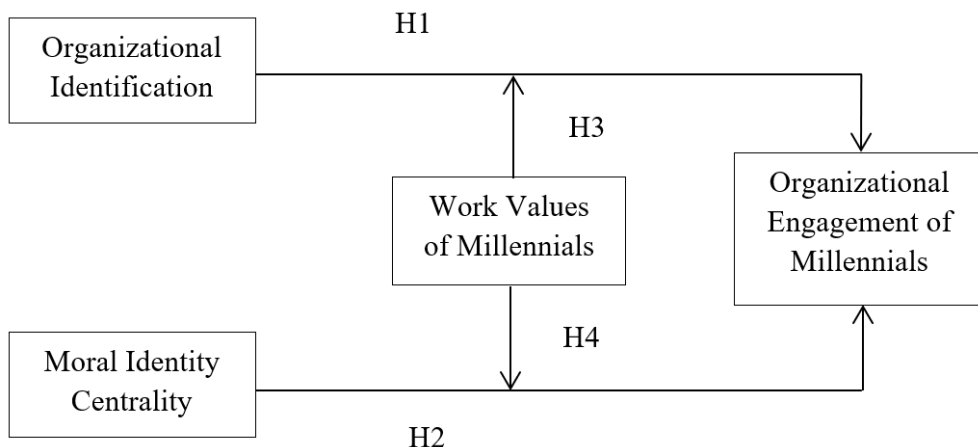

Figure 01: Conceptual Model for the Study

Source: Developed by the authors.

Tetteh et al., 2021). Moreover, past research indicates that work engagement may increase as the identification with the organization increases (Conroy et al., 2017; Ötken & Erben, 2010). Both work and organizational engagement have been conceptualized as dimensions of employee engagement (Bailey et al., 2017; So et al., 2021). Since organizational identification is deemed to have a positive impact on work engagement, it is hypothesized that organizational identification may have a positive impact on organizational engagement as well.

H1:   Organizational identification has a positive impact on the organizational engagement of Millennials.

Moral Identity Centrality and Organizational Engagement of Millennials

Individuals behave in a manner which is in accordance with their respective moral identity (Aquino et al., 2007). Moral identity centrality indicates how vital moral traits are to the self-concept of a person (Aquino & Reed II, 2002, as cited in He et al., 2019). Those who have a higher moral identity centrality are more likely to show a sense of justice and care for others (Stets et al., 2008; Stets & Carter, 2012; Stets & Burke, 2014). Past research indicates that moral identity centrality has a positive effect on employee engagement (He et al., 2014). Since organizational engagement is conceptualized as a dimension of employee engagement, it is hypothesized that moral identity centrality

may have a positive impact on organizational engagement as well (Bailey et al., 2017; He et al., 2019; So et al., 2021).

H2: Moral identity centrality has a positive impact on the organizational engagement of Millennials.

Moderating Impact of Work Values of Millennials

Work values that are significant in Millennials include non-compliance, work-life balance, leadership and recognition (Gursoy et al., 2013). Individuals who value non-conformity are less likely to show compliance (Eva et al., 2017). Millennials tend to challenge extant rules and procedures by violating dress codes, addressing everybody on a first-name basis etc. (Gursoy et al., 2013; Twenge & Campbell, 2008). They dislike bureaucracy and might leave organizations that endorse traditional approaches to management (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Millennials value work-life balance more than the members of Generation X and Baby Boomers and demand flexibility in work, shorter working hours and work-from-home options (Magni & Manzoni, 2020; Rosa & Hastings, 2018; Weeks & Schaffert, 2019). Millennials look up to leaders rather than managers and expect more support from their managers compared to the preceding generations (Omilion-Hodges & Sugg, 2019; Pasko et al., 2020; Rather, 2018). Millennials are in search of role models with whom they could foster friendly interpersonal relationships (Chou et al., 2021; Gursoy et al., 2013; Pasko et al., 2020). Recognition is crucial for retaining Millennials as they seek opportunities to participate in the decision making process and to be involved with key projects soon after recruitment (Omilion-Hodges & Sugg, 2019; Pasko et al., 2020; Tirta et al., 2020).

Work values indirectly influence workplace behaviour and attitudes (De Cooman & Dries, 2012; Gursoy et al., 2013). For instance, work values positively moderate the relationship between work engagement and employee creativity of Millennials (Hui et al., 2020). According to Porck et al. (2019), the probability of members of a particular social group endorsing the norms of the said group depends on their extent of identification with the group. Millennials display an inherent affiliation with their generational cohort and may endorse their generational work values including non-compliance, work-life balance, leadership and recognition and hence, they are less likely to adopt the organization's identity as fundamental to their self-concept (Gursoy et al., 2013; Kahn et al., 2021). Thus, it can be argued that Millennials who highly endorse their generational work values will not only be less likely to identity with the organization, but their organizational engagement will also be lower. In other words, the relationship between organizational identification and organizational engagement will be weak for Millennials who highly endorse their generational work values. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is formulated;

H3: Work values of Millennials moderate the positive relationship between organizational identification and organizational engagement of Millennials such that high work values weaken the relationship and low work values strengthen the relationship.

Moral identity centrality has a positive influence on employee engagement and may have a positive influence on organizational engagement (Bailey et al., 2017; He et al., 2014; Saks, 2006; So et al., 2021). The likelihood of members of a particular social group endorsing the norms of the said group depends on their extent of identification with the group (Porck et al., 2019). Millennials are understood to have an intrinsic affection with their generation (Kahn et al., 2021). Therefore, they may endorse their generational work values including non-compliance, emphasis on work-life balance, leadership and recognition rather than embracing moral

attributes such as being ethical, fair, caring, honest, compassionate, kind, generous and helpful as being central to their self-concept (Gursoy et al., 2013; Kahn et al., 2021). Therefore, it can be argued that Millennials who highly endorse their generational work values will not only be less likely to embrace moral attributes as being central to their sense of self, but their organizational engagement will also be lower. That is, the relationship between moral identity centrality and organizational engagement will be weak for Millennials who highly endorse their generational work values. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is formulated;

H4: Work values of Millennials moderate the positive relationship between moral identity centrality and organizational engagement of Millennials such that high work values weaken the relationship and low work values strengthen the relationship.

Methodology

Research Design and Sampling

This is a cross-sectional, quantitative study. Millennials were selected as they serve as a key human resource for organizations in the present context, while demonstrating peculiar work values. Considering that the literature review indicated that Millennials have a tendency for continuous education, the scope of the study was narrowed down to Millennials pursuing Master of Business Administration (MBA) programmes. Accordingly, the sample consisted of Millennials who are following MBA programmes offered by two of the leading universities in Sri Lanka. The sampling frame consisted of 1300 MBA students in the 2020 and 2021 intakes. According to the Krejcie and Morgan Table, the sample size for a target population of 1300 is 297 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

Data Collection Instrument

A self-administered structured questionnaire in English language was used to collect data. Part A of the questionnaire focused on demographic characteristics of the respondents. Part B comprised scales adopted from literature and used a 07-point Likert scale where agreement or disagreement with each statement could be indicated in a range between strongly disagree (= 1) and strongly agree (= 7). Organizational engagement was measured using the six items developed by Saks (2006), with a sample item being "*Being a member of this organization is very captivating*". Organizational identification was measured using the Scale of Organizational Identification developed by Mael and Ashforth, (1992), with a sample item being "*When someone criticizes the organization I work for, it feels like a personal insult*". Measures developed by Aquino and Reed II (2002) were used to measure moral identity centrality and they refer to a set of moral traits including being "caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, and kind" (p. 1426). A sample item is "*It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics*". Measures developed by Gursoy et al. (2013) were used to measure work values of Millennials, with as sample item being "*I am likely to challenge workplace norms such as dress codes, flex time, and employee-supervisor relations*".

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted involving 30 respondents from among the Millennial MBA students of two of the leading local universities, to test the applicability of scales adopted from literature in the Sri Lankan context. Out of the 30 respondents, 57% were male and 43% were female. These 30 respondents were not considered for the actual data collection. IBM SPSS Statistics version 23 was used for the data analysis. As per the pilot study results, Cronbach's alpha score was greater than 0.60 for all constructs indicating internal consistency (Churchill Jr, 1979, as cited in Rahimnia & Hassanzadeh, 2013). The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO)

value was greater than 0.5 for all variables while the Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant for all variables (Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974; Kaiser & Rice, 1974; Knapp & Swoyer, 1967). Therefore, the data is deemed to be suitable for factor analysis. A factor analysis was conducted to check the construct validity (Thompson & Daniel, 1996). The rotated loadings were greater than |0.6| onto one of the factors for all items of organizational engagement, organizational identification and moral identity centrality. The rotated loadings for items of work values of Millennials were greater than |0.6| except for one item (*I have low tolerance for bureaucracy and rules*). Yet the rotated loading for this item was greater than |0.4|. Considering that factor loadings were at least above |0.4| and the fact that the sample size for the pilot study was only 30, all the items were retained for the data collection.

Data Collection

Printed copies of the questionnaire were distributed among the members of the sampling frame with the intention of receiving 297 responses. Convenient sampling technique was used. A total of 315 responses were received out of 373 questionnaires distributed, accounting for a response rate of 84.5%.

Generational Cohort of the Respondents

Three out of the 315 responses were rejected due to being incomplete. Out of the remaining 312 respondents, 285 (91.3%) were aged between 22 – 39 years, indicating that were Millennials/ Generation Y while the remaining 27 respondents were aged between 40 – 56 years indicating that they were from Generation X. There were no respondents from the age groups *21 years or younger* (Generation Z) and *57 years or older* (Baby Boomers). The 285 responses from Millennials/ Generation Y were used

for the subsequent analysis. According to Reinartz et al. (2009), CB-SEM requires at least 250 observations.

Data Screening

The three empty cells identified within the dataset using the COUNTBLANK function in Microsoft Excel were filled using the average values. Unengaged responses were checked using the STDEV.S function but the dataset did not provide a standard deviation of zero for any of the 285 cases, indicating no unengaged responses. The Cook's distance values for each of the 285 cases were sorted in descending order but there were no values exceeding 1, indicating no multivariate outliers (Dhakal, 2017; Díaz-García & González-Farías, 2004). Therefore, all 285 cases were used for the subsequent analysis. Three of the items (OE3, MIC4 and MIC5) were reverse items and these were re-coded on SPSS before further analysis. The skewness and kurtosis values ranged from -1.273 to 0.227 and -1.170 to 1.720 respectively. Therefore, the dataset is deemed to have satisfied the requirement for skewness and kurtosis (between the range of -2 and +2), indicating that the assumption of normality is satisfied (George & Mallery, 2019; Kline, 2011). A variance inflation factor (VIF) value less than 10 or 5 is considered an acceptable level for multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010; Ringle et al., 2015; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The VIF values indicated no multicollinearity issues as indicted by Table 01.

Sampling Adequacy

The KMO value was greater than 0.6 for all the constructs while the Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant as shown in Table 2 and therefore the dataset is suitable for factor analysis (Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974; Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999; Kaiser & Rice, 1974; Knapp & Swoyer, 1967).

Table 01: Multicollinearity Statistics

Variable	Coefficients	
	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Organizational Identification	0.738	1.355
Moral Identity Centrality	0.753	1.328
Work values of Millennials	0.966	1.036
Dependent Variable: Organizational engagement		

Note: VIF = variance inflation factor
Source: Survey data.

Table 02: KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Variable	No. of Items	KMO	Bartlett's Test	
			Chi Square Value	Sig
Organizational Engagement	06	0.849	744.025	0.000
Organizational Identification	05	0.867	698.321	0.000
Moral Identity Centrality	13	0.894	2407.113	0.000
Work values of Millennials	13	0.773	1399.113	0.000

Note: KMO = Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin value
Source: Survey data.

Table 03: Reliability Statistics

Construct	No of items	Cronbach's alpha
Organizational Engagement	06	0.722
Organizational Identification	05	0.878
Moral Identity Centrality	13	0.852
Work values of Millennials	13	0.821

Source: Survey data.

Reliability

Reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha scores which is an indicator of internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha score was greater than 0.70 for all constructs indicating internal consistency, as shown in Table 03 (Kline, 2011; Taber, 2018).

Common Method Bias

As per the output of Harman's one-factor test, the total variance extracted by one factor was 25.459% which is less than the threshold value of 50%, indicating no noteworthy threat of common method bias, which could occur when data is collected from a single source using a survey questionnaire to measure both predictor as well as outcome variables (Conway & Lance, 2010; Fuller et al., 2016; Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015).

Model Fit Indices

This study used at least one model fit index from each of the three categories of indices (parsimonious fit, incremental fit, absolute fit) as recommended by Afthanorhan (2013). The goodness of fit indices used in the study and their threshold values are given by Table 04.

Table 04: Model fit Indices and Threshold Values

Name of category	Index	Threshold value	Reference
Parsimonious fit	CMIN/DF	CMIN/DF < 3	Kline (1998)
Incremental fit	CFI	CFI > 0.90	Bentler (1990)
Absolute fit	RMSEA	RMSEA < 0.08	Browne & Cudeck (1993)
Absolute fit	SRMR	SRMR < 0.08	Hu and Bentler (1999)

Note: CMIN/DF = chi-square fit statistics/degrees of freedom; CFI = Comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation

Results

Demographic Summary of Respondents

Out of the 285 responses used in the analysis, 154 (54%) were female and 131 (46%) were male. Considering the civil status, 143 (50.2%) were married, 141 (49.5%) were single and 1 (0.4%) was divorced/ separated. Out of the respondents, 217 (76.1%) were employed in the private sector while 39 (13.7%) were employed in the public sector and remaining 29 (10.2%) were employed in the semi government sector. Considering the number of organizations, 117 (41.1%) had been employed in two organizations so far, 78 (27.4%) had been employed in three organizations and 58 (20.4%) had been employed in only one organization while the remaining 32 (11.2%) had been employed in four organizations. Considering the tenure, 127 (44.6%) had a tenure of 3 – 5 years while 71 (24.9%) had a tenure of 0 – 2 years. Considering the academic qualifications, 199 (69.8%) had a bachelor's degree, 59 (20.7%) had a Master's degree and 24 (8.4%) had a postgraduate diploma as the highest academic qualification.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The measurement model was developed using IBM SPSS AMOS 23 software in order to check to which extent the indicators measure their respective latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010). The model fit indices for the initial measurement model are given by Table 5 and none of them had achieved the relevant threshold values as indicated in the table. Therefore, the initial measurement model had to be modified by stepwise deletion of indicators with standardized regression weights less than 0.60 (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). The model fit indices for the modified measurement model are given by Table 6 and all of them have achieved values that falls within the relevant threshold values. In addition, Cronbach's alpha score was greater than 0.70 for all constructs of the modified measurement model indicating internal consistency (Kline, 2011; Taber, 2018).

Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity of the Measurement Model

All constructs of the measurement model had average variance extracted (AVE) values above the threshold value of 0.50 as indicated in Table 7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Composite reliability (CR) of all constructs was above the threshold value of 0.70 (Brunner & SÜβ, 2005). Therefore, the measurement model has achieved acceptable levels for convergent validity in terms of average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR). Moreover, correlations between the constructs were less than 0.85 indicating that the requirement of discriminant validity is satisfied (Kline, 2005).

Table 05: Model Fit Indices for the Initial Measurement Model

Name of category	Index	Value	Threshold Value	Remarks
Parsimonious fit	CMIN/DF	3.872	CMIN/DF < 3	Not achieved
Incremental fit	CFI	0.682	CFI > 0.90	Not achieved

Absolute fit	RMSEA	0.101	RMSEA < 0.08	Not achieved
Absolute fit	SRMR	0.1148	SRMR < 0.08	Not achieved

Note: CMIN/DF = chi-square fit statistics/degrees of freedom; CFI = Comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation
Source: Survey data.

Table 06: Model Fit Indices for the Modified Measurement Model

Name of category	Index	Value	Threshold Value	Remarks
Parsimonious fit	CMIN/DF	1.999	CMIN/DF < 3	Achieved
Incremental fit	CFI	0.955	CFI > 0.90	Achieved
Absolute fit	RMSEA	0.059	RMSEA < 0.08	Achieved
Absolute fit	SRMR	0.0479	SRMR < 0.08	Achieved

Note: CMIN/DF = chi-square fit statistics/degrees of freedom; CFI = Comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation
Source: Survey data.

Table 07: Convergent Validity Statistics

Construct	Convergent Validity	
	CR	AVE
Organizational engagement	0.879	0.596
Organizational Identification	0.880	0.595
Moral Identity Centrality	0.909	0.715
Work Values of Millennials	0.839	0.566

Note: AVE = average variance extracted; CR = Composite reliability
Source: Survey data.

Hypotheses Testing

This study used the interaction effects between latent variables to test the moderating impact (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The model depicted by Figure 02 had zero degrees of freedom indicating that it was a just-identified model and hence the model fit indices do not make sense (Lei & Wu, 2007; Ramlall, 2016; Tomarken & Waller, 2003). The regression weights pertaining to the above model are given by Table 08.

The path analysis for the direct effect of organizational identification on organizational engagement (H1) revealed a significant p value (0.000), indicating that the results supported H1. The path coefficient of organizational identification to organizational engagement was 0.448, indicating that when organizational identification is increased by 1-unit, organizational engagement may increase by 0.448 units.

The path analysis for the direct effect of moral identity centrality on organizational engagement (H2) revealed a significant p value (0.000), indicating that the results supported H2. The path coefficient was 0.256, indicating that when moral identity centrality is increased by 1-unit, organizational engagement may increase by 0.256 units.
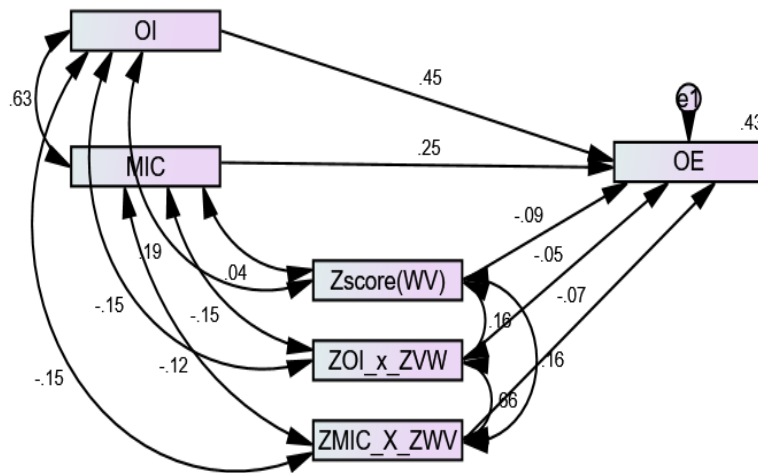
Figure 02: Structural Model

Result (Default model) Minimum was achieved Chi-square = .000 Degrees of freedom = 0
Probability level cannot be computed
Note. OE = organizational engagement; OI = organizational identification; MIC = moral identity
centrality; WV = work values of Millennials

Table 08: Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
OE	<---	ZMIC_x_ZWV	-.066	.061	-1.087	.277	Not significant
OE	<---	ZOI_x_ZVW	-.047	.061	-.757	.449	Not significant
OE	<---	ZWV	-.092	.050	-1.843	.065	Not significant
OE	<---	OI	.448	.060	7.444	***	Significant
OE	<---	MIC	.256	.060	4.242	***	Significant

Note: OE = organizational engagement; OI = organizational identification; MIC = moral
identity centrality; WV = work values of Millennials; C.R.=critical ratio
Source: Survey data.

The path analysis for the interaction effect of organizational identification and work values of Millennials (H3) had a p value of 0.449 and a C.R. value of -0.757 indicating that the results did not support H3. The path analysis for the interaction effect of moral identity centrality and work values of Millennials (H4) had a p value of 0.277 and a C.R. value of -1.087 indicating that the results did not support H4.

Discussion of Findings

This study attempted to explain why is it that Millennials do not display expected levels of organizational engagement despite their engagement being crucial for organizational effectiveness, utilizing the social identity perspective. The results indicated that both organizational identification and moral identity centrality have a positive impact on the organizational engagement of Millennials. However, the

results did not support the premise that work values of Millennials significantly moderate the relationships between organizational identification and organizational engagement of Millennials or moral identity centrality and organizational engagement of Millennials.

The findings indicate that organizational identification and moral identity centrality, both of which past research have shown to influence work, job or employee engagement, influence organizational engagement as well. The higher the like-mindedness with the organization, the more likely the members might harness themselves to the organization. Likewise, those who consider themselves as having moral attributes are more likely to tie themselves to the organization. The findings being aligned with the past research on the relationships between organizational identification, moral identity centrality and work, job or employee engagement, by the likes of Conroy et al. (2017), Frare and Beuren (2021), He et al. (2014), He et al. (2019) and Ötken and Erben (2010) may also imply that Millennials are not necessarily different from others in terms of these relationships. The findings are helpful in enhancing the understanding of organizational engagement given that empirical research focused on organizational engagement has been sparse and also address the knowledge gap pertaining to factors affecting organizational engagement in the context of Millennials (Bailey et al., 2017; Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Fletcher et al. 2020; Saks et al., 2021).

The findings did not indicate that work values of Millennials have a significant moderating impact on their organizational engagement, despite the fact that extant literature describes Millennials as having unique work values which formulate a basis of their generational identity (Hui et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2021; Lyons & Schweitzer, 2017; Njoroge et al., 2021). These findings do not align with the premise that work values indirectly influence the attitudes and behaviour of employees, given

that engagement is considered a work-related attitude (Basinska & Dåderman, 2019; De Cooman & Dries, 2012; King et al., 2017; Nadeem et al., 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Schreurs et al., 2014). However, they appear to align with the findings of Saito et al. (2018), who proposed that a lack of concurrence between individual work values and the organization did not affect work engagement. The findings also reflect those of Mishra et al. (2015), who proposed that work values were not a significant factor contributing to employee engagement.

Moderation implies an interaction between the independent variable and the moderator, that is, an interaction between organizational identification/ moral identity centrality and work values of Millennials (Judd et al., 2001; McClelland & Judd, 1993). Yet the results of the study did not imply the presence of a significant impact of the interaction between organizational identification/ moral identity centrality and work values of Millennials on the relationships between organizational identification/ moral identity centrality and organizational engagement of Millennials. This could be either due to the absence of such impact or, the impact being quite small that the results do not provide evidence of it due to the study being underpowered (Visentin et al., 2020).

Conclusions

Based on the empirical findings of the study, it can be concluded that Millennials who identify with the organization that they work for, as well as those who identify as being moral persons, are more likely to display organizational engagement. The work values of Millennials may not necessarily influence their organizational engagement. It can be proposed that Millennials may not be different from others in terms of the relationships among organizational identification or moral identity centrality and engagement.

This study contributes to literature by addressing the knowledge gap pertaining to empirical research focusing on the organizational engagement of Millennials, as systematic literature reviews on engagement have called for research concentrating on organizational engagement as distinct from job/work engagement (Bailey et al., 2017; Saks et al., 2021). The significance of this study lies in the fact that it provides an insight into the organizational engagement of the generational cohort of Millennials, taking into account the generational identity and work values of Millennials.

This study contributes to practice by equipping mangers with a better understanding of the Millennial generational cohort and the factors that might help enhance their organizational engagement. The study of workplace attitudes and behaviour of Millennials is a timely requirement. Managers may benefit from focusing on the aspects of organizational identification, moral identity centrality and work values in their attempts to engage and retain Millennials. They might benefit from developing organizational systems and cultures that are more aligned with Millennials' generational identity and work values.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study used convenient sampling which is a non-probability sampling technique susceptible to sampling bias which could challenge the generalizability of the findings. This study used a cross-sectional approach but a longitudinal research design would have provided deeper insights as organizational behaviour-related concepts are better understood over a period of time. The socio-economic aspects of the selected sample in the context of Sri Lanka could affect the generalizability of the findings. Selecting a more extensive sampling frame of Millennials would have resulted in better generalizability.

Future researchers may benefit from expanding their scope to represent more inclusive educational and socio-economic backgrounds of Millennials which would deliver a broader perspective on the organizational engagement of Millennials. Despite the results suggesting that Millennials may not be different from others in terms of the relationships between organizational identification/ moral identity centrality and engagement, the role of generational identity and work values of Millennials in terms of their workplace attitudes and behaviour warrants further exploration.

English is not the first language of the respondents, and they may have misinterpreted items in the questionnaire. This concern was addressed by selecting a highly educated sampling frame comprising of MBA students of two of the leading local universities and by conducting a pilot study.

Future researchers are recommended to further explore the social identity perspective of organizational engagement and also focus on organizational engagement in various demographic groups, business sectors, professions, different organizational cultures etc. For instance, the findings of this study may be tested in the context of Generation Z whose oldest members are now entering the workforce. Future researchers may be able to make significant contributions by exploring the various dimensions or facets of engagement as defined by different authors, in order to come up with definitive demarcations of the concepts of engagement, job engagement, work engagement, organizational engagement, employee engagement etc. and the relationships between them.

Appendix A - Modified Measurement Model
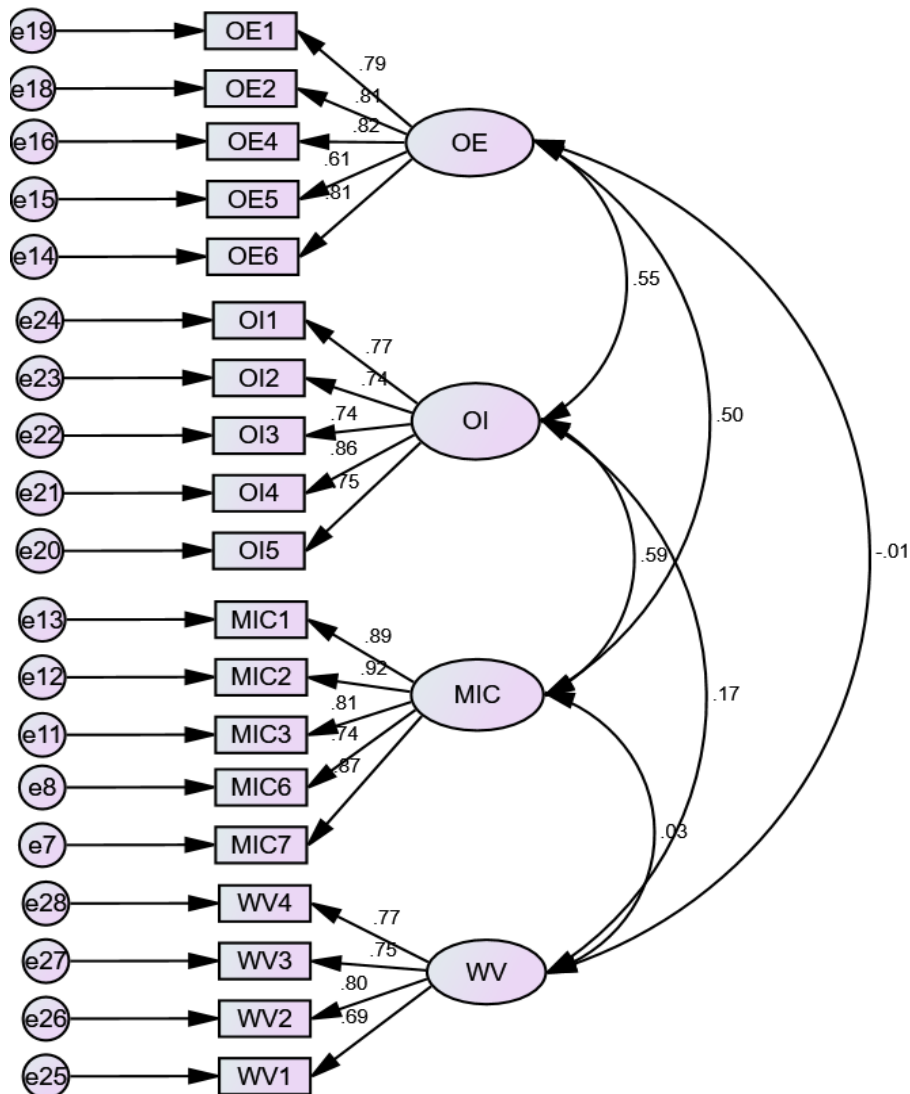
Note. OE = organizational engagement; OI = organizational identification; MIC = moral identity centrality; WV = work values of Millennials

References

Abrams, D., Ando, K., & Hinkle, S. (1998). Psychological attachment to the group: Cross-cultural differences in organizational identification and subjective norms as predictors of workers' turnover intentions. *Personality and Social psychology bulletin*, *24*(10), 1027-1039.

Afthanorhan, W. M. A. B. W. (2013). A comparison of partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) and covariance based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM) for confirmatory factor analysis. *International Journal of Engineering Science and Innovative Technology*, *2*(5), 198-205.

Albrecht, S. L., Bakker, A. B., Gruman, J. A., Macey, W. H., & Saks, A. M. (2015). Employee engagement, human resource management practices and competitive advantage: An integrated approach. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance, 2*(1), 7-35.

Allen, R. S., Allen, D. E., Karl, K., & White, C. S. (2015). Are Millennials Really an Entitled Generation? An Investigation into Generational Equity Sensitivity Differences. *Journal of Business Diversity*, *15*(2), 14-26.

Anderson, E., Buchko, A. A., & Buchko, K. J. (2016). Giving negative feedback to Millennials: How can managers criticize the "most praised" generation. *Management Research Review, 39*(6), 692-705.

Anitha, J. (2014). Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management, 63*(3), 308-323.

Aquino, K., & Reed II, A. (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(6), 1423-1440.

Aquino, K., Reed II, A., Thau, S., & Freeman, D. (2007). A grotesque and dark beauty: How moral identity and mechanisms of moral disengagement influence cognitive and emotional reactions to war. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *43*(3), 385-392.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(1), 20-39.

Ashforth, B. E., Schinoff, B. S., & Brickson, S. L. (2020). My Company is Friendly," "Mine's a Rebel": Anthropomorphism and shifting organizational identity from "What" to "Who. *Academy of Management Review*, *45*(1), 29-57.

Bailey, C., Madden, A., Alfes, K., & Fletcher, L. (2017). The meaning, antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement: A narrative synthesis. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *19*(1), 31-53.

Bakker, A. B., & Albrecht, S. (2018). Work engagement: current trends. *Career Development International*, *23* (1), 4-11.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173-1182.

Basinska, B. A., & Dåderman, A. M. (2019). Work values of police officers and their relationship with job burnout and work engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*(1), 1-13.

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, *107*(2), 238-246.

Brant, K. K., & Castro, S. L. (2019). You can't ignore millennials: Needed changes and a new way forward in entitlement research. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *29*(4), 527-538.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen, & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Brunner, M., & SÜβ, H. M. (2005). Analyzing the reliability of multidimensional measures: An example from intelligence research. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *65*(2), 227-240.

Chou, S. Y., Bove, F., Ramser, C., & Han, B. (2021). Millennials as organizational citizens: Conceptualization and measurement development. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *161*(5), 632-651.

Conroy, S. A., Becker, W. J., & Menges, J. I. (2017). The meaning of my feelings depends on who I am: Work-related identifications shape emotion effects in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *60*(3), 1071-1093.

Conway, J. M., & Lance, C. E. (2010). What reviewers should expect from authors regarding common method bias in organizational research. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *25*(3), 325-334.

Cornwell, T. B., Howard-Grenville, J., & Hampel, C. E. (2018). The company you keep: How an organization's horizontal partnerships affect employee organizational identification. *Academy of Management Review*, *43*(4), 772-791.

De Cooman, R., & Dries, N. (2012). Attracting generation y: How work values predict organizational attraction in graduating students in Belgium. *Managing the New Workforce: International Perspectives on the Millennial Generation*, 42–63.

Dhakal, C. P. (2017). Dealing with outliers and influential points while fitting regression. *Journal of Institute of Science and Technology*, *22*(1), 61-65.

Díaz-García, J. A., & González-Farías, G. (2004). A note on the Cook's distance. *Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference*, *120*(1-2), 119-136.

Dziuban, C. D., & Shirkey, E. C. (1974). When is a correlation matrix appropriate for factor analysis? Some decision rules. *Psychological Bulletin*, *81*(6), 358.

Eva, N., Prajogo, D., & Cooper, B. (2017). The relationship between personal values, organizational formalization and employee work outcomes of compliance and innovation. *International Journal of Manpower, 38*(2), 274-287.

Fletcher, L., Bailey, C., Alfes, K., & Madden, A. (2020). Mind the context gap: a critical review of engagement within the public sector and an agenda for future research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *31*(1), 6-46.

Frare, A. B., & Beuren, I. M. (2021). Effects of corporate reputation and social identity on innovative job performance. *European Journal of Innovation Management*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJIM-02-2021-0071

Fuller, C. M., Simmering, M. J., Atinc, G., Atinc, Y., & Babin, B. J. (2016). Common methods variance detection in business research. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(8), 3192-3198.

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2019). *IBM SPSS statistics 26 step by step: A simple guide and reference*. Routledge.

Glazer, S., Mahoney, A. C., & Randall, Y. (2019). Employee development's role in organizational commitment: a preliminary investigation comparing generation X and millennial employees. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 51*(1), 1-12.

Goyal, P., & Gupta, P. (2019). Millennials: Understanding and Attracting Them to Higher Education. In *New Age Admissions Strategies in Business Schools* (pp. 251-263). IGI Global.

Guadagnoli, E., & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation of sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological Bulletin*, *103*(2), 265-275.

Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G. Q., & Karadag, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *32*, 40-48.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). Multivariate data analysis: International version. *New Jersey, NJ, US: Pearson*.

Hardy, S. A., & Carlo, G. (2011). Moral identity: What is it, how does it develop, and is it linked to moral action?. *Child Development Perspectives*, *5*(3), 212-218.

He, H., Chao, M. M., & Zhu, W. (2019). Cause-related marketing and employee engagement: The roles of admiration, implicit morality beliefs, and moral identity. *Journal of Business Research*, *95*, 83-92.

He, H., Zhu, W., & Zheng, X. (2014). Procedural justice and employee engagement: Roles of organizational identification and moral identity centrality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *122*(4), 681-695.

Hershatter, A., & Epstein, M. (2010). Millennials and the world of work: An organization and management perspective. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *25*(2), 211-223.

Hoffman, B. (2018). Why millennials quit. *Journal of Property Management*, *83*(3), 42-45.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1), 1-55.

Hui, L., Qun, W., Nazir, S., Mengyu, Z., Asadullah, M. A., & Khadim, S. (2020). Organizational identification perceptions and millennials' creativity: testing the mediating role of work engagement and the moderating role of work values. *European Journal of Innovation Management, 24*(5), 1653-1678.

Hutcheson, G. D., & Sofroniou, N. (1999). *The multivariate social scientist: Introductory statistics using generalized linear models*. Sage.

Inglehart, R. (2015). *The silent revolution: Changing values and political styles among Western publics*. Princeton University Press.

Jakobsen, M., & Jensen, R. (2015). Common method bias in public management studies. *International Public Management Journal*, *18*(1), 3-30.

Joshi, A., Dencker, J. C., Franz, G., & Martocchio, J. J. (2010). Unpacking generational identities in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *35*(3), 392-414.

Judd, C. M., Kenny, D. A., & McClelland, G. H. (2001). Estimating and testing mediation and moderation in within-subject designs. *Psychological Methods*, *6*(2), 115-134.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*(4), 692-724.

Kaiser, H. F., & Rice, J. (1974). Little jiffy, mark IV. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *34*(1), 111-117.

Khan, S., Fazili, A. I., & Bashir, I. (2021). Constructing generational identity through counterfeit luxury consumption. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 31*(3), 415-437.

King, C., Murillo, E., & Lee, H. (2017). The effects of generational work values on employee brand attitude and behavior: A multi-group analysis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *66*, 92-105.

Kline, R. B. (1998). Software review: Software programs for structural equation modeling: Amos, EQS, and LISREL. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *16*(4), 343-364.

Kline, R. B. (2011). Convergence of structural equation modeling and multilevel modeling. In Williams, M., & Vogt, W. P. (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of innovation in social research methods* (pp. 562-589). Sage Publications.

Knapp, T. R., & Swoyer, V. H. (1967). Some empirical results concerning the power of Bartlett's test of the significance of a correlation matrix. *American Educational Research Journal*, *4*(1), 13-17.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *30*(3), 607-610.

Lee, E. S., Park, T. Y., & Koo, B. (2015). Identifying organizational identification as a basis for attitudes and behaviors: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological bulletin*, *141*(5), 1049-1080.

Lei, P. W., & Wu, Q. (2007). Introduction to structural equation modeling: Issues and practical considerations. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, *26*(3), 33-43.

Lyons, S. T., & Schweitzer, L. (2017). A qualitative exploration of generational identity: Making sense of young and old in the context of today's workplace. *Work, Aging and Retirement*, *3*(2), 209-224.

Lyons, S. T., Schweitzer, L., Urick, M. J., & Kuron, L. (2019). A dynamic social-ecological model of generational identity in the workplace. *Journal of Intergenerational Relationships*, *17*(1), 1-24.

Magni, F., & Manzoni, B. (2020). Generational Differences in Workers' Expectations: Millennials Want More of the Same Things. *European Management Review*, *17*(4), 901–914.

Mahmoud, A. B., Fuxman, L., Mohr, I., Reisel, W. D., & Grigoriou, N. (2020). "We aren't your reincarnation!" workplace motivation across X, Y and Z generations. *International Journal of Manpower, 42*(1), 193-209.

McClelland, G. H., & Judd, C. M. (1993). Statistical difficulties of detecting interactions and moderator effects. *Psychological Bulletin*, *114*(2), 376-390.

Milkman, R. (2017). A new political generation: Millennials and the post-2008 wave of protest. *American Sociological Review*, *82*(1), 1-31.

Nadeem, K., Akram, W., Ali, H. F., Iftikhar, Y., & Shamshad, W. (2019). The relationship between work values, affective commitment, emotional intelligence, and employee engagement: A moderated mediation model. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, *8*(3), 469-482.

Naim, M. F., & Lenka, U. (2018). Development and retention of Generation Y employees: a conceptual framework. *Employee Relations, 40*(2), 433-455.

Njoroge, R., Ndirangu, A., & Kiambi, D. (2021). Leading Millennial Generation towards Engagement in Organizations. *PAC University Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, *3*(1), 45-55.

Omilion-Hodges, L. M., & Sugg, C. E. (2019). Millennials' views and expectations regarding the communicative and relational behaviors of leaders: Exploring young adults' talk about work. *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*, *82*(1), 74-100.

Ötken, A. B., & Erben, G. S. (2010). Investigating the relationship between organizational identification and work engagement and the role of supervisor support. *Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, *12*(2).

Pasko, R., Maellaro, R., & Stodnick, M. (2020). A study of millennials' preferred work-related attributes and retention. *Employee Relations, 43*(3), 774-787.

Polat, S., & Yılmaz, Y. (2020). Barriers to intergenerational learning: a case of a workplace in Turkey. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 41*(3), 431-447.

Porck, J. P., Matta, F. K., Hollenbeck, J. R., Oh, J. K., Lanaj, K., & Lee, S. M. (2019). Social identification in multiteam systems: The role of depletion and task complexity. *Academy of Management Journal*, *62*(4), 1137-1162.

Rahimnia, F., & Hassanzadeh, J. F. (2013). The impact of website content dimension and e-trust on e-marketing effectiveness: The case of Iranian commercial saffron corporations. *Information & Management*, *50*(5), 240-247.

Ramlall, I. (2016). Model fit evaluation. In *Applied Structural Equation Modelling for Researchers and Practitioners*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Rather, B. A. (2018). Millennial generation: Redefining people policies for changing employment trends. *The Researchers' International Research Journal*, *4*(2), 27-41.

Reinartz, W., Haenlein, M., & Henseler, J. (2009). An empirical comparison of the efficacy of covariance-based and variance-based SEM. *International Journal of research in Marketing*, *26*(4), 332-344.

Reynolds, S. J., & Ceranic, T. L. (2007). The effects of moral judgment and moral identity on moral behavior: an empirical examination of the moral individual. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(6), 1610-1624.

Riketta, M. (2005). Organizational identification: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *66*(2), 358-384.

Ringle, C., Da Silva, D., & Bido, D. (2015). Structural equation modeling with the SmartPLS. *Bido, D., da Silva, D., & Ringle, C.(2014). Structural Equation Modeling with the Smartpls. Brazilian Journal of Marketing*, *13*(2), 56-73.

Robbins, S., Judge, T. A., Millett, B., & Boyle, M. (2013). *Organisational behaviour*. Pearson Higher Education AU.

Rosa, N. M. B., & Hastings, S. O. (2018). Managing millennials: Looking beyond generational stereotypes. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 31*(4), 920-930.

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(7), 600-619.

Saks, A. M., & Gruman, J. A. (2014). What do we really know about employee engagement?. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(2), 155-182.

Saks, A. M., Gruman, J. A., & Zhang, Q. (2021). Organization engagement: a review and comparison to job engagement. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance, 9*(1), 20-49.

Sandeen, C. (2008). Boomers, Xers, and Millennials: Who Are They and What Do They Really Want from Continuing Higher Education?. *Continuing Higher Education Review*, *72*, 11-31.

Sarwono, R., & Bernarto, I. (2020). Leading millennials to 4.0 organization. *Management Science Letters*, *10*(4), 733-740.

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire: A cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *66*(4), 701-716.

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *3*(1), 71-92.

Schreurs, B., Van Emmerik, I. J., Van den Broeck, A., & Guenter, H. (2014). Work values and work engagement within teams: The mediating role of need satisfaction. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *18*(4), 267-281.

Seemiller, C., & Grace, M. (2018). *Generation Z: A century in the making*. Routledge.

So, B. H., Kim, J. H., Ro, Y. J., & Song, J. H. (2021). Developing a measurement scale for employee engagement: a validation study in a South Korean context. *European Journal of Training and Development, 46*(5/6), 585-606.

Stets, J. E., Carter, M. J., Harrod, M. M., Cerven, C., & Abrutyn, S. (2008). The moral identity, status, moral emotions, and the normative order. In *Social structure and emotion* (pp. 227-251). Academic Press.

Stets, J. E., & Burke, P. J. (2014). The development of identity theory. In *Advances in group processes*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Stets, J. E., & Carter, M. J. (2012). A theory of the self for the sociology of morality. *American Sociological Review*, *77*(1), 120-140.

Stets, J. E., & Serpe, R. T. (2013). Identity theory. In *Handbook of social psychology.* (pp. 31-60). Springer, Dordrecht.

Stewart, J. S., Oliver, E. G., Cravens, K. S., & Oishi, S. (2017). Managing millennials: Embracing generational differences. *Business Horizons*, *60*(1), 45-54.

Suomäki, A., Kianto, A., & Vanhala, M. (2019). Work engagement across different generations in Finland: a qualitative study of Boomers, Yers and Xers. *Knowledge and Process Management*, *26*(2), 140-151.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2014). *Using multivariate statistics: Pearson new international edition*. Pearson.

Taber, K. S. (2018). The Use of Cronbach's Alpha When Developing and Reporting Research Instruments in Science Education. *Research in Science Education*, *48*(6), 1273–1296.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (2004). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In *Political Psychology* (pp. 276-293). Psychology Press.

Tomarken, A. J., & Waller, N. G. (2003). Potential problems with" well fitting" models. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *112*(4), 578.

Tetteh, I., Spaulding, A., & Ptukhina, M. (2021). Understanding the job-hopping syndrome among millennial employees in the US food and agribusiness sector: a national survey. *International Food and Agribusiness Management Review*, *24*(1), 89-104.

Thompson, B., & Daniel, L. G. (1996). Factor analytic evidence for the construct validity of scores: A historical overview and some guidelines. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *56*(2), 197-208.

Tirta, A. H., & Enrika, A. (2020). Understanding the impact of reward and recognition, work life balance, on employee retention with job satisfaction as mediating variable on millennials in Indonesia. *Journal of Business & Retail Management Research*, *14*(3), 88-98.

Traeger, C., & Alfes, K. (2019). High-performance human resource practices and volunteer engagement: The role of empowerment and organizational identification. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *30*, 1022-1035.

Twenge, J. M. (2013). The evidence for generation me and against generation we. *Emerging Adulthood*, *1*(1), 11-16.

Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2003). The group engagement model: Procedural justice, social identity, and cooperative behavior. *Personality and social psychology review*, *7*(4), 349-361.

Ubl, H. L., Walden, L. X., & Arbit, D. (2017). *Managing millennials for dummies*. John Wiley & Sons.

United States Census Bureau. (2015, June 25). *Millennials Outnumber Baby Boomers and Are Far More Diverse, Census Bureau Reports*. Retrieved May 14, 2023, from United States Census Bureau: https://www.census.gov/newsroom/archives/2015-pr/cb15-113.html

Van Dick, R., Christ, O., Stellmacher, J., Wagner, U., Ahlswede, O., Grubba, C., Hauptmeier, M., Höhfeld, C., Moltzen, K., & Tissington, P. A. (2004). Should I stay or should I go? Explaining turnover intentions with organizational identification and job satisfaction. *British journal of management*, *15*(4), 351-360.

Victor, J., & Hoole, C. (2017). The influence of organisational rewards on workplace trust and work engagement. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *15*(1), 1-14.

Visentin, D. C., Cleary, M., & Hunt, G. E. (2020). The earnestness of being important: Reporting non-significant statistical results. *Journal of advanced nursing*, *76*(4), 917-919.

Weeks, K. P., & Schaffert, C. (2019). Generational Differences in Definitions of Meaningful Work: A Mixed Methods Study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *156*(4), 1045–1061.

Welch, M. (2011). The evolution of the employee engagement concept: communication implications. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 16*(4), 328-346.

Zhao, Y., & Xu, Q. (2019). Understanding the achieving styles of Chinese millennials and implications on HRM policy: A life course perspective. *International Journal of Manpower, 41*(3), 303-317.

Zhu, J., Tatachari, S., & Chattopadhyay, P. (2017). Newcomer identification: Trends, antecedents, moderators, and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal*, *60*(3), 855-879.