

TOWARDS THE BEHAVIORAL IMPLICATIONS OF
IDIOSYNCRATIC DEALS

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ABSTRACT

Idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) are being recently advocated as effective human resource strategies to derive favorable employee job behaviors. Despite the rapid advancement of i-deals in practice, less scholarly attention is given to their role in stimulating employee voice behaviors. In this spirit, this study, with the underlying mechanism of social identity theory, presents an integrated model of employee i-deals influencing two types of employee voice: promotive and prohibitive voice. In doing so, with an application of the taxonomy prescribed by the group engagement model, it introduces an intermitting mechanism called organizational identification, through which employee i-deals invigorate voice behaviors. Furthermore, it is suggested that an i-deal opportunity for coworkers moderates the effects induced by employee i-deals. The model draws upon survey data collected from 282 supervisor-subordinate dyads working across multiple industries of Pakistan. Results of structural equation modeling manifest that employee i-deals encourage both types of employee voice. There is also evidence of complementary mediation of organizational identification in the relationship of employee i-deals and voice behaviors. Moreover, the relationship of employee i-deals with organizational identification is significantly moderated by an i-deal opportunity for coworkers. Nevertheless, an i-deal opportunity for coworkers does not moderate the relationship of employee i-deals with voice behaviors. Consequently, the study renders concrete, theoretical contributions and practical implications to advance both researchers' and practitioners' knowledge.

Keywords: Idiosyncratic deals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, i-deal opportunity for coworkers

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CONTENTS

COPY RIGHT DECLARATION	ii
RESEARCH COMPLETION CERTIFICATES	iii
ANTI – PLAGIARISM DECLARATION	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF APPENDICES	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. The background of the research.....	1
1.2. Research gaps	5
1.3. The rationale of the research	9
1.4. Significance of the research	12
1.5. Research objectives.....	17
1.6. Scope of the research	17
1.6. Conceptual definitions of the constructs	18
1.7. Structure of the thesis.....	19
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	22
2.1. Theoretical background.....	22
2.2. Hypotheses development.....	47
2.3. Summary of literature	62
2.4. Conceptual model	63
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	64
3.1. Research philosophy	64
3.2. Research design	66
3.3. Population and sample	67
3.4. Data collection procedure.....	71
3.5. Instrumentation.....	73
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	80
4.1. Data management and preliminary analysis.....	80

4.2. Structural equation modeling	87
4.3. Hypotheses assessment and findings	107
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....	108
5.1. Summary and integration of research findings.....	108
5.2. Theoretical contributions.....	113
5.3. Practical implications and recommendations	119
5.4. Limitations and future research directions	123
5.5. Conclusion and outlook.....	130
REFERENCES.....	108
APPENDICES:	152

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Comparative significance of the current and related studies	16
Table 2: Definitions of the constructs	18
Table 3: Comparison of i-deals to other employment arrangements	26
Table 4: Benefits of i-deals at different time zones	30
Table 5: Benefits of different types of i-deals	34
Table 6: Comparison of work design concepts and their dimensions.....	36
Table 7: Voice related concepts	40
Table 8: A comparison of promotive and prohibitive voice behavior	44
Table 9: A summarized view of literature support for hypotheses	62
Table 10: Operationalization of variables	77
Table 11: Normal distribution analysis	82
Table 12: Multicollinearity analysis.....	84
Table 13: Descriptive statistics and correlation estimates	85
Table 14: Factorial analysis	88
Table 15: Reliability analysis.....	91
Table 16: Validity analysis	93
Table 17: Structural regression model analysis (total, direct, and indirect effects)..	100
Table 18: Structural regression model analysis (interaction effects).....	103
Table 19: Simple slope test.....	104
Table 20: Hypotheses assessment	107

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Classification of resources.....	32
Figure 2: A conceptual model.....	63
Figure 3: Outliers analysis.....	83
Figure 4: Illustration of direct, indirect, and interactional effects	100
Figure 5: Diagrammatic representation of simple slope test	105

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Cover page	152
APPENDIX B: Survey questionnaires	153
APPENDIX C: Normal distribution analyses.....	157
APPENDIX D: Outliers analyses.....	159
APPENDIX E: ICC calculation	162
APPENDIX F: Control variables analyses	163
APPENDIX G: Analyses of variance.....	165

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the research area while highlighting its practical and theoretical importance, discuss the research gaps, and signify the potential contributions of the current research. Precisely, this chapter unleashes the goals of the research study. Furthermore, to synthesize research aims, the research objectives and questions are derived in this chapter. Also, to provide a brief understanding of the research model, the constructs of interest are introduced and conceptually defined. The chapter closes with the structure of the thesis.

1.1. The background of the research

In the 21st century, the new working era has emerged (Schuler & Bruch, 2018). The environmental changes have altered the entire work context, including traditional employee-employer relationships (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Scholars have long predicted that external forces such as globalization, technology, society, demography and longevity, and energy resources, along with the explosion of individualization, would shape the work practices in the future (Feldman & Pentland, 2003). Howbeit, the future of work is already here (Gratton, 2011). These external factors bring along visible changes in labor market dynamics (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010), heightened the competition for garnering talented employees (Benko & Weisberg, 2007), and increased complexities in employees work preferences (Guest & Rodrigues, 2015). In response to these environmental pressures, human resource practices over the

period present a notable transition from standard to nonstandard employment arrangements (Liao, Wayne, & Rousseau, 2016).

Organizations are now compelled to unearth special employment arrangements to attract, retain, and motivate valuable employees (Bal & Jansen, 2015; Vidyarathi et al., 2016). One such practice has become an orthodox human resource strategy in recent times (Bal & Hornung, 2019; Rofcanin & Anand, 2020), coined as idiosyncratic deals (henceforth, i-deals) (Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). I-deals refer to personalized employment agreements, are negotiated between employees and their employers, and are tailored towards unique needs, preferences, and expectations of employees (Lawler & Finegold, 2000; Miner, 1987; Rousseau, 2005). This new way of working (Demerouti, Derks, Ten Brummelhuis, & Bakker, 2014) comprised of myriad forms of modern work arrangements ranging from flexibility in work hours to customized training opportunities (Rosen, Slater, Chang, & Johnson, 2013), which though are beyond the scope of standardized practices of the organizations (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008).

Negotiation of i-deals represents the emerging global trend in employment relationships (Anand, Hu, Vidyarathi, & Liden, 2018; Katou, Budhwar, & Patel, 2020), as the increasing number of organizations are offering customized working arrangements in recent years (Bal & Rousseau, 2015). Indeed, the data indicates that workers over 24% in the United States (BLS, 2016) and 25% in Europe (Eurostat, 2017) are working under non-traditional work arrangements (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006). Likewise, this trend is rapidly escalating in non-western contexts such as China, India, South Korea, and Vietnam (Liao et al., 2016; Luu & Djurkovic, 2019; Luu &

Rowley, 2015). More specifically, some of the widely known proponents of i-deals in the practical world around the sphere include Silicon Valley, IBM, Yahoo, Google, Tesla, Zappos, The Wall Street Journal, Facebook, and Merz-Pharma (Schuler, 2018). The popularity of i-deals in the corporate world represents that these arrangements are widely spread than commonly acknowledged.

The organizations' widespread uptake of i-deals can be associated with the evolution of theorizing of organization surges with dominant ideological paradigms (Barley & Kunda, 1992). The classical industrial administration and bureaucratic management era have portrayed organizations as abstract and stable entities, spiritually following the formalized structures and standardized processes (Hornung, 2017). Therefore, the organizations of that period were indebted to formalistic impersonality (Weber, 1968), and demanded equal treatment for all employees (Hornung, 2017). However, the subsequent institutional era has relaxed this mechanistic and technocratic view of organizations while incorporating the humanistic values (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 2003). Emerging insights about organizations as social systems gave rise to a new organic paradigm incorporating social-psychological processes and envisioned new forms of management to deal with individuality at workplaces (Hornung, 2017). Consequently, the phenomenon of i-deals complementing the loom of individualization in the organizational context has prospered (Kelly et al., 2020).

At present, organizations offer i-deals to give employees maximal autonomy in carrying out their work (De Kok, 2016; Demerouti et al., 2014). Though the intended goal behind the grant of such deals is to improve employees' job performance (Ng & Lucianetti, 2016), as i-deals could assist them in performing their job duties more

effectively concerning changing modes of work and personal needs (Rousseau, 2005). The alignment of human resource practices with the various personal and professional life phases of employees has become a critical requirement of the modern work environment to have the desired fit between employees' distinctive capabilities and the specific job requirements of the organizations (Bruch & Schuler, 2016). It can be said that environmental forces have reshaped the traditional working environment.

For instance, organizations are increasingly making use of international recruits to deal with the workplaces' challenging environment, who now have become more mobile and available to move between jobs internationally (Stangel-Meseke, Hahn, & Tax, 2014). I-deals can be the potential tool to deal with the varied needs of diversified employees to facilitate them in managing their work responsibilities with greater ease in new working environments (Bal & Rousseau, 2015). Similarly, older employees lose their abilities with age and could not fit in with standardized jobs (Nauta & Van de Ven, 2015). I-deals can be an excellent option for older workers to keep their performance level up on the job and stay motivated in continuing work for an extended period (Bal, De Jong, Jansen, & Bakker, 2012). Moreover, given the rise of dual-earning couples (Arnold, 2003), many women are entering the workforce due to which so-called feminism has increased at workplaces, and the traditional norms of working are challenged (Fondas, 1996). I-deals can serve as a supporting mechanism to cope with new ways of working, intensely demanded by working couples to handle and balance their work-life with personal commitments while being productive on the job (Erden Bayazit & Bayazit, 2017).

Therefore, i-deals possess numerous beneficial aspects; however, the degree to which i-deals are propitious for both recipient and the grantor is still an unanswered, empirical question, leaving behind a void to further investigate this phenomenon (Barley, Bechky, & Milliken, 2017; Liao et al., 2016). I-deals are only justifiable investments in the organizations' human capital if they can render benefits for both parties (Bal & Boehm, 2019). Hence, this research study further elucidated the understanding of the benefits of the i-deals and uncovered the underlying potential of i-deals that can improve the employees' job performance on which the fortune of the organization is dependent.

Following the background of the research area, focused mainly on the practical relevance of idiosyncratic work arrangements, the next section reveals their theoretical relevance and potential gaps in the past literature.

1.2. Research gaps

To further contribute to the stream of i-deals literature, it is essential to gauge its current theoretical standing; therefore, the following discussion presents a review of past literature of i-deals while shedding light on some critical gaps.

Despite the recent advancement of idiosyncratic deals in practice, relatively less scholarly attention has been given to this phenomenon in organizational research (Vidyarthi et al., 2016). However, although i-deals have a short research history, they have a long past (Rousseau, 2005). Ostensibly, the foundations of i-deals are rooted in unrelated streams of literature, such as idiosyncratic jobs (Miner, 1987), job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), negotiations (Thompson, 2000), and psychological

contracts (Rousseau, 1995). The research relatively on the newer construct, that is, i-deals is still in its infancy; however, the interest in this area is proliferating (Bal & Boehm, 2019; Rofcanin & Anand, 2020). In few empirical studies that have been conducted on i-deals predict that they have positive outcomes for both employees and organizations (for details, see meta-analytical review by Liao et al. (2016)), which rendered this emerging phenomenon a reputable position from both theoretical and practical perspectives.

More precisely, the earlier body of research shows that employees respond positively when offered special employment arrangements (Hornung et al., 2008; Severin Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rosen et al., 2013). However, surprisingly, little empirical evidence has been gathered until now on answering a meticulous question: how do i-deals mainly influence employees' job behaviors? Studying the employees' job behaviors in response to i-deals is vital because they are legitimate representatives of employees' job performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Notably, few research studies have proclaimed that successfully negotiated i-deals are positively related to employees' in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (for detailed reviews, see Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2015) and Liao et al. (2016)). Nonetheless, an area of job behaviors being inadequately explored in the past literature of i-deals includes a form of organizational citizenship behavior, that is, employee voice behavior (for exceptions, see Ng & Feldman, 2015; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016).

In today's business world, organizations rely on employee voice to undertake innovations and change and to create and sustain their competitiveness (He & Zhou,

2014). They encourage employees to voice their suggestions and concerns by motivating them through different mechanisms, out of which offering idiosyncratic work arrangements is one potential practice (Kimwolo & Cheruiyot, 2018). I-deals enhance the employees' control over their work behaviors (Jerald Greenberg & Folger, 1983), which motivates them to use their voice more frequently in organizational matters (Ng & Feldman, 2015). However, it is currently unclear how i-deals influence employees' voice behaviors.

Voice is a concept that has evolved with time (Brinsfield, 2014). Initially, it was conceptualized as a unitary construct (Hirschman, 1970; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); nevertheless, recent scholarly work provides an expansive view of voice (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Scholars are now stressing the consideration of newly conceived multidimensional aspects of voice (Mowbray et al., 2019; Mowbray, Wilkinson, & Tse, 2015). It is because the varied types can provide deeper insights in comparison to prior convictions of voice. However, past research in the i-deals context has failed to consider this fact (Ng & Feldman, 2015; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016), regardless of its pivotal importance for the organizations (Axtell et al., 2000; Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004); therefore, provides an incomplete understanding on various attributes of voice.

Furthermore, past research suggests that it would not be sufficient to address the straightforward relationship of i-deals and their outcomes (Schuler, 2018). For instance, Liao et al. (2016) stressed that it is necessary to understand how and under what circumstances the effect of i-deals translates into specific outcomes; hence, there is an intense need to identify the relevant intermediating processes and boundary

conditions. Thus, responding to the call made by Liao and colleagues (Liao et al., 2016), the current study capitalizes on the relevance of psychological attachment variables as explanatory mechanisms in the context of i-deals and employees' job behaviors, which has been undermined thus far in i-deals literature. Although few studies (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2015) have implicitly mentioned the importance of such mechanisms in the given area of research, yet not much explicit work has been done in this domain.

A recent review by Ng (2015) highlights three important psychological attachment variables: organizational trust, organizational identification, and organizational commitment. These variables are also attitudinal variables; thus, following the asseveration of the well-established classical theory that is, attitudes leads to behavior (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Kahle & Berman, 1979; McGuire, 1976), the postulation communicating i-deals can influence the attitudes of employees that then derives their behavioral outcomes within the organizations, is being considerably supported. Despite that, the phenomenon has not been fully explored, such that not many psychological states have been empirically investigated in the context of i-deals and job behaviors to date; therefore, it is still unknown how such states can intervene in the process.

Moving ahead and recognizing that i-deals being customized working arrangements offered to employees, which may differ from arrangements offered to their coworkers, can agitate the social comparisons among employees in the organization (Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016). These comparisons may induce a competitive environment within the organization (Rousseau et al., 2006). Consequently, the employees' perceptions about receiving i-deals as a signal of special

treatment, not available to others with the same ease, get threatened. It may impair their positive attitudes and behaviors towards the organization. However, this darker side of i-deals has been largely neglected in past research (Bal & Boehm, 2019; Garg & Fulmer, 2017; Nauta & Van de Ven, 2015); thus, there is a lack of understanding about how would this phenomenon impact the outcomes of employee i-deals.

Although few recent studies have specifically directed their focus on identifying the outcomes of coworkers' i-deals (Kong, Ho, & Garg, 2018; Marescaux et al., 2019; Vidarthi et al., 2016), perceptions of employees about the coworkers' i-deals with respect to their i-deals have received little attention (Ng, 2017). In particular, both employees' perceptions about their i-deals and their perception of coworkers' i-deals have not simultaneously investigated in many of the studies specifically when predicting the job behaviors of employees. Therefore, it provides inadequate knowledge about how employees respond upon getting i-deals, in the context, when similar opportunities are available to their coworkers. In other words, how would the job performance of employees, more precisely, job behaviors, be influenced under given circumstances.

In line with these limitations identified in the earlier stream of research of i-deals, the following section entails the purpose of the research.

1.3. The rationale of the research

The impetus of this study is to address the aforementioned gaps in the past literature of i-deals to advance the knowledge in this research domain. There are various areas in the literature of i-deals that need further scholarly investigation, as discussed

in the previous section, out of which few crucial ones are attempting to fill in this research.

Firstly, as mentioned earlier, the voice has recently emerged as a multidimensional concept, each predicting a unique form of employees' job behavior (Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014); however, the research studies in the i-deals literature were unable to incorporate this evolution. It presents a gap in the literature that is of paramount importance to deal with, as i-deals are costly investments for the organizations (Bal & Rousseau, 2015); thus, it is critical to know how such expensive arrangements are affecting the job performance of employees (Las Heras, Rofcanin, Matthijs Bal, & Stollberger, 2017). Endorsing the fact that job behaviors, such as voice behaviors upon receiving i-deals, are the legitimate reflections of employees' job performance (Ng & Feldman, 2015) can serve as a proxy to calibrate the return on investment from granting i-deals to employees by the organizations. Therefore, going beyond the mere identification of generic outcomes of i-deals, this research takes a step further to investigate the unknown impact of i-deals on employees' specific job behaviors that can have a subsequent effect on the organizations (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2015).

Secondly, as discussed before, earlier research predicts that the relationship of i-deals with their outcomes cannot be straightforward (Liao et al., 2016). Few scholars have expressed the involvement of psychological states in transforming the influence of i-deals on behavioral outcomes of employees (Ng & Feldman, 2015); however, the phenomenon has not received the desired attention in the past. Therefore, this gap in the literature offers a new avenue for further research. This area is critical to address as

past research with psychological attachment variables presents notable contributions to i-deals theory. For example, Liu, Lee, Hui, and Kwong Kwan (2013) suggest that i-deals can be a valid source to strengthen the employees' affective commitment with the organization which in turn found enhancing employees' job performance in another relevant study (Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefoghe, 2005). In a similar vein, Ng and Feldman (2015) showed that i-deals offered by the organizations enhance the employees' trust in the organizations, which subsequently encourage them to express desirable job behaviors to improve the overall functioning of the organization. Following this line of research, it is the time to exploit the unexplored psychological states in the current research.

Thirdly, as discovered previously, the phenomenon of i-deals does not operate in a social vacuum, but is influenced by multiple organizational bodies, including i-deal recipient employees, coworkers, and organization (Rousseau, 2005). Nonetheless, the effect of such contextual forces in predicting the outcomes of i-deals has been largely ignored by prior research studies. Consequently, this is also an important area of investigation left by prior research. Again, the gap is essential to fill. As some earlier studies posited that the ease of availability of i-deals to coworkers concerning employees' own i-deals in the organization could influence the behavioral outcomes of i-deals (Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016; Yang, 2020). Hence, it is recognized that employees' attribute importance to coworkers' i-deals can have useful implications for gauging their behavioral outcomes. Therefore, the current study attempts to consider this under-researched phenomenon in the context of i-deals and employee job behaviors.

Following identification of opportunities to further investigate in the literature of i-deals, the discussion is now proceeding towards the depiction of specific theoretical and practical contributions of the research.

1.4. Significance of the research

Given the potential importance of customized employment arrangements as a useful tool to drive employees' job behaviors, this study contributed to the theory and practice in at least five fundamental ways:

First, the study provides a nuanced understanding of employees' voice behaviors in the context of i-deals by revitalizing its concept. In doing so, it embraces the multidimensional conceptualization of employee voice, that is, promotive voice and prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012). In contrast to the traditional conceptualization of voice, based on Hirschman's voice exit and loyalty model (Hirschman, 1970), these two forms of voice are directed towards employees' pro-social discretionary behaviors (other-oriented) to improve the overall functioning of the organization (Liang et al., 2012; Morrison, 2014). Increasing recognition of expected benefits of these voice behaviors facilitates the growth of empirical research on their antecedents (for details, see meta-analysis by Chamberlin, Newton, & Lepine (2017)). To further contribute to this literature domain, this research focuses on examining how the effect of i-deals translates into promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors of employees in the organizations. Thus, providing these two forms of voice, a new antecedent that is, employee i-deals.

Second, to theorize an overarching conceptual model of i-deals and employee voice behaviors, this study integrates new theoretical lenses, that are, social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003). Although, the extant literature of i-deals has been dominated by the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), communicating that negotiations of i-deals initiate exchange relationships between the employees and their employers (Lai, Rousseau, & Chang, 2009; Rousseau et al., 2006). However, it is contended here that employment relations carry more meaning for employees. These relationships can become sources for them to find their self-concept, gain self-esteem, and experience personal growth (Liu et al., 2013). Hence, the employed theoretical frameworks would be well addressing this notion of i-deals and their outcomes in the given research.

Third, as an emergent of employed theoretical frameworks, this study casts a new explanatory mechanism, that is, organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) in the context of i-deals. The underlying assumption here is that the organizations' treatment to their employees reflects in their job behaviors while intensifying their identification with the organization (Tyler & Blader, 2003). The relevance of this psychological attachment mechanism has been mentioned by past research (Ng, 2015). For instance, its neighboring phenomenon called organizational trust has been used as an underlying mechanism (Ng & Feldman, 2015). Thus, investigating organization identification, as a mediating mechanism, provides useful insights on how the effect of i-deals may indirectly render promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors.

Fourth, one of the legitimate representatives of contextual factors, the i-deal opportunity for coworkers (Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016) has been incorporated as a boundary condition to provide a better understanding on how coworkers' i-deals administer employees' organizational identification and their voice behaviors with respect to their i-deals. The consideration is an endorsement to the fact that i-deals are influenced by triangular relationships involving employees, organizations, and coworkers (Rousseau, 2005), where employees draw comparisons of their i-deals with their coworkers' i-deals (Kong et al., 2018; Yang, 2020). Thus, studying consequential employees' voice behaviors on receiving i-deals without considering such contextual factors generates an incomplete understanding of the phenomenon (Venkataramani, Zhou, Wang, & Liao, 2016). Therefore, examining the role of coworkers' i-deal in the current study renders in-depth knowledge about the given phenomenon. In this, the linkages between the concepts have been drawn using the framework of social identity theory while shedding light on its social comparison aspects (Hogg, 2000).

Last, being informed that there is a growing trend of this phenomenon in the eastern context (South Asia) (for detail, see meta-analysis by Liao et al., (2016)), this study presents the data from geography where the phenomenon of i-deals is understudied, namely, Pakistan (Shamim, Begum, & Khan, 2018). Endorsing the fact that the bulk of i-deals research has been concentrated in the western contexts (Europe and North America (Liao et al., 2016)), this study is conducted in a developing region; thus, extending the generalizability of past research to new research sample, and research context. To study this phenomenon in eastern contexts is imperative because these contexts are considerably different from the western context in various aspects

(e.g., societal cultures (Ng & Feldman, 2015; Rousseau, 2005)), which may generate significantly different findings for the subject under investigation. Consequently, this study provides resourceful managerial implications to the business arena of the given and similar contexts.

Thus, this research study aims to provide an overarching framework guiding when and how employee i-deals are associated with their job behaviors. For this, one explanatory mechanism (organizational identification) and one boundary condition (i-deal opportunity for coworkers), supported with social identity theory and group engagement model, have been incorporated to provide an overall picture of employee i-deals with their voice behaviors (promotive voice and prohibitive voice). It is crucial as i-deals are increasingly being used as a human resource tool to enhance employees' job performance (Las Heras et al., 2017). Nonetheless, the study renders concrete insights into theory, practice, and research.

A summarized view of the significance of the current study compared to prior related studies has been presented in table 1.

Table 1**Comparative significance of the current and related studies**

Study source(s)	Independent variable(s)	Dependent variable(s)	Mediator(s)	Moderator(s)	Theoretical framework(s)	Context(s)
Liu et al. (2013)	I-deals	Affective commitment <hr/> Proactive behaviors	Organizational -based self- esteem	Individualism	Social exchange theory <hr/> Self-enhancement theory	Western
Ng and Feldman (2015)	I-deals	Voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998)	Flexible role orientation <hr/> Social networking <hr/> Organizational trust	None	Social exchange theory	Western <hr/> Eastern (China)
Ng and Lucianetti (2016)	Achievement striving <hr/> Status-striving <hr/> Communion striving	In-role job performance <hr/> Voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998) <hr/> Interpersonal citizenship behavior	Employee's perception of their own i-deals	Perception of coworkers' receiving i-deals	Social exchange theory	Western
Current study	Employee i-deals	Promotive voice (Liang et al., 2012) <hr/> Prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012)	Organizational identification	I-deal opportunity for coworkers	Social identity theory <hr/> Group engagement model	Eastern (Pakistan)

1.5. Research objectives

In line with the above discussion on the area of research, the current study's key objectives include:

1. To analyze the impact of employee i-deals on (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice.
2. To determine the impact of employee i-deals on (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice through organizational identification.
3. To investigate the influence of i-deal opportunity for coworkers on the relationship of employee i-deals and organizational identification.
4. To explore the influence of i-deal opportunity for coworkers on the relationship of employee i-deals and (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice.

In agreement with the objectives of the study, the research questions are synthesized in the following section.

1.6. Scope of the research

The general research question that has been addressed in this study is, 'how do employment agreements affect the employees' job behaviors?' However, this broader research question has been further broken down into multiple specific research questions congruent with the objectives of the study mentioned above. These are as follows:

1. Do employee i-deals affect employees' (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice behavior?
2. Does organizational identification mediate the relationship of employee i-deals and employees' (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice behaviors?
3. Does the i-deal opportunity for coworkers moderate the relationship of employee i-deals and organizational identification?
4. Does the i-deal opportunity for coworkers moderate the relationship of employee' i-deals and employees' (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice behaviors?

1.6. Conceptual definitions of the constructs

The constructs of the research study are conceptually defined in table 2.

Table 2

Definitions of the constructs

Construct	Definition	Source(s)
Idiosyncratic deals	Voluntary, personalized agreements of a nonstandard nature negotiated between individual employers and their employees regarding employment terms that benefit each party Rousseau (2005)	(Rousseau, 2005)
	Dimensions: Schedule flexibility: Providing elasticity in schedules and number of work hours (Rosen et al., 2013)	(Rosen et al., 2013)

	Task and development i-deals: Allocating specific responsibilities assignments, training to expand knowledge and skills for career enhancement (Rosen et al., 2013)	(Rosen et al., 2013)
Promotive voice	Employees' expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their organization (Liang et al., 2012)	(Liang et al., 2012)
Prohibitive voice	Employees' expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization	(Liang et al., 2012)
Organizational identification	A perceived oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization's successes and failures as one's own	Mael and Ashforth (1992)
I-deal opportunity for coworkers	I-deal recipients' perceptions that coworkers have the opportunity to get i-deals	(Guerrero & Chaliol-Jeanblanc, 2016)

1.7. Structure of the thesis

The research thesis constitutes five chapters. The areas, which are covered in each chapter, have been briefly outlined below.

Chapter 1 provides a detailed introduction of the study. It covers the background of the topic, that is, i-deals mainly, highlighting the practical relevance of the topic. Following the background, the research gaps are presented, offering theoretical relevance of the topic and identified the potential gaps in the past literature. In line with the identified gaps, the rationale of the study puts forward reasons to fill those gaps.

The study's significance, then explained how this study would fill the identified gaps while offering a brief overview of practical and theoretical implications. In the remaining two sections, the objectives of the study and research questions are listed down. The chapter closed while providing the conceptual definitions of the constructs.

Chapter 2 opens up with the detailed theoretical background of the study's constructs, namely, i-deals and employee voice behaviors. This section covers a variety of content, such as the historical background of the constructs, recent advancements in the domain of constructs under investigation, differentiation of construct from other related concepts, defining components of constructs, and more. The next section of this chapter revolves around developing the hypotheses through the logical argumentation with the use of organizational identification as an explanatory mechanism and i-deal opportunity for coworkers as a boundary condition and supported by the theoretical frameworks of social identity theory and group engagement model. Finally, the conceptual model is presented at the end of the chapter.

Chapter 3 is directed towards the choice of methods employed to answer the research questions of the research study. The chapter entails the research philosophy discussing the paradigm and its ontological, epistemological, and methodological considerations, which derived the whole study. Next, the research design is specified detailing how the research has been done, mainly enlisting the data collection methods. Following this, the details of the population and sample are given, specifying the study participants, sampling techniques, and sample size. The data collection method, then recorded the process beginning from approaching the organizations to getting questionnaires filled by the respondents. Lastly, the instrumentation section describes

the design of the questionnaire and the measures employed to measure the constructs.

Chapter 4 discusses a variety of analytical strategies and key statistical indicators used to analyze the data set. The chapter first presents a screening of the data, including analysis of missing values, normality, outliers, multicollinearity, descriptive statistics, correlations, and demographics. Following this, the principal statistical analysis of the data has been given. The chapter provides a detailed record of measurement model analysis (including reliability, validity, and common method variance analyses) and structural model analysis (including direct, indirect, and interactional effects analyses). In the end, a summary of the results of hypotheses testing is presented.

Chapter 5 offers a summary and integration of research findings, including the analysis of significant and insignificant results in light of prior literature. Following the study results, the chapter provides concrete theoretical contributions to the booming streams of the literature of i-deals and employee voice behaviors. Further, the chapter also holds details for the organizations operating in multiple industries on the practical implications of the research study and the results. The chapter enlists the several limitations of the research and highlights critical areas for future investigations. The chapter closes with the conclusion and outlook.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

I-deals are newly conceived (Rousseau, 2005) and a recently emerged phenomena of interest in organizational sciences (Hornung, 2018). Therefore, this chapter begins by presenting a stock of the literature on i-deals, most crucially, to conceptually synthesize the construct, much needed to move this area of research forward. Following the detailed background of i-deals, the discussion headway towards the explication of other constructs under investigation, namely, promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers. Next, the hypotheses are formulated, using the theoretical frameworks of social identity theory and group engagement model. In the end, the conceptual model has been derived, illustrating logical relationships among the constructs of the study.

2.1. Theoretical background

To develop conceptual linkages among constructs, it is important to deeply understand them from the roots. Therein, this section provides a detailed background of the constructs of the interests, that are, idiosyncratic deals and employee voice.

2.1.1. Idiosyncratic deals

Idiosyncratic deals often referred to as i-deals, are “voluntary, personalized employment agreements of nonstandard nature on terms of work arrangements, are negotiated between individual employees and their employers, and are intended to benefit both parties” (Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2006). The standard work

arrangements (Kalleberg, Reskin, & Hudson, 2000) encapsulate fixed employment conditions (e.g., work done on a fixed schedule), are prescribed by human resource policies, and are available to all employees of the organization in the same fashion. At odds, when work agreements lack one or more attributes of standardized practices, such that become more elastic (e.g., work is done on flexible schedule), they will now be considered as nonstandard (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006). I-deals, being nonstandard employment agreements, allow employees to have customization in work arrangements, unattained otherwise through standard practices (Rousseau & Ho, 2000), that can cater to their unique needs, preferences, and expectations (Lawler & Finegold, 2000; Miner, 1987; Rousseau, Tomprou, & Simosi, 2016). In turn, organizations, while channeling such arrangements to employees, difficult to grant otherwise with standard policies (Corwin, Lawrence, & Frost, 2001; Hochschild, 1997), can attract, motivate and retain valuable employees (Bal & Jansen, 2015; Vidarthi et al., 2016). Hence, more than wordplay, i-deals represent an i-deal situation for both parties.

The rise of i-deals has been spurred over the last few decades due to explicit changes in societal and environmental trends (Kooij, Rousseau, & Bal, 2014). A wave of neoliberalism and institutionalization in western societies in the 1990s (Harvey, 2005) was integrated into the real world in the early 2000s (Bal & Dóci, 2018), giving rise to individualization of workplaces and workers (Bal & Hornung, 2019). Additionally, liberalization of labor laws, the diminishing popularity of unionization and collective bargaining (Rousseau, 2005), coupled with growing recognition of unique and diversified needs of modern workers, and importance of human capital for organizations opened up doors for i-deals (Bal, van Kleef, & Jansen, 2015). Over time,

the increasing popularity of i-deals in western countries made this phenomenon travel to the eastern world (e.g., China, India, South Korea) (Liao et al., 2016).

The popularity of the use of i-deals among organizations may also be related to the advancement of ideological paradigms to theorize organizations (Barley & Kunda, 1992). Earlier, in the traditional bureaucratic management systems, organizations were considered as abstract and stable entities where formal structures and standardized processes were strictly followed (Hornung, 2017). Later, with the evolution of the institutional era, the prior mechanistic and technocratic features of management systems adapted humanistic values (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 2003). Organizations are now seen as social systems following a new organic paradigm with the qualities of managing social-psychological processes and, specifically, the individuality of humans at workplaces (Hornung, 2017). Therefore, the concept of i-deal among organizations emerged to complement the rise of individualization (Kelly et al., 2020).

Scholars of organizational behavior started paying attention to the concept of i-deals after the seminal work of Rousseau and colleagues (Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2006). They have demonstrated in their research that many talented employees, who understand the internal organizational processes well, can negotiate their job conditions successfully with their employers. Although the concept has roots in idiosyncratic jobs (Miner, 1987), refers to the specialized jobs created by organizations for specific individuals based on their unique talent. The similarity between idiosyncratic jobs and i-deals is that both die over time. As soon as the requirement of the job is over, the idiosyncratic job will be dropped; till the time the special i-deals become available to

everyone in the organization, they will become the standard practices and no more remain the customize offerings for individuals (Rousseau et al., 2006).

More precisely, i-deals are forms of individualized treatments which make them substantially different from other person-specific employment arrangements, such as favoritism or cronyism, which are supported by the relational factors (e.g., personal and political ties) and plausibly have detrimental outcomes for the organization (Greenberg, Roberge, Ho, & Rousseau, 2004; Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2006). It is because such person-specific arrangements are self-serving from the individual agent perspective; thus, they are not beneficial for the organization (Pearce, Branyiczki, & Bigley, 2000; Rousseau, 2004). In fact, these arrangements undermined the legitimacy of the established formalization in the organization while allowing rule-bending and workarounds that dominates the formal and standard rules (Rousseau et al., 2006). Therefore, it is doubtful that organizations could be beneficial around playing favorites because, in this, the relationships work rather than the capabilities of the workers that can add value to the organization (Clarke, 1999).

The concept of i-deals is usually confounded with the favoritism and cronyism may be because, in the past, such arrangements were only available to exceptional individuals such as the star performers, veteran employees and other valued workers who are considered as capable negotiators of such deals (Rousseau et al., 2006). However, over the years, the usefulness of such offerings challenges the traditional paradigm of employment conditions and urges employers to incorporate changing modes of market dynamics to recruit and retain talent (Rousseau et al., 2016). To further

clarify the difference between i-deals and favoritism or cronyism, a systematic comparison is given in table 3.

Table 3

Comparison of i-deals to other employment arrangements

Feature	I-deals	Favoritism or Cronyism
Allocation	Negotiated by employee	Endowment to employee
Basis	Workers' value to the firm and personal need	Particular relationship
Beneficiary	Employee and employer	Employee and powerful others (e.g., managers)
Coworker consequences	Effects on perceptions depend on content, timing, and process for creating i-deal	Reduces trust and perception of procedural and outcome fairness

Source: Rousseau et al. (2006)

I-deals, however, overcome the limitations of person-specific arrangements. Several distinguishing features of i-deals that made them different from other related mechanisms include; first, they are individually negotiated and can be initiated either by employees or the employers however, typically, employees are the initiators (Rousseau et al., 2006). The negotiations are based on the relative market power of individual workers, and the value the organization placed on them made such employees in a stronger position to demand more of special treatments (Bartol & Martin, 1989). In contrast, when such negotiations are done at the collective level, they become part of the standard human resource practices available to all employees and do not represent i-deals (Bal & Rousseau, 2015). For example, a body of research on flexible work arrangements presents a variety of underlying policies such as

teleworking and flexible work schedules implemented by the organizations to facilitate their employees gives the right to each employee to exploit such practices thus, are no longer i-deals.

Second, i-deals are heterogeneous in nature, such that employees may have negotiated working conditions different from what their coworkers have negotiated with the same employer (Rousseau et al., 2006). It results in within-group heterogeneity in terms of rewards and benefits granted to employees on a differential basis (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). Employees can infer various meanings from such heterogeneity. For instance, this may reflect the formal or the informal distribution of incentives, such as granting rewards to employees performing well on the job (Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1995). Consequently, this may develop a sense of unjustified opportunities of getting i-deals among employees due to which they may express resistance in accepting the i-deals of their coworkers (Jerald Greenberg et al., 2004).

Third, i-deals are intended to benefit parties that are employee and the organization (Rousseau et al., 2006). They are different from other person-specific employment arrangements because they are directed towards the regard of employees' value to the organization (Rousseau, 2004, 2005). The results of successful i-deals are that organizations can attract, retain and motivate valuable employees who are getting desired resources in the forms of i-deals satisfying their unique needs (Bal & Rousseau, 2015). However, being coworker, employees accept the i-deals to the extent they could approve the legitimacy of merit on which such arrangements are granted (Liao et al., 2016). For example, compensation allocated based on market value, flexibility granted with an expected strategic advantage for the organization, and alike arrangements.

Finally, i-deals vary in scope, from a single idiosyncratic element in the contract in a broader set of customized arrangements to entirely negotiated arrangements for the job (Rousseau et al., 2006). For example, an employee may have asked for greater flexible working hours to take care of older parents while sharing the same pay structure, job duties, and other arrangements with coworkers. Conversely, another employee may have highly personalized job arrangements where almost all terms of working are negotiated, ranging from pay and working hours to job duties and title. Thus, in the given scenario, although both workers have idiosyncratic elements in the employment agreements; however, the relative ratio of i-deals to standardize arrangements is greater in the second situation.

A central feature of i-deals is that employees are the active participants during the process of negotiations at the given point in time (Rousseau et al., 2006). I-deals can be negotiated at two distinct points of time, either during the recruitment process termed ex-ante i-deals or on the job known as ex-post i-deals (Rosen et al., 2013; Rousseau, 2005). The special arrangements sought between employees and employers during the hiring process usually involve economic and other formal conditions (e.g., fringe benefits, compensations, and job duration) (Lee, Bachrach, & Rousseau, 2015). A more precise example would be an attorney hired by a law firm bearing the responsibility of his ailing parents requiring his care and attention in some other part of the country. To attain his exceptional litigation skills, the organization has given him special arrangements, according to which he will only have to take caseloads at his preferred location so he can take care of his parents while being effective on the job.

On the other hand, the negotiations, employees do with their employers once on the job include employees' preferred arrangements that contribute towards personal fulfillment (e.g., training opportunities for skills enhancement, assignments satisfying personal values and preference, and accommodations nurturing work habits) (Lee, Bachrach, & Rousseau, 2015). A practical example would be in the case of an international banker who has been working in a bank for a longer period and alongside practicing his music after a job. The organization required his talent elsewhere, but the employee is expressing reluctance to take the overseas assignment as per his concerns of disturbance in his musical sessions. In such an instance, the organization offered him paid packaging and shipment of his music equipment to the designation of duty to continue both his job and passion.

The ex-ante i-deals are negotiated based on economic trends such as workers in the hot labor market, where the demand for certain skills is higher than the relative supply, are seeking and attaining more i-deals than those shorten on those skills (Cappelli, 2000). Resultantly, the candidates take the grant of i-deals as a signal of positive regard and appreciation of their qualities and market value by the employing organization (Rousseau et al., 2006). Opposing to this notion, ex-post i-deals are negotiated when the employees have developed a meaningful relationship with the organization being on the job; thus, exchanges are made on the relational schema (Baldwin, 1992). The employees take these post job arrangements as a signal of value that their organization holds for them (Rousseau et al., 2006). For a comprehensive overview of ex-ante and ex-post i-deals, negotiation benefits of such deals to employees and organizations are summed up in table 4.

Table 4**Benefits of i-deals at different time zones**

Timing	Benefit(s)	
Ex-ante	For the organization - Can recruit talented employees	For the employee - Can acquire sought-after economic rewards and other benefits
Ex-post	For the organization - Can motivate employees - Can retain valuable employees - Can rectify performance issues	For the employee - Can give economic rewards - Can meet personal needs

Source: Rousseau et al. (2016)

Importantly, ex-post i-deals are more common in practice (Rousseau et al., 2006) and are considered to be the source of strengthening the bond between both parties that last for a longer time (Rousseau, 2005). In contrast, ex-ante i-deals appear to have less impact on candidates commitment with the organization and lead to the reversal of employment decisions in case of failed negotiations (Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2009). Accordingly, as per the objective of the study, that is, to examine the effect of i-deals on employees' job performance, the ex-post i-deals were investigated.

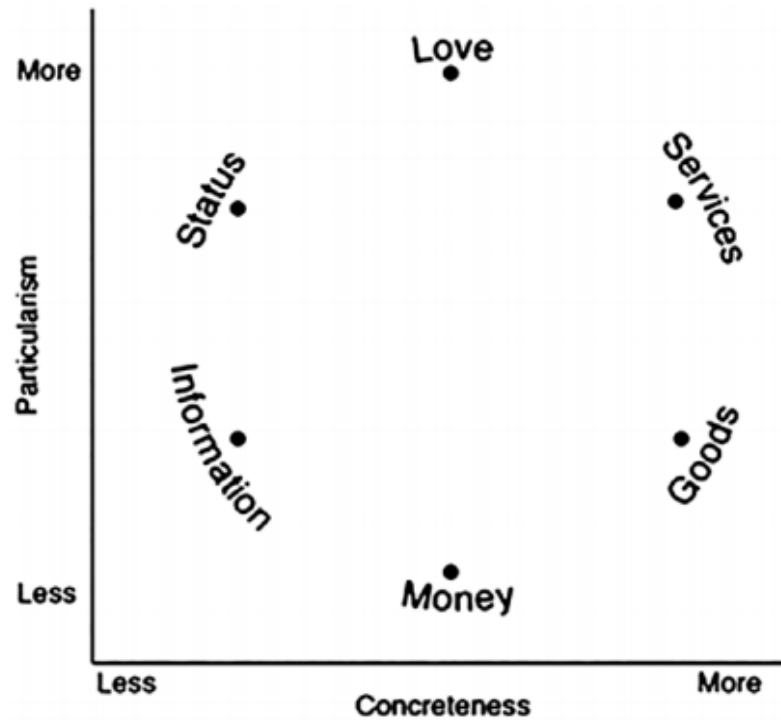
Organizations have authorized agents to customize features of employment, who typically are immediate supervisors (Liao, Wayne, Liden, & Meuser, 2017), and others include human resource representatives and top-level managers (Hornung, 2018). Though i-deals could be initiated either by employees or by their employers,

mainly employees are the initiators (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, & Weigl, 2010). Employees secure i-deals from organizations through the i-deal making process that undergo separate phases of requesting and receiving resources (Rousseau, 2005). In this, there are two possibilities (Ho & Tekleab, 2016) (1) i-deals are requested and received because of successful negotiations (2) i-deals are requested but not received due to failed negotiations. Although past research has been implicitly assuming that requesting and receiving i-deals, occur conjointly therein, undermining the fact that all requests are not granted (Corwin et al., 2001; Hochschild, 1997), and there is a need to consider both of this phenomenon separately (Ho & Tekleab, 2016). Consistent with the aim of the current study, that is, to scrutinize the impact of i-deals on job performance of employees, probing on the first possibility would bring more useful insights.

I-deals are negotiated with the agents on varied content, which has evolved in terms of resources granted to employees in the organizations. A resource can be anything transferable between two parties (Foa, 1971), which can be classified into six types money, goods, services, information, status, and love (Foa & Foa, 1974; 1976; 1980; 2012). These resources can be plotted against two axes that are symbolic to concrete, depicting the degree of the tangibility of the resource, and universal to particularistic, showcasing the degree to which the concerned parties affect the value of the specific resource. The graphical illustration of the phenomenon is given in figure 1. Recent research argues that employment deals shift their focus from concrete and universal resources to more symbolic and particular resources (Davis & Van der Heijden, 2018).

Figure 1

Classification of resources



Source: Foa (1971)

Considering this theory in the organizational context, it can be said that i-deals are also representative of symbolic and particular resources (Davis & Van der Heijden, 2018). It is because the content of i-deals seems similar to symbolic and particular resources (Davis & Van der Heijden, 2018; Rousseau et al., 2006). The widely negotiated forms of i-deals include flexibility i-deals refer to the negotiations for the preferred schedule and location, developmental i-deals refer to the negotiations to advance the career goals, workload reduction i-deals refer to negotiations to reduce work hours, task i-deals refer to negotiations to alter job content, and financial i-deals refer to negotiations to have pay raise or other monetary perks (Rousseau et al., 2016).

Hence, the content of i-deals is relatable to the symbolic and particular types of resources.

The classification of i-deals content has been attributed to several scholars; for instance, Rousseau (2005) first categorized i-deals into flexibility i-deals and developmental i-deals. A few years later, Hornung, Rousseau, and Glaser (2009) added another dimension to the pre-existing types of i-deals that are, workload reduction. Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, and Weigl (2010) included task i-deals to the ongoing research on the identification of different types of i-deals. However, finding some dimensions overlapping, Rosen et al., (2013) categorize i-deals differently, such that the flexibility i-deals were divided into schedule flexibility refers to providing elasticity in schedules and the number of work hours, and location flexibility refers to providing resilience in choice of location for work. Thus, this includes the aspects of workload reduction i-deals in schedule flexibility (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2009). Furthermore, Rosen et al. (2013) introduced the second type of i-deals, that is, task and work responsibilities i-deals refer to allocating specific responsibilities assignments, training to expand knowledge and skills for career enhancement. It covered the aspects of developmental i-deals (Rousseau, 2005) and task i-deals (Hornung et al., 2010). Finally, Rosen et al. (2013) came up with the third type of i-deals; that is, financial i-deals refers to offering individualized compensations or pay rise.

These various types of i-deals are based on underlying assumption such as flexibility i-deals are driven by work-life balance needs (Hornung et al., 2009; Las Heras, Rofcanin, Bal, & Stollberger, 2017), and task and developmental i-deals are

directed by career aspirations (Gascoigne & Kelliher, 2018). Therefore, for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon, this study considered both the task and developmental i-deals and the flexibility i-deals (scheduling flexibility). The choice is also based on the fact that these two types of i-deals are the most frequently negotiated deals in practice (Rosen et al., 2013); thus, they would be able to provide a better reflection on the consequent job performance of employees. The potential benefits of these i-deals to both employees and organizations have been summarized in table 5. The possible reason of relatively less frequent negotiation of financial and location flexibility may include that financial i-deals would be challenging to enquire as employees may refrain from requesting and exhibiting their financial packages to others and location flexibility may depend upon nature of the job; hence, these were not be investigated in the current study.

Table 5

Benefits of different types of i-deals

Content	Benefit(s)	
Flexibility	For the organization	For the employee
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can retain employees for a longer period of time - Can increase employees' job satisfaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can aid employees in transition
Development	For the organization	For the employee
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can enhance employees' performance and commitment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can support career goals
Task	For the organization	For the employee
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can increase employees' organizational commitment, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can heighten employees' interest in work

job engagement and job satisfaction	- Can develop better person-job fit - Can reduce stress
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Source: Rousseau et al. (2016)

I-deals due to the nature of their content seem similar to other work design approaches such as job redesign and job crafting; however, they differ from them in various aspects. Job redesign refers to initiating or making key amendments in job contents, tasks, work settings, and employment conditions in a way that could render benefits for both employees' and the organization (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1980). Job design is advantageous for employees', as it leads to intrinsic satisfaction in work and greater wellbeing, whereas organizations get higher employee performance, proactivity, attendance, and retention (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Parker, Turner, & Griffin, 2003). There are two formal approaches to job design, namely, top-down interventions lead by management and bottom-up job crafting proactively solicited by employees' (Hornung et al., 2010). Job crafting, being the second approach, refers to employees' self-initiated changes of physical and cognitive nature in tasks, or in their relational boundaries of the job by re-defining themselves and recognizing the meaning of their job differently (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Both approaches to job design have limitations. Top-down approaches are restricted to initiate individualized work arrangements to satisfy the employees' personal needs (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Walton, 1972). Whereas, the bottom-up approaches are restricted in the ability to the extent employees' can alter their working conditions without the formal authorization from their managers (Hornung et al., 2010). I-deals, however, follow a middle ground that is, falls in between top-down

management-driven job design and bottom-up employee-driven private efforts to job craft (Hornung et al., 2010). The contrasting elements between the concepts of job redesign, job crafting, and i-deals are presented in table 6.

Table 6
Comparison of work design concepts and their dimensions

Dimension	Job redesign	Job crafting	I-deals
Initiation	Top-down by management	Bottom-up by worker	Bottom-up typically by worker
Implementation	Planned intervention	Employee discretion	Employee-management negotiation
Authorization	Formal	Unauthorized or within the zone of acceptance	Authorized by agents for human resources approval
Employee's role	Typically, recipient	Actor	Both actor and recipient
Focus	Job classes for ideas and idiosyncratic jobs	Individual job opposition	Individual job opposition
Primary goal	Intrinsic motivation/performance	Personal needs	Broad mutual benefit
Design content	Work characteristics	Task and interactions	Any or all employment features
Results	Objective changes	Objective changes and/or cognitive redefinition	Objective changes
Process	Discrete event	Ongoing	Intermittent events

Source: (Hornung et al., 2010)

The phenomenon of i-deals is a refined form of other employment mechanisms such as negotiations and psychological contracts. Negotiations can be defined as an interpersonal decision-making process in which two or more people decide on the

allocation of given resources (Thompson, 2000). I-deals are personalized work arrangements typically negotiated between employees and their employers; thus, negotiations can be regarded as a part of the process that ended up at i-deals (Liao et al., 2016). Psychological contracts are employees' subjective beliefs shaped by the organizations related to the mutual exchange agreements between both parties (Rousseau, 1995). I-deals are not based on perceptions, but explicitly negotiated job agreements (Liao et al., 2016). Earlier research has identified that i-deals can influence the shaping of employees' distinct psychological contract with the organization (Rousseau et al., 2006). Else, they can be influenced by their psychological contract, such that i-deals are initiated based on employees' beliefs about the obligations of the organization towards its employees (Rousseau, 2005).

The advancements in the concept of i-deals are relatively recent; however, this phenomenon has received less scholarly attention in organizational research (Vidyarthi et al., 2016). The limited empirical investigations on i-deals predict that they have positive outcomes for both employees' and organizations (for details, see meta-analytical review by Liao et al. (2016)), which rendered this emerging phenomenon a reputable position from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Surprisingly, little attention has been given to the influence of i-deals on specific job behaviors of employees. Job behaviors of employees are important to examine, as they are the key indicators of their job performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Notably, few research studies have been linked up i-deals with employees' behavioral outcomes, for instance, successfully negotiated i-deals are positively related with employees' in-role performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (for detailed reviews, see Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2015) and Liao et al. (2016)). However, an area of job

behaviors being inadequately explored in the past literature of i-deals includes a form of organizational citizenship behavior; that is, employee voice behavior (for exceptions, see Ng & Feldman, 2015; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016).

Over time, like i-deals, the concept of employee voice has also been nurtured (Mowbray et al., 2019; Wilkinson, Donaghey, Dundon, & Freeman, 2020). For instance, in the beginning, the voice has emerged a generic concept (Hirschman, 1970; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); however, subsequent research expanded its view while identifying its multiple dimensions (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014), which can render more comprehensive understanding of voice behavior. However, past research in the related context has failed to consider this fact; therefore, it provides an incomplete understanding of various attributes of voice. Responding to the recent calls on consideration of the multidimensional aspects of voice (Mowbray et al., 2019; Mowbray et al., 2015), this study reflects i-deals on different types of voice.

2.1.2. Employee voice

Employee voice has been conceptualized as ‘employees’ discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, and opinions related to work within the organization, directed towards improving the overall organizational functioning (Gorden, 1988; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Morrison, 2011; Van Dyne et al., 1995; Van Dyne et al., 2003; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Examples include bringing the supervisor’s attention to potential problems and suggesting management of the possible cost-saving opportunities (Withey & Cooper, 1989). Past studies (Van Dyne, Ang, &

Botero, 2003; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) demonstrate that employee voice is an extra role behavior and a form of organizational citizenship behavior that urges employees' to go beyond obligations for the betterment of the organization, which is critical for organizational innovation, performance improvement, and prevention of errors (Morrison, 2014). Importantly, the voice is, theoretically and empirically, different from other such behaviors (e.g., helping behavior), because it is a challenging form of behavior such as recommending a change to standard procedures despite others disagree (Brinsfield, 2014).

Voice has been originally conceived as a discretionary reaction to unsatisfied working conditions through verbal means or other types of actions and protests, in Hirschman's (1970) seminal book *Exit-Voice-Loyalty*, where, the voice was conceptualized from an economic point of view in relations to customers (Allen, 2014). Hirschman theorized that dissatisfied customers, in the objectionable state of affairs with the company, choose among exit or voice options to deal with the given situation, where they chose to voice if they are loyal to the company and want to change its policies and practices (Mowbray et al., 2015). Later on, scholars applied this concept to employees in an organizational context (Farrell, 1983; Freeman & Medoff, 1984) and improved the understanding of how employee voice shapes inside and outside the organization (Kaufman, 2015; Marchington, 2015).

The variety of voice focused concepts have been studied in the past; however, voice has evolved as a distinctive construct (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Most close conceptualization includes first, 'employees' participation in decision making (Mitchell, 1973) designated as a right to have to say in organizational decisions. In this,

organizations may encourage employee participation, but the supervisors in those instances hold the ultimate responsibility of initiating participation, whereas voice is employees' self-initiated behavior. Second, civic virtue (Graham, 1986) refers to the employees' participation in organizational activities as requested, while the voice is not limited to mere participation, but extended to identifying the operational problems, overlooked otherwise, and to offer suggestions to improve the organizational functioning. Third, taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) is an expression of a voluntary initiative to make constructive changes in the organization, albeit the intention of voice is also the same, however, it is a form of communication behavior and taking charge is not.

There are some other voice-related perspectives that have been in the limelight in the past literature of voice including upward communication (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974), issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993), advocacy participation (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994), principal organizational dissent (Graham, 1986), and whistleblowing (Near & Miceli, 1985). Nonetheless, the concept of employee voice has taken a unique theoretical position over the period. A brief description of these voice-related concepts are given in table 7.

Table 7

Voice related concepts

Terminology	Description
Employees' participation in decision making (Mitchell, 1973)	A right to have to say in organizational decisions
Upward communication	Bottom-up dissemination of information in the

(Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974)	organizational hierarchy while inferring meaning from that information
Whistleblowing (Near & Miceli, 1985)	Disclosure of organizational wrongdoing to organizational authorities
Principle organizational dissent (Graham, 1986)	Protest to/and change the organization's status quo due to conscientious objection on organizational policies and practices
Civic virtue (Graham, 1986)	Employees' participation in organizational activities as requested
Issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993)	A behavioral approach to bring other's attention to make them understand specific issues
Advocacy participation (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994)	Proactive and constructive behaviors such as challenging others, suggesting a change
Taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999)	An expression of a voluntary initiative to make constructive changes in the organization

Source: Brinsfield (2014)

The key attributes of voice behavior, making it different from other related perspectives, includes (a) it is exhibited by an individual employee, (b) it is not silent, neutral or anonymous, (c) it leads employees' position on the stake with respect to status quo, and (d) it may cause damage to interpersonal relationships at the workplace because of potential disagreements (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Although the past conception of voice recommends that the voice is verbal expression, however, expressions are not restricted to verbal behaviors (Hirschman, 1970), for instance, they may include written forms of communication (e.g., emails, memos, etc.) (Withey & Cooper, 1989). Thus, all expressions cannot be considered as the voice (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). To be categorized as voice, the expression should be

communicated openly, relevant to the organizational context, intended to influence the working environment, and received by the insiders of the organization (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). From this, it can be characterized that, offering suggestions related to work improvement is a voice, and anonymous placement of suggestions in the suggestion box is not.

Organizations have varied targets that are the recipient of employee voice (Brinsfield, 2014). It is an important consideration for employees while they are considering voicing their concerns (Mowbray et al., 2015) as the voice is target sensitive and involves costs (e.g., negative labeling) and benefits (e.g., appreciation) associated (Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010). Hence, when employees want to initiate learning or action, they direct their concerns or suggestions to targets with formal authority (Detert & Treviño, 2010). Earlier studies have identified a number of such targets, including, supervisors (e.g., Burris, 2012; Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson, 2003; McClean, Burris, & Detert, 2013; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012), skip-level managers (e.g., Detert & Treviño, 2010; Liu et al., 2010) and coworkers (e.g., Detert et al., 2013; Mellahi, Budhwar, & Baibing Li, 2010). Generally, they are the leaders, above in the hierarchy (Detert & Treviño, 2010), because (1) employees are in close contact and have frequent interactions with them on a daily basis, for example, an engineer would feel more convenient to discuss organizational concerns with his immediate project manager rather than approaching higher-ups, (2) they possess the mechanism to connect employees with the higher echelons of management in the organization and lead their voices heard.

Past research, since the inception of voice (the 1970s), predicts that due to the

inherent complexity in the nature of voice, it is one of the most difficult constructs to conceptualize and operationalize (Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). For instance, subsequent extant studies (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014) have divided voice into two types of constructs that are, the uni-dimensional construct and multidimensional construct where the former emphasizes on the general behavior of individuals and later captures the specific intentions of individuals behind voicing behavior. Scholars such as Van Dyne and colleagues (Van Dyne et al., 2003) have recognized this notion over time and broaden the classic definition of voice, including differential aspects that are constructive suggestions and concerns. In line with the definition of Van Dyne et al. (2003), several studies have proposed different forms of voice behavior (Van Dyne et al., 2003; Liang et al., 2012; Morrison, 2011) based on the different motivations of individuals to voice their concerns. For instance, Liang et al. (2012) proposed two types of voices that are, promotive voice and prohibitive voice.

Promotive voice refers to employees' manifestation of novel ideas and suggestions to improve the overall functioning of the organization (Liang et al., 2012). Contrarily, prohibitive voice aimed at expressing concerns regarding organizational practices and employee behaviors that may prove detrimental for the organization (Liang et al., 2012). Although both types share few commonalities, such as both are directed towards changing the status quo to improve the organizational functioning, there are inherent differences between content, functions, and implications of promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors (Dedahanov, Rhee, & Gapurjanova, 2018).

The definition of promotive voice indicates the employees' underlying motive of promotive voice is the betterment of the organization; therefore, employees tend to offer innovative solutions to issues and recommendations to achieve the future ideal state. Whereas, the definition of prohibitive voice stresses that the employees' motive behind the prohibitive voice is to protect the organization; hence, employees tend to discourage others' undesirable behaviors, stop harmful practices and disclose potential or previously undetected malfunctioning within the organization. For example, voice with such intentions can prevent accounting malpractices (Gordon, 2004), product safety issues (O'Connell, 2004), and medical errors (Edmondson, Bohmer, & Pisano, 2001). Additionally, the motives of promotive voice can be characterized as positive, on behalf of expected positive outcomes of such voicing. Conversely, the motives of prohibitive voice can be regarded as negative due to possible negative repercussions attained through such voicing. Furthermore, the promotive voice is a future-oriented, and prohibitive voice is both past and future-oriented. A comparison of promotive and prohibitive voice behavior is presented in table 8. Either form of the voice is beneficial to the organization; thus, it should be encouraged (Loi, Ao, & Xu, 2014).

Table 8

A comparison of promotive and prohibitive voice behavior

Characteristic	Promotive voice	Prohibitive voice
Commonalities		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is not specified in formal job descriptions (save for particular jobs such as auditing) and thus is 'extra-role' • Is helpful to the functioning of an employee's work unit or organization and thus is 'constructive' • Is motivated by a desire to help the work unit or organization and thus reflects the employee's sense of responsibility and constructive attitude towards the organization 	

Distinctions

1. Behavioral content	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Expresses new ideas or solutions for how to improve the status quo• Future-oriented; points to possibilities of how to do things better in the future	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Expresses concern about existing or impeding factors (i.e. incidents, practices, or behaviors) that are harmful to the organization• Past or future-oriented point out harmful factors that have negatively affected the status quo or could have a harmful effect in the future
2. Functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Points out ways at the organization can be better	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Points about cactus that are harmful to the organization
3. Implications for others	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Suggest improvements that may bring forth changes that inconvenience others in the short run, but the improvements can potentially eventually benefit the entire community• The good intention behind suggested improvements is easily recognized and interpreted as positive	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Calls attention to harmful factors and consequently implicates the failure of those responsible• The good intention behind pointing out harmful factors may not be easily recognized or interpreted as positive because of the potential negative emotion and defensiveness invoked in the process

Source: Liang et al. (2012)

The prohibitive voice is critical to organizational health because it can help in identifying hidden problems that can cause destruction in the organization and resist initiatives that can prove problematic for the organization (Bai, Lin, & Liu, 2017). As such, prohibitive voice can sometimes prove more effective than a promotive voice. However, among studies investigating employee voice, the focus was concentrated on promotive voice, and little attention was given to prohibitive voice despite its unprecedented importance (Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Thus, there is a serious need to consider voice as a multidimensional construct in order to have a comprehensive understanding of voice (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Mowbray et al., 2015).

There is increasing evidence on the positive impact of employee voice on employee and organizational performance (Harley, 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2012). It indicates employee voice continues to be of pivotal importance for both organizations and employees (Burke & Cooper, 2013; Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012; Wilkinson, Dundon, Donaghey, & Freeman, 2014). Consequently, the question of what encourages promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors of employees in the organizations is an emerging domain of research in voice literature (Chamberlin, Newton, & Lepine, 2017). To further contribute in this arena, a new antecedent to promotive and prohibitive voice, that is, i-deals have been investigated in this research. Past conceptualization in this context (Ng & Feldman, 2015; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016), was rooted in traditional Hirschman's 'exit, voice, and loyalty' model (Hirschman, 1970); nevertheless, the relationship between i-deals and recently emerged promotive and prohibitive forms of voice is still unknown.

2.2. Hypotheses development

In this section, the logical argumentation has been presented to hypothesize the direct, indirect, and interactional relationships among constructs of the study. The theoretical frameworks of social identity theory and the group engagement model underlie the theoretically-driven hypotheses.

2.2.1. I-deals and employee voice

To understand the link between i-deals and employee voice behaviors, this study employs the framework of social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). The attempt to use a new theoretical lens to explain the proposed theoretical framework is attributed to recent calls on studying i-deals with new perspectives made by Bal and Rousseau (2015) and Liao et al. (2016). Social identity theory delineates, individuals' self-concept consists of two components: personal identity and social identity (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). It is a process by which individuals categorize themselves in various social groups (such as organizational membership) in order to derive their self-concept, which, in turn, affect their attitudes and behaviors (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Terry & Hogg, 2001). However, the phenomenon is dependent upon the individuals' attributed value and emotional attachment to these social cohorts (Tajfel, 1978).

In line with social identity theory, the literature of employment relationships suggests that these relationships carry meanings, enhancing employees' perceptions of self-concept (Davis & Van der Heijden, 2018). They are not limited to materialistic

exchanges but serve as the medium through which employees' gain self-esteem and experience personal growth (Liu et al., 2013), which are necessary components of a positive self-concept. Specifically, the role of human resource practices in employment arrangements plays a critical role in this regard (Frenkel, Restubog, & Bednall, 2012). The human resource practices (such as i-deals) send signals to employees that they are highly valued by the organization through wide-ranging practices that aim at skill development, self-management, and work motivations, among others (Wei, Han, & Hsu, 2010). This influences the employees' attitudes and behaviors (Whitener, 2001), such that they set the stage for them to engage in extra-role behaviors (e.g., OCB) as an expression of consequent response (Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007).

Although, the past research has explicated this process from the social exchange view (Blau, 1964), however, few scholars (e.g., Snape and Redman (2010) have challenged this notion. According to Snape and Redman (2010), the perceived job influence achieved through supportive human resource practices may provide intrinsic motivation and self-confidence to employees to perform extra-role behaviors. In this case, the employees engage in extra-role behaviors concerning their identity with the organization rather than a felt need to reciprocate (Frenkel et al., 2012). It is because organizational policies and practices are fulfilling employees' socio-economic needs for self-definition, self-enhancement, status, and a sense of purpose, which encourages them to incorporate an organization's attributes into their self-concept (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Pratt, 1998).

In a like manner, work and organizational experiences, such as i-deals, can also provide a basis of a contribution to employees' self-concept. It is because employers

granting resources catering to the unique needs of their employees signals them that they are worthy of special treatments, and their value is being recognized in the organization, which enhances their self-concept (Korman, 2001; Rousseau et al., 2006). Consequently, the employees express favorable behavior towards the organization (Liu et al., 2013).

Extending this logic, i-deals being human resource practice may encourage extra-role behaviors, particularly, a form of OCB, that is, employee voice. The positive cues received due to i-deals may motivate employees to voice not only suggestions (promotive voice) but also the concerns (prohibitive voice). Liang and colleagues (2012) pointed out that the employees assert the promotive voice in pursuit of an ideal state while aiming at improving work practices and allowing the organization the possibility of demonstrating better performance in the future. Therefore, it highlights the probability that when employees attain ideal employment deals, which satisfy their self-concept, they would be more eager to channelize their organization towards ideal pathways of success while surfacing constructive suggestions. Hence, employee i-deals would stimulate recipient employees to raise their voices having promotive content.

By contrast, the employees may also express prohibitive voice because according to Liang et al. (2012), the focus of prohibitive voice is to protect the organization from unnecessary plights and deterioration of work practices; thus, those employees who have achieved the desired level of self-concept from organizational experiences would be more willing to take initiatives to solve organizational problems (Van Dyne, Earley, & Cummings, 1990). One source of such experiences includes the special treatments granted by the organization to secure their career aspirations and

personal goals. The resultant derivation of their desired self-concept highlights the likelihood that the employees would specify the issues they are vigilant that they may prove hazardous for the organization and can cause performance failures. Therefore, a sense of assurance that they are valuable for their organization, and their contributions will also be appreciated (Liu et al., 2013), would uplift the employees' to formulate and voice their thoughts with prohibitive content.

In particular, the grant of task and development i-deals to employees' represents the recognition of employees' growth potential by the organization, and the grant of flexibility i-deals indicates the care for the wellbeing of an employee by the organization (Rousseau et al., 2006). Both actions send cues to the employees' that they are worthy members of their organization while enhancing the self satisfies the need for positive self-concept (Liu et al., 2013). As a result, employees become more proactive in dealing with organizational matters and choose to engage in a voice more on organizational problems. Hence, the hypothesis, based on the above theoretically linked phenomenon, can be formulated as:

Hypothesis 1 (H₁): Employee i-deals are positively associated with promotive voice (H_{1a}) and prohibitive voice (H_{1b}) of employees.

2.2.2. Mediating role of organizational identification

Prior research on i-deals indicates that underlying mechanisms are critical for explaining relationships between i-deals and their several organizational and employee outcomes (for details, see meta-analysis by Liao, Wayne, and Rousseau (2016). For instance, Ng and Feldman, 2015 employed organizational trust as an explanatory

mechanism, which has been classified as a psychological attachment variable (Ng, 2015) and they also mentioned that other such attachment variables, including organizational identification, are also relevant mechanisms. Organizational identification is a neighboring phenomenon to organization trust; thus, it would also be able to render useful insights while playing an intervening role in the given relationship of i-deals and voice behaviors, as postulated in H₁. Thus, the current study, while building upon the taxonomy prescribed by the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003), an extended form of social identity theory, used organizational identification as a new explanatory mechanism.

Organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) is a form of social identification, derived from the social identity theory. It is an act of employees seeing organization as a part of their own identity (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In other words, it referred to a meaningful overlap between the employees' self-identity and perceived identity of their organization reaching the echelon of oneness, where employees experience organizational successes and failures as owns (Mael & Ashforth, 1989). However, it depends upon the extent to which employees believe that their organization considers them legitimate members of the organization (Ashforth et al., 2008; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Accordingly, organization identification can be categorized as a deep structured psychological phenomenon compared to the surface level attachment (Rousseau, 1998). Scholars have identified that organization identification emerges from a cognitive process of sense breaking and sense-making (Ashforth et al., 2008). This process is

facilitated by identity cues provided by organizational efforts that facilitate employees, defining themselves with respect to their organization, until the time, a fulfilling and stable self-concept is evolved (Brickson, 2013). For instance, Dutton et al. (1994) expounded employees can develop high organization identification when their alternative identities become less salient than the organizational membership, and their self-concept becomes congruent with perceived organizational identity. In this sense, organizational identification is a determinant variable for explaining many desirable consequences for the organizations (Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004).

The group engagement model is an appropriate framework to provide a sound understanding of this psychological mechanism. Before the group engagement model, the accreditation of value relied on external comparisons with respect to what value others attribute to their organization. This model highlights the importance of the treatment of individuals within the organization as an antecedent to organizational identification (Tyler & Blader, 2003). The model advocates that individuals' attachment with the organization, and subsequent behavior depends upon their perceived regard within the organization (Fuller et al., 2009). It is because the apprehension of being in high regard is the indicator of individuals' value in the organization. The perception that 'I am valued by the organization' (Tyler, 1999) fulfills the need for self-enhancement (Fuller et al., 2006), in turn, individuals are likely to identify with the organization and be good organizational citizens (Kaufman, Stamper, & Tesluk, 2001; Tyler, 1999). The employees analyze their status within the organization through different cues directed towards them by the organization (Ashforth et al., 2008), for example, the organization's concern for the well-being of its employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The perception of good reputation extracted

from such cues fulfills the need to maintain positive self-identity (Tyler & Blader, 2002) and found to be the source of organizational identification (Fuller et al., 2006). It is imperative to note that employees' perception of internal status evaluation is dependent upon their autonomous judgments about the feeling of being part of the organization (Tyler & Blader, 2002).

Building on this note, it can be postulated that the relationship of i-deals and organizational identification of employees can be explained with the help of social identity theory. As discussed earlier, the grant of i-deals from the organization signals that they are being valued and cared (Liu et al., 2013). Particularly task and developmental i-deals are the indications of value, and flexibility i-deals display the sense of care (Las Heras et al., 2017); thus, they give mandatory cues to its employees of being internally respected and enhances their organizational identification. This premise gauged support by the past research, where it has been identified that human resources practices enhance the perception of employees' organizational identification while presenting such practices as an indication of employees' status within the organization (Fuller et al., 2006). Being the case that i-deals are also constituted in human resource practices (Liao et al., 2016), they will enhance the employees' organizational identification. Thus, based on these theoretically driven relationships, it can be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2 (H₂): Employee i-deals are positively associated with organizational identification.

Moving ahead, the group engagement suggests that individuals who strongly identify themselves with the group are intrinsically motivated to engage in activities that facilitate organizational success (Blader & Tyler, 2009). It is because the group has been integrated into their self-concept, which inherently makes them concerned with the welfare of the group where they consider group success as their success (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002; Kramer, Hanna, Su, & Wei, 2001). Available research suggests that, as a result of high organizational identification, the employees tend to act in the best interest of the organization while getting into extra-role behaviors (Christ, Van Dick, Wagner, & Stellmacher, 2003; Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006). These behaviors are discretionary in nature; thus, they are more open to being influenced by intrinsic motivators such as social identity (Blader & Tyler, 2009).

Following this line of reasoning, it is argued that if organization identification can encourage employees' to strive for the wellbeing of the organization through discretionary efforts, then it can also be a useful mechanism to foster employees voice, which is also a form of extra-role behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). As such, high identifiers tend to act consistently with their self-perceived worthwhile, making constructive suggestions to improve organizational performance and expressing concerns when they feel something is harmful to organizational health. The arousal of concern for the organization would be natural as employees internalize organizational performance as their performance when they identify with their organization (Giessner, 2011; Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Moreover, past empirical research also provides tangible support for this phenomenon; for instance, Ashford and Barton (2007) affirm that organizational identification stimulates voice while encouraging employees to speak up with the concern of the improvement in the current functioning of the organization. Likewise, Liu et al. (2013) suggest that organizations that want to enrich employee voice should strengthen employee identification. More specifically, a recent study also contends that when employees have enhanced identification with their organization, they tend to express concern for the betterment of their organization (promotive voice) and to keep their organization safe from any foreseen imperils (prohibitive voice) (Ali Arain, Bukhari, Hameed, Lacaze, & Bukhari, 2018). Therefore, the hypothesis can be stated as:

Hypothesis 3 (H₃): Organizational identification is positively associated with both promotive voice (H_{3a}) and prohibitive voice (H_{3b}) of employees.

In synchronization with the relationships predicted in hypotheses 2 and 3, it is plausible to contend that i-deals are not only directly associated with promotive and prohibitive voice, as postulated in hypothesis 1 but also indirectly related via organizational identification. The social identity theory contends that positive evaluation of employees about the organizational treatment (i.e., i-deals) satisfies their need for self-enhancement and boosts their self-esteem (Fiol & O'Connor, 2005; Korman, 2001) which in turn, leads them to express favoring behaviors towards the organization (i.e., voice behaviors) (Taylor & Brown, 1988). Whereas, the group engagement model suggests that positive evaluations of organizational treatment (i.e., i-deals) should be related to discretionary behaviors (i.e., voice) through organizational

identification (Fuller et al., 2006; Tyler & Blader, 2003). It is because upon receiving i-deals, a signal is also transmitted towards the employees that they are valued, respected, and have a special and unique relationship with their organization, and this feeling of attachment results in higher motivation to display extra-role behaviors (Tyler & Blader, 2003). It advocates that the relationship of i-deals and promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors should be mediated by organizational identification.

While voicing suggestions or especially concerns, the risk is being attached to getting negative repercussions (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Thus, the positive effects of assuming the internal status gauged through the grant of i-deals may be sufficient or may not encourage employee voice. However, when i-deals are serving as an antecedent to organizational identification, encouraging voice behaviors, the risk attached to voice may be mitigated as compared to the motivation to voice suggestions (promotive voice) or concerns (prohibitive voice) for the organization because of alignment of organizational outcomes with the employees' personal outcomes (Elsbach, 1999). Hence, the hypothesis can be derived from these theoretically built relationships as:

Hypothesis 4 (H₄): Organizational identification mediates the relationship of employee i-deals and promotive voice (H_{4a}) and prohibitive voice (H_{4b}) of employees.

To this point, the direct and indirect relationships between i-deals and employee voice behaviors have been established using the theoretical frameworks of social identity theory and group engagement model. However, voice scholars argued that the study on the voice would not be able to present a true picture of the phenomenon unless

third-party factors such as social and relational factors at the workplace are considered because they may significantly influence such behaviors (Venkataramani et al., 2016). Therefore, it is mandatory to understand the impact of contextual factors that may serve as boundary conditions for the proposed relationships. Consequently, this study tested the moderating effect of coworkers' opportunity to get i-deals on the relationship of employees' i-deals and organizational identification.

2.2.3. Moderating role of the i-deal opportunity for coworkers

Social identity theory suggests that individuals indulge in intra-group comparisons, where they make comparisons with the members of the same group to verify or enhance their self-concept (Hogg, 2000). The focus in such comparisons is on differentiation and variability with other group members (Brewer, 1993). In an organizational context, employees make such comparison with their coworkers and evaluate what their coworkers possess and what they do not have concerning them (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005). Social comparisons of this nature affect the individuals' attitudes and behaviors in various contexts, such as organizational settings (Buunk, Zurriaga, & Gonzalez-Roma, 2003; Collins, 2000; Spence, Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2011).

I-deals, being at odds with traditional employment settings in which all employees at the same position have the same employment contract, are the differential work arrangements of coworkers that create an environment of intragroup comparison between employees and their coworkers (Rousseau, 2005). Indeed, coworkers are the most convenient and compelling referents for social comparisons with the

organizations, as it is impossible to not attend to the ensuing information accrued regarding i-deals (Kulik & Ambrose, 1992). For example, Greenberg and colleagues (Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007) recognized that employees do not fail to notice when a coworker puts in a different number of hours at the office. These comparisons agitate the thought process on “do others have the same options as I do?” (Rousseau et al., 2006), or “am I the only one to benefit from i-deals?” Therefore, i-deals provide a potent reason for within-group social comparisons to be instigated spontaneously and effortlessly (Gilbert, Giesler, & Morris, 1995). Employees are likely to compare their i-deals with those of opportunities of i-deals available to coworkers that affect the outcomes of their deals (Vidyarthi et al., 2016; Yang, 2020). Following this line of arguments, this study would capture the employees’ perceptions about coworkers’ opportunity to get i-deals (Guerrero & Chaliol-Jeanblanc, 2016) to analyze the distinctiveness it could make in the i-deal’s recipient viewpoint. In this context, it is proposed that the i-deal opportunity for coworkers would moderate the relationships of employees’ i-deals with their outcomes.

In case of limited organizational resources available for i-deals, the opportunity for coworkers to get i-deals would be low (Blau, 1964); in turn, the intragroup competition for getting i-deals would arise. This competitive environment encourages the comparisons between employees while fostering the contrast effects or separateness from coworkers, who, in this context, are considered as referent others (Collins, 2000). These contrast effects would give the impression of higher value and respect to the recipient of i-deals from the granting organization, leading to higher levels of organizational identification.

Conversely, in the context of higher coworkers' opportunity to get i-deals, the recipient of i-deals would perceive that others have more access to i-deals, and as a result, the distinctiveness and exceptional nature of negotiations would reduce. Given that the coworkers also have greater availability of i-deals, the contrast effects would not have much impact in the context of comparisons with coworkers (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007), thus, deteriorating the feelings of receiving special treatment from the organization. This argument is in line with the view that repeated acts of negotiations may lose its essence over time, and the benefits of such deals also diminish because of the frequent availability of these deals makes them standard practices rather than individualized arrangements (Rousseau et al., 2006).

In addition to this, the research on within-group social comparisons also supports the notion, such that in case of assimilation with the target comparison rather than contrast, it would lead to negative consequences of comparisons such as worry of getting worse off (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Smith, 2000), opposing to the enhancement of self-perceptions. In other words, the environment of the organization where the employee feels others are getting better treatment from the organization or the treatment given to employees is readily available to others as well would lower down the apprehensions of respect and value, in turn, would weaken their organizational identification. Thus, the theoretically built relationships can be hypothesized as:

Hypothesis 5 (H₅): I-deal opportunity for coworkers moderates the relationship of employees' i-deals and organizational identification, such that the relationship is stronger when the opportunity of getting i-deals for a coworker is low.

Moreover, an i-deal opportunity for coworkers also intervenes in the relationship between employees' i-deals and their voice behaviors. For instance, when there is a low opportunity for coworkers to access i-deals, it will give an impression to the recipient employee of being better off as compared to others in the organization. This conforms to the paradigm of self-consistency (Spence et al., 2011) influences the recipient of i-deals to act in response to a positive view of oneself in an organization. It is likely that the favorable treatment given by the organization to its valuable employees in the form of i-deals motivates employees to perform designated job better, as well as to go above and beyond the mere requirements of the job and act in ways that benefit the organization, in the form of citizenship behaviors (Vidyarthi et al., 2016), as this justifies the position of being better off with respect to coworkers. One such behavior may include making constructive suggestions (promotive voice) or expressing concerns (prohibitive voice) for improving organizational functioning. Research on social comparisons predicts that the salience of comparisons in the workplace context encourages employees to involve in extra-role behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior), as a way to express gratitude to the special treatment given by organizations (Exline & Lobel, 1999; Spence et al., 2011; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010); hence, it can be expected that such comparisons would also strengthen employee voice behaviors.

In the other case, when there is a high opportunity for coworkers to access i-deals, the recipient of i-deals may assume that others could also get the same resources with the same ease, would erode their feeling of being better off. The activation of the comparison mechanism with coworkers may initiate in such instances and reduces the transformational effect of i-deals on voice behaviors. It is because employees feel less

motivated to act in a way that justifies their position as a valuable resource to the organization (e.g., less likely to express promotive or prohibitive voice behaviors). Hence, the hypothesis based on the theoretical foundation can be given as:

Hypothesis 6 (H₆): I-deal opportunity for coworkers moderates the relationship of employees' i-deals and their promotive voice (H_{6a}) and prohibitive voice (H_{6a}), such that the relationship is stronger when the opportunity of getting i-deals for a coworker is low.

In sum, guided by the frameworks of social identity theory and group engagement model, an integrated model of employee i-deals (task and developmental i-deals; schedule flexibility) affecting promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors of employees through organizational identification as an explanatory mechanism and i-deal opportunity for coworkers as a boundary condition has been proposed in this section. A summarized view of literature support to the hypotheses is given in table 9, and the conceptual model of this study has been illustrated in figure 2.

2.3. Summary of literature

Table 9

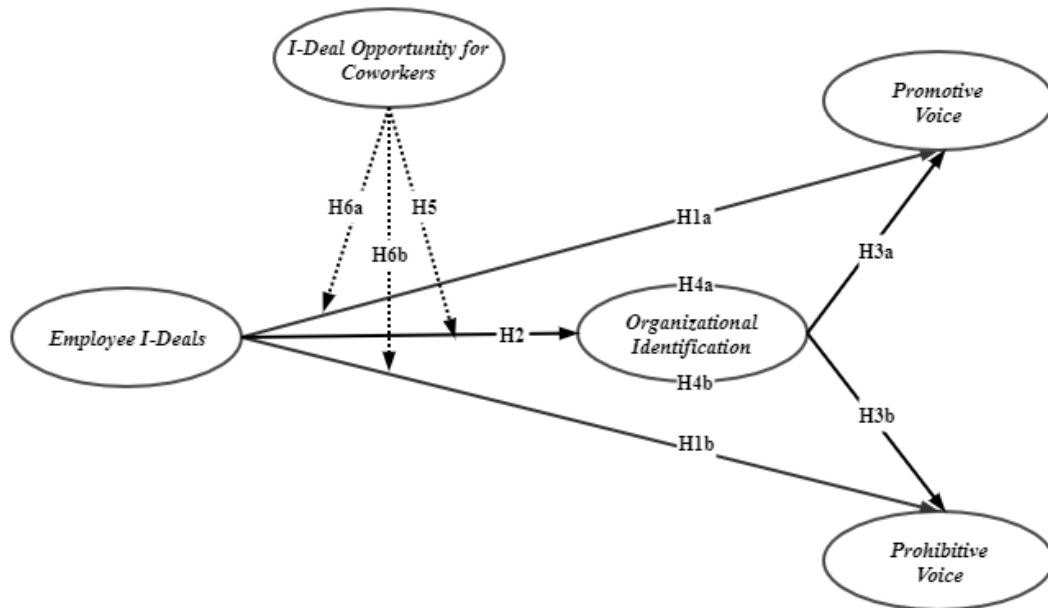
A summarized view of literature support for hypotheses

Hypothesis	Relationship	Theoretical/Empirical Justification(s)	Expected sign
Direct effect(s)			
H _{1a}	Employee i-deals → Promotive voice	(Liu et al., 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2015; Ng &	+
H _{1b}	Employee i-deals → Prohibitive voice	Lucianetti, 2016)	+
Indirect effect(s)			
H ₂	Employee i-deals → Organizational identification.	(Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016; Liu et al., 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2015)	+
H _{3a}	Organizational identification → Promotive voice	(Ali Arain et al., 2018;	+
H _{3b}	Organizational identification → Prohibitive voice	Tangirala & Ramnujam, 2008)	+
H _{4a}	Employee i-deals → Organizational identification → Promotive voice	(Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016; Liu et al.,	+
H _{4b}	Employee i-deals → Organizational identification → Prohibitive voice	2013; Ng & Feldman, 2015)	+
Interaction effect(s)			
H ₅	Employees' i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworkers (low) → Organizational identification	(Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016; Lai, Rousseau, & Chang, 2009)	-
H _{6a}	Employees' i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworkers (low) → Promotive voice	(Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016; Lai et al.,	-
H _{6b}	Employees' i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworkers (low) → Prohibitive voice	2009)	-

2.4. Conceptual model

Figure 2

A conceptual model



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is dedicated to the details of methodological approaches used to empirically validate the afore-derived research questions, hypotheses, and conceptual model. The chapter starts by enlisting the philosophical orientations of the research. Based on the given philosophical assumptions, the choices of research design are made. Next, the characteristics of the population and sample employed for the study are discussed. The data gathering process has also been explained in detail in this chapter. Lastly, the details of the instrumentation design are delineated.

3.1. Research philosophy

The research in social sciences demands philosophical assumptions (Dainty, 2008), explaining research background, knowledge, and nature of research underlying the proposed inquiry (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, & Lewis, 2009). In philosophy, there are two main decision points, that are, ontological and epistemological considerations (Atieno, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Howe & Eisenhart, 1990; Lowhorn, 2007; Harwell, 2011; Newman & Ridenour, 1998; Tuli & Educ, 2010; Wahyuni, 2012). Ontology refers to the conception of reality, and epistemology refers to the acceptance of legitimate knowledge (Smith, 1998). Both of these philosophical positions originate from a paradigm, defined as a cluster of beliefs (Bryman, 2003). The paradigm dictates how research should be done, in terms of giving directions in leading from research questions to the conclusions of the study, through the employment of appropriate research methods (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015). In management studies, mainly, the

objectivist ontology and positivist epistemology derive the research choices (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). The former communicates that the social phenomenon exists independent of social actors and the latter claims that the reality can be measured through the use of scientific methods that can render knowledge specific to the research study (Bell, Bryman, & Harley, 2018).

Therefore, in this study, while endorsing the philosophical position of management studies in research (Johnson & Duberley, 2000), an objectivist-positivist worldview was followed. According to this worldview, the causes of the problem can determine the effects (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Therefore, the approach was in line with the aim of this study to gauge the impact of employee i-deals on their behavioral outcomes. The objectivist-positivistic research approach was also explicitly chosen, as it suggests a quantitative research strategy (Crotty, 1998). According to quantitative research strategy, the numeric data have to be collected, and statistical analysis has to be performed on collected data to testify the associations between variables of the proposed research model and generalize the research findings to theory and practice (Bell et al., 2018). It not only helps to explain and predict the relationships among constructs, but also produces facts that correspond to an independent reality (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015).

Moreover, as per central to the objectivist-positivism approach, the research approach was deductive. The deductive approach suggests that the theoretically-driven hypotheses, based on the existing body of literature, should be empirically tested to deduce conclusions about the relationships of variables (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Specifically, the approach provides quantitative value to the proposed phenomenon,

when the research process began with the research questions and hypotheses and the outlook is to approve or disapprove the proposed theory based on empirical evidence (Hair Jr, Wolfenbarger, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2015). In short, it turns a general phenomenon to a more specific one by explaining a meaningful relationship between employee i-deals and job behaviors (Bell et al., 2018).

3.2. Research design

A research design, guided by the endorsed paradigm, provides a logical structure of inquiry that ensures that the collected evidence can answer the research questions of the study to the possible degree of preciseness (Vaus & Vaus, 2001). In line with the objectivist-positivistic research paradigm, the cross-sectional research design was incorporated into this study. According to cross-sectional research design, the data have to be collected at a specific point of time from respondents without manipulating the variables to make inferences about the population of interest (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Thus, this research design provided a snapshot of employees' job behaviors, which allows this research study to advance assumptions of reality, supported by the actual data, collected at a certain point in time (Bell et al., 2018). The foremost advantage of using the cross-sectional design in this study was that it is a proponent of explanatory research. Thus, fulfilling the objective of the research is to gauge the prevalence of employees' behavior when they are receiving i-deals while understanding their underlying psychological processes and influences of contextual factors (Hair Jr et al., 2015).

Moreover, as a supporting mechanism for explanatory research, a survey, based on a structured approach, was conducted to gather primary data for variables of interest of this research study (Kothari, 2004). Amongst others, the notable merits of employing survey method include (a) capturing the significant amount of data on multiple variables of the study simultaneously from a large-sized population, that would allow determination of the impact of exposure of i-deals on behavioral outcomes of employees' at the same time, and (b) providing a piece of accurate information on which statistical applications can be applied to deduce conclusions about the proposed research questions, hypotheses, and mainly about the conceptual framework (Bryman, 2003). Additionally, several scholars have suggested that the survey method is appropriate for predicting and producing possible relationships among variables (Bryman, 2006; Saunders et al., 2009).

3.3. Population and sample

Population refers to the group of knowledgeable entities that can provide the necessary information to produce useful answers to the research questions of the study (Hair Jr et al., 2015). A population, thus includes a wide array of elements that share a set of common characteristics (Bell et al., 2018). The elements could be individuals, organizations, institutions, etc., which are also referred to as the unit of analysis (Bryman, 2003). The desirable approach is to collect data from the population that can ensure the maximum possible generalizability of the findings of the study; therefore, the researchers' employee representative sample from a target population (Saunders, 2011). A target population, constituting a sampling frame, includes all the elements from the universe from which sample can be drawn for the specific study, and the

sample is defined as a subset of target population capable of representing the whole target population (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013).

In the given study, following the imprints of past research studies (Anand et al., 2018; Anand, Vidyarthi, Liden, & Rousseau, 2010; Liao et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2013; Rofcanin et al., 2018), the target population included all the employees and their immediate managers, working at several highly regarded occupations in Pakistan, to whom their organizations officially offer i-deals. Thus, the unit of analysis of this study was the individuals (Bell et al., 2018). More specifically, supervisor-subordinate dyads were employed. Given the nature of variables, the consideration of dyads was critical to this research. It was because employees provided valuable information about their i-deals, their identification with the organization, and the i-deals opportunities available to their coworkers in the organization. However, the immediate managers of these employees, who generally have the authority to grant i-deals (Detert & Treviño, 2010), provided useful information about their behavioral outcomes, that are, promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors. It was also necessary because employee voice behaviors have inherent pro-social nature due to which the self-report data could be influenced by employees' self-serving bias (Miller & Ross, 1975) and social desirability bias (Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992). The former refers to viewing positive outcomes as primarily internally caused, yet viewing negative outcomes as primarily externally caused (Miller & Ross, 1975). Later refers to the tendency on the part of individuals to present themselves in a favorable light, regardless of their 'true feelings' about an issue or topic (Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992). Therefore, managers were considered knowledgeable and experienced respondents to provide information regarding employees' job behaviors under investigation (Campbell, 1955). Resultantly, it is safe

to assume that supervisor-subordinate dyads portrayed a complete picture of the impact of i-deals on the voice behavior of employees while incorporating intermitting processes (organizational identification) and contextual factors (i-deal opportunity for coworkers).

Furthermore, the target population involved skilled respondents spread across multiple industries of Pakistan, getting i-deals from their employers. The past research studies have also employed a variety of industries while examining the organizational and employee outcomes of i-deals in various regions of the world. They have investigated the health sector (Luu & Djurkovic, 2019), information technology (Anand et al., 2018), insurance companies (Kimwolo & Cheruiyot, 2018), transport companies (Yasin Rofcanin et al., 2018), etc. It shows the possibility of the presence of i-deals negotiations in various industries. Hence, organizations with different industrial backgrounds, including manufacturing, services, finance and insurance, and retail and wholesale, were recruited. In sum, 31 Pakistani organizations participated in the study. The consideration of multiple industries in the current study also undermined the limitation of generalization of results across industries (Geyskens, Steenkamp, & Kumar, 1998).

The sample from the target population was drawn while employing purposive sampling. Purposive sampling refers to the deliberate selection of informants based on what needs to be known and who can and are willing to provide relevant information by virtue of knowledge or experience (Bernard, 2017). Hence, consistent with the requirements of dyadic data (supervisor-subordinate dyads), only those employees were purposefully selected who was working in organizations that are offering and

appreciating negotiations of ideals, so that they can relate to the given phenomenon. The use of purposive sampling was also economical, as employees are difficult to approach because of their hectic schedules; thus, the purposeful selection of individuals for participation resulted in a large number of relevant responses.

Securing a sufficient sample size is another important consideration of quantitative research to generalize the findings of the study to the population (Hair Jr et al., 2015). Earlier, a rule of thumb for the approximation of sample size prescribed by Roscoe (1975) was in great use, communicating a sample size can be as small as 30 and as large as 500 is appropriate. Nevertheless, some subsequent statistical experts have characterized that the determination of sample size is dependent upon the number of items used to measure a particular construct (Hair, Anderson, Babin, & Black, 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), for absolute accuracy, a minimum of 5 observations per item and a maximum of 10 observations per item can render a propitious sample size. In the given study, there is a total of 28 items geared to measure five constructs. The details of the items of the constructs are given in table 5. Thus, the sample size should fall within the range of 140 ($28 * 5 = 140$) to 280 ($28 * 10 = 280$). Past research studies on i-deals have employed the sample size close to the determined figure of sample size for this study (e.g., Anand et al., 2018; Kimwolo & Cheruiyot, 2018; Rofcanin et al., 2018). Thus, following the norms of past research and material suggestions of statistical experts, this study successfully secured a total of 282 paired responses, where 72 supervisors rated for 282 employees.

3.4. Data collection procedure

Following the dictations of the employed survey method, a survey questionnaire was used to collect the data from the respondents. A detailed discussion of the instrument is provided in the forthcoming section. To approach the desired participants for the study, the contact information about a bunch of working individuals was acquired from Lahore School of Economics Alumni Affairs Department Database. Additionally, the use of personal and referenced contacts was made to substantiate the sample size. Information such as company name, designation, telephone and email addresses of around 150 individuals working at different organizations were gathered. The representatives of various organizations were informally interviewed on the telephone to discuss the availability of i-deals (e.g., in the form of flexible schedules and overseas MBA education) mainly to identify the key organizations. Based on these interviews, a list of 67 organizations were generated, who were actively practicing i-deals under investigation (i.e., schedule flexibility and developmental i-deals). These interviews were used to identify target organizations because there were no published data available on the use of i-deals by the organizations in the context of Pakistan.

The resource person in each organization was sent a request email with the twofold aim. First, to inform them that (a) the data collection is for academic research purpose only, (b) their potential participation is completely voluntary, and (c) the survey responses will remain confidential and only disseminated in a summative, not in evaluative form. Second, to authorize permission from the organization's authoritative bodies to administer the survey and share the up-to-date data on potential respondents working in the organization. To increase the participation rate, the

reminder emails were sent, and telephone calls were made. The contact persons were also promised and presented later a detailed benchmark report on the effectiveness of i-deals in the organizations. Out of 67, the representatives from 31 organizations responded to email (participation rate 46%) with an agreement to collaborate in the research and provided preliminary employment data. Before administering the survey, a copy of the survey questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter, was sent to the resource person for reviewing purposes.

Once the list of organizations to be approached for the research study was available to use, the processing of participants begun by using the employment information received from selected organizations. Based on attained employment information, the individuals at key managerial positions were identified. The researcher conducted a survey on-site during the working hours of each of the selected organizations. The previously identified managers were requested to take part in the study upon receiving a brief overview of the research study. Each manager was instructed to invite his or her direct reports (subordinate employees) to participate in the study. The workgroup was defined as 3 (minimum) to 5 (maximum) employees reporting to the same manager (Anand et al., 2018; Cohen & Bailey, 1997).

Employees and their managers were hand-delivered separate printed surveys directly by the researcher. It was done without the involvement of the organizations' human resource department to ensure complete anonymity of the respondents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The researcher ensured that both types of participants were separately sitting while administering the survey to avoid any pressure of being watched. The personalized coding was used to match the employees'

responses with their managers' ratings. The respondents were given sufficient time to fill the questionnaire, and the surveys were collected back when they were willing to submit. During the survey, the researcher's intervention was kept minimal to steer away from any influence. The participants were allowed to respond in the non-contrived setting, as the natural environment is preferred to analyze organizational employees (Goodman & Speer, 2015). In total, 301 dyad questionnaires were collected. After discarding questionnaires for missing data, a final useable sample of 282 dyad responses was attained.

3.5. Instrumentation

One of the most widely used instruments in quantitative studies, self-administrated survey questionnaire (Rowley, 2014), was employed in this study to collect data from respondents. The questionnaire is a useful instrument for determining how employees feel and view their job, therefore providing information that helped derive hypotheses about how employees react upon receiving i-deals (Spector, 1994). The questionnaire had a cover page attached to it, designed as per the recommendations of Yu and Cooper (1983). The cover page details the brief introduction of the topic of research study, the purpose of the study, academic details, and affiliation of the researcher to the institution, an invitation to participate, a statement on confidentiality and anonymity of responses. According to Yu and Cooper (1983), including such details in the cover page would increase the response rate and ignite the respondents' interest in participating in the study. The cover page is attached in Appendix A.

Following the cover page, a questionnaire was attached, designed while endorsing the best practices suggested by Oppenheim (2000) and Fowler Jr (2013). The questionnaire consisted of a structured design constituting all close-ended questions (except for few control variables) to measure the variables of the conceptual model. The questionnaire constitutes two parts, where the first part (α) was completed by the employees, and the second part (β) was completed by their managers under whom supervision they were working. The first part of the questionnaire (employee rated) consists of three sections. Section 1 was directed toward employees' demographic information such as gender, age, tenure, educational background, and industry. Section 2 asked employees to rate the perceptions of their i-deals, their identification with the organization, and their perceptions about the opportunities of i-deals availability to their coworkers in their organization. The second part (β) of the questionnaire (manager rated) consisted of two sections. In Section 1, managers of the employees were requested to provide their demographic data regarding the gender, age, tenure, educational background, and industry (for additional information only), and in Section 2, they were asked to rate the promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors of selected subordinate employees.

3.5.1. Measures

The questionnaire held widely used validated measures for the constructs available in the literature. The details of the measures used in this research study are given below:

1. Employees' idiosyncratic deals: To measure employees' perceptions about their task and developmental i-deals and schedule flexibility i-deals, the nine-item scale developed by Rosen et al. (2013) was used. The first six items captured the perceptions about the task and developmental i-deals, and rest three items captured the perceptions about schedule flexibility i-deals. This scale was a robust choice as it is widely used by the earlier i-deals research studies (e.g., Ho & Kong, 2015; Oostrom, Pennings, & Bal, 2016; Rofcanin et al., 2018). Sample items: I have successfully asked for extra responsibilities that take advantage of the skills that I bring to the job (task and development); my supervisor considers my personal needs when making my work schedule (schedule flexibility).
2. Promotive voice: To measure managers' perceptions about their employees' promotive voice behaviors in the organization, the five-item scale developed by Liang et al. (2012) was used. Sample item: (This employee) Proactively develops and makes suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
3. Prohibitive voice: To measure managers' perceptions of their employees' prohibitive voice behaviors in the organization, the five-item scale developed by Liang et al. (2012) was used. Sample item: (This employee) Speaks up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
4. Organizational identification: To measure employees' perceptions about their level of identification with the organization, the five-item scale developed by Blader and

Tyler (2009) adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992) was used. Sample item: Working at my company is important to the way that I think of myself as a person.

5. I-deal opportunity for coworkers: To measure employees' perceptions about the opportunities of i-deals available to coworkers in the organization, the two-item scale developed for measuring comparable future i-deal opportunity by Lai et al. (2009) was adapted. Given that the literature of scale development stresses the use of broader scales having more than two items (Clark & Watson, 1995), Guerrero and Challiol-Jeanblanc (2016) added two more items to Lai et al. (2009) scale. Thus, a pool of four validated items for measuring i-deal opportunity for coworkers was used in this study. Sample item: My colleagues can have the same special individual arrangements as me if they ask.

6. Control variables: In line with the past voice literature (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Tangirala & Ramnujam, 2008), the current study controlled for several extraneous variables to rule out potential confounding effects and other alternative explanations (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016). Organizational research studies use control variables for (a) purification, (b) accounting other useful variables, and (c) improving research model incrementally (Carlson & Wu, 2012). Therefore, this study also controlled for several characteristics of employees such as gender (female = 1 and male = 0), since there is an indication of a positive correlation between being male and voicing behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), age (in years) since older employees have been found to engage in more voicing behaviors (Detert & Burris, 2007), tenure (in years) since employees with more experience have been seen more comfortable about speaking up (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998;

Tangirala & Ramnujam, 2008), and educational background (less than bachelor's degree = 1; bachelor's degree = 2; postgraduate degree = 3), since more highly educated employees have been shown to be more likely to be involved in voicing behaviors (Benson & Brown, 2010).

Unless indicated otherwise, all survey items were measured on a five-point Likert scale with varying anchors, for example, 1 symbolizing 'strongly disagree' to 5 symbolizing 'strongly agree' (Likert, 1932). The scholars contented the use of response scales with alternatives between four and seven (Lozano, García-Cueto, & Muñiz, 2008). It is because scales with fewer than four alternatives do not hold acceptable reliability and validity in most cases, and scales having more than seven alternatives also show scarcely large psychometric properties (Lozano et al., 2008). Nonetheless, this study employed a five-point scale, recognizing that it is reasonably comprehensive in terms of alternatives for respondents (Marton-Williams, 1986) thus increasing the response rate and response quality (Babakus & Mangold, 1992). An overview of the operationalization of variables is given in table 10, and the complete questionnaire (α & β) is attached in Appendix B.

Table 10

Operationalization of variables

Variable	Nature of the variable	No. of items	Source(s)
Employees' i-deals	Independent	9	Rosen et al. (2013)
Items:			
1. I have successfully asked for extra responsibilities that take advantage of the skills that I bring to the job (task and developmental i-deals).			

-
2. At my request, my supervisor has assigned me tasks that better develop my skills (task and developmental i-deals).
 3. I have negotiated with my supervisor for tasks that better fit my personality, skills, and abilities (task and developmental i-deals).
 4. My supervisor has offered me opportunities to take on desired responsibilities outside of my formal job requirements (task and developmental i-deals).
 5. In response to my distinctive contributions, my supervisor has granted me more flexibility in how I complete my job (task and developmental i-deals).
 6. Following my initial appointment, my supervisor assigned me to a desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities (task and developmental i-deals).
 7. My supervisor considers my personal needs when making my work schedule (schedule flexibility i-deals).
 8. At my request, my supervisor has accommodated my off-the-job demands when assigning my work hours (schedule flexibility i-deals).
 9. Outside of formal leave and sick time, my supervisor has allowed me to take time off to attend to non-work-related issues (schedule flexibility i-deals).

Promotive voice	Dependent	5	Liang et al. (2012)
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Items:

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1. Proactively develops and makes suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
 2. Proactively suggests new projects, which are beneficial to the work unit.
 3. Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.
 4. Proactively voices out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
 5. Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.

Prohibitive voice	Dependent	5	Liang et al. (2012)
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Items:

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1. Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
 2. Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
 3. Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.
-

-
4. Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.
 5. Proactively reports coordination problems in the workplace to the management.

Organizational identification	Mediator	5	Blader and Tyler (2009)
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Items:

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1. Working at my company is important to the way that I think of myself as a person.
 2. When someone praises the accomplishments of my company, it feels like a personal compliment to me.
 3. When someone from outside criticizes my company, it feels like a personal insult.
 4. The place I work says a lot about who I am as a person.
 5. I think I am similar to the people who work at my company.

I-deal opportunity for coworkers	Moderator	4	Guerrero and Challiol-Jeanblanc (2016)
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Items:

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1. My colleagues can have the same special individual arrangements as me if they ask.
 2. My colleagues can get special individual arrangements if they are in need of them.
 3. My coworkers have the opportunity to negotiate their working conditions if they need it.
 4. My organization makes efforts to satisfy my coworkers' requests for special individual arrangements.

Note: Unless indicated otherwise, all survey items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The impetus of this chapter is to verify the objectives of the research and to answer the research questions empirically. More specifically, this chapter is directed towards substantiating the hypotheses with the actual data. In doing so, the data has been first screened through various indicators to ensure its quality for further investigation. The screening process has been presented in detail in this chapter. Following this, the principal statistical analysis, mainly evaluating the measurement and structural model, is described. The chapter concludes with a summary of the results of the hypotheses.

4.1. Data management and preliminary analysis

The data were mainly managed and analyzed using statistical software SPSS (statistical package for social sciences) version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) and its added module called AMOS (analysis of moment structure) version 23 (Arbuckle, 2014). Before the principal statistical analysis begins, the data were subjected to multiple screening indicators such as missing values, normality, outliers, multicollinearity, descriptive statistics and correlation analysis to ensure that it fulfills the statistical requirements and can be used for hypothesis testing.

First, the data set was checked for missing data. Missing data refer to the data value not recorded for the variable in the observation of interest (Hill, 1997). The problem of missing data can (a) reduce the power of the statistical procedures, (b) cause

bias in the estimation of parameters, (c) reduces the representativeness of the sample, and (d) complicate the analysis of the study (Acuña & Rodriguez, 2004). Hence, the missing data analysis was critical to be performed. However, no evidence of missing value is detected in the current data set.

Second, the normality of the data was analyzed. The normal distribution of the data expresses that the population from which the sample has been drawn is normally distributed (Ahsanullah, Kibria, & Shakil, 2014). For the main statistical procedures, the normality of the data was critical, as the validity of statistics is dependent on the distribution of the data (Lumley, Diehr, Emerson, & Chen, 2002). Thus, the normality of the data was checked using the most widely used indicators that are, skewness and kurtosis of the data. The skewness of the data demonstrates the degree of distortion from the symmetric bell-shaped curve of normal distribution (Cain, Zhang, & Yuan, 2017). The distribution is symmetrical when the values are uniformly distributed around the mean (Joanes & Gill, 1998).

Kurtosis whereas represents the extent to which the peak or convexity of the distribution curve deviates from the shape of a normal distribution (DeCarlo, 1997). It is mainly a measure of outliers present in the distribution (Velasco-Tapia, 1998). The data are normally distributed when the test statistics of both skewness and kurtosis fall between $[-1 \text{ to } +1]$ (Bulmer, 1979). The normality test results showed that all the variables of the current study have skewness and kurtosis values within the acceptable ranges, as given in table 11. For instance, the values of skewness of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are $-.754$, $-.830$, $-.863$, $-.723$, and $-.538$, respectively. The values of

kurtosis of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are .563, .236, .382, .236, and .988, respectively. Thus, it can be deduced that all the study variables are normally distributed.

Table 11

Normal distribution analysis

Construct	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Employee i-deal	-.754	.145	.563	.289
Promotive voice	-.830	.145	.236	.289
Prohibitive voice	-.863	.145	.382	.289
Organizational identification	-.723	.145	.263	.289
I-deal opportunity for coworkers	-.538	.145	.988	.289

Note: SE = Standard error.

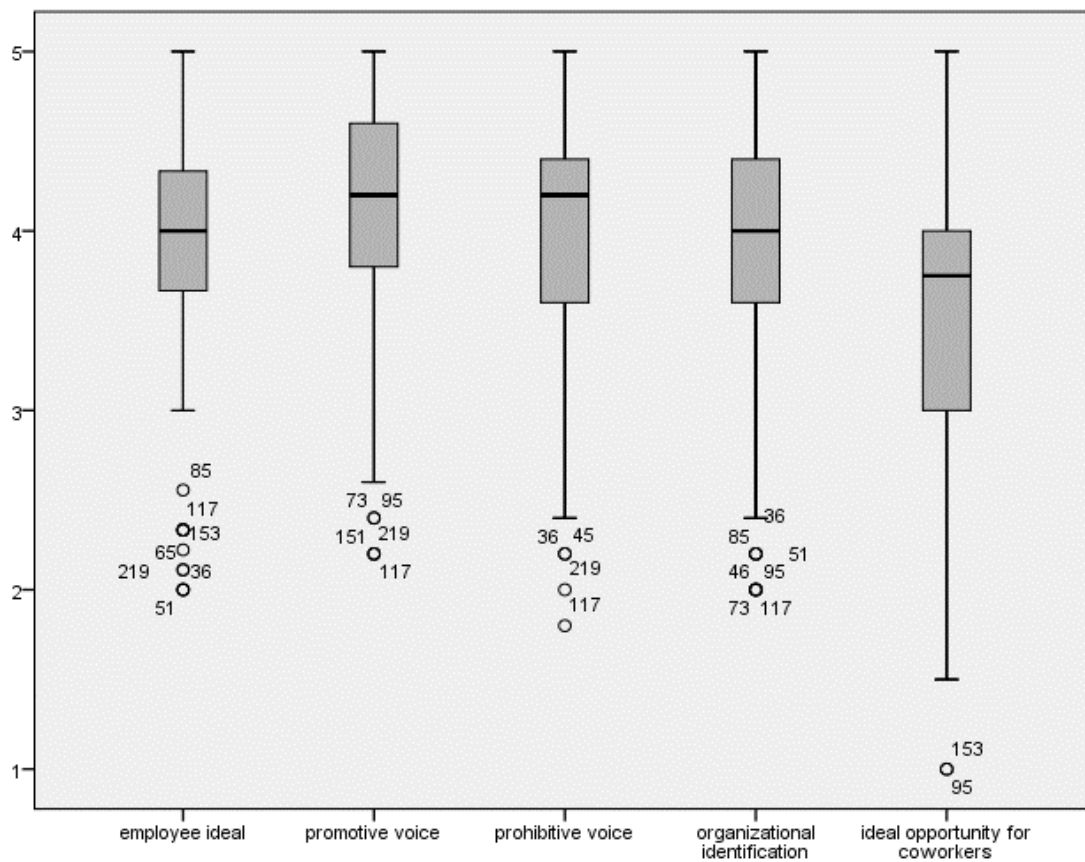
In order to further ensure the normal distribution of the data, the normal P-P and Q-Q plots were generated. The plots of study variables are given in figures I, II, III, IV, and V attached in Appendix C. In all variables, the dots representing observed data lie closer to the solid line representing expected dots of normal distribution (Field, 2013).

Third, the data was checked for outliers. An outlier is a data point that differs significantly from other observations (Hawkins, 1980). The outliers in the data can cause serious problems in the statistical analyses (Wilcox, 2005); therefore, it was necessary to detect and treat possible outliers in the data. To identify any outliers in the data, the box plots were generated. The plots clearly spot no outliers, as illustrated in figure 3. Additionally, the histograms were also extracted to confirm the absence of

outliers in the data. Histograms of all the study variables also confirm no existence of outliers in the data, as given in figures VI, VII, VIII, IX, and X attached in Appendix D.

Figure 3

Outliers analysis



Fourth, the multicollinearity among the study variables was checked. Multicollinearity is a state in which inter-correlations among independent variables are higher (Alin, 2010). The higher correlations among variables make it difficult to assess the individual predictors' relative importance in explaining the variation in the dependent variable (Yoo, Mayberry, Bae, & Singh, 2014). Multicollinearity was detected through tolerance and its reciprocal called variance inflation factor (VIF). To

validate the issue of multicollinearity among variables, the test statistic of the former should be > 0.1 (Craney & Surles, 2002), and the test statistic of later should be < 10 (Miles, 2014), respectively. Fortunately, the test statistics of both tolerance and VIF for all given independent variables fall within the acceptable ranges, as presented in table 12. As the values of tolerance of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are .570, .554, and .719, respectively. The values of VIF of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are 1.754, 1.805, and 1.391, respectively. Hence, there is no sign of multicollinearity among given variables.

Table 12

Multicollinearity analysis

Construct	Tolerance	VIF
Employee i-deal	.570	1.754
Organizational identification	.554	1.805
I-deal opportunity for coworkers	.719	1.391

Note: VIF = Variance inflation factor.

Fifth, the descriptive and correlation analyses were undertaken to develop a broader understanding of the data. Means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations are presented in table 13. The mean values of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are 3.9413 (standard deviation .64443), 4.0773 (standard deviation .62463), 3.9738 (standard deviation .60932), 3.9589 (standard deviation .65719), and 3.6312 (standard deviation .66735), respectively. Furthermore, correlation analysis was critical in order

to identify the strength of associations between all variables (Zou, Tuncali, & Silverman, 2003). In this, the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) indicates the strength of correlations among variables where its range is specified from [-1 to +1] (Schober, Boer, & Schwarte, 2018). A coefficient of -1 represents a perfect negative linear relationship between variables given ($p < 0.05$), 0 shows no relationship, and $+1$ depicts a perfect positive relationship given ($p < 0.05$) (Mukaka, 2012). The correlation matrix shows positive and moderate correlations among all studied variables as all have correlations are < 0.7 (Pallant, 2007) and have $p < 0.01$. The correlation between employee ideals and promotive voice is $.675$. The correlation between employee ideals and prohibitive voice is $.652$. The correlation between employee ideals and organizational identification is $.630$. The correlation between employee ideals and i-deal opportunity for coworkers is $.475$. The correlation between promotive voice and prohibitive voice is $.702$. The correlation between promotive voice and organizational identification is $.661$. The correlation between promotive voice and i-deal opportunity for coworkers is $.434$. The correlation between prohibitive voice and organizational identification is $.617$. The correlation between prohibitive voice and i-deal opportunity for coworkers is $.352$. The correlation between organizational identification and i-deal opportunity for coworkers is $.489$. Thus, supporting the further analysis of the underlying mechanisms.

Table 13

Descriptive statistics and correlation estimates

	Construct	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1	Employee i-deal	3.9413	.64443				
2	Promotive voice	4.0773	.62463	$.675^{**}$			

3	Prohibitive voice	3.9738	.60932	.652**	.702**		
4	Organizational identification	3.9589	.65719	.630**	.661**	.617**	
5	I-deal opportunity for coworkers	3.6312	.66735	.475**	.434**	.352**	.489**

Note: SD = Standard deviation. (**) = $p < 0.01$. Test is 2-tailed. Number of cases = 282. All items are measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Lastly, before proceeding with the data, it is important to summarize the respondents' demographic details to understand the characteristics of the participants. The demographic data of the participants showed that of 282 employees, 73.8% were males, while 26.2% were females. The average age of the employees was 27 years. The average tenure of the employees in the organization was four years. In terms of terminal degree, 15% of employees had less than a bachelor's degree, 46.8% had a bachelor's degree, and 38.2% earned a postgraduate degree. Nevertheless, of 282 supervisors, 83.3% were males, while 16.7% were females. The average age of the supervisors was 38 years. The average tenure of the supervisors in the organization was 10 years. In terms of terminal degree, 39.7% had a bachelor's degree, while 60.3% earned a postgraduate degree.

The primary analysis of the data ensured its quality and improved its understanding; thus, the data were channeled to main statistical procedures and analyses.

4.2. Structural equation modeling

For the principal statistical analysis of the data, the proposed model was subjected to Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). SEM is a multivariate statistical analysis technique widely used in behavioral sciences to analyze the complex structural relationships among studied variables (Hox & Kreft, 1994). It is a hybrid of factor analysis (confirmatory factor analysis) (Knott & Bartholomew, 1999) and path analysis (multiple regression analysis) (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013). In the former analysis, the structural relationships among observed variables and latent variables are analyzed (Byrne, 2001), and in the later, the structural relationships among multiple exogenous (independent) and endogenous (dependent) variables are analyzed simultaneously (Lomax & Schumacker, 2004). Thus, the defining feature of SEM is that both the measurement and the structural model can be evaluated (Kline, 2015). As per the objective of the study, to determine the impact of employee i-deals on their different types of voice behaviors through organizational identification as an intermitting process, the SEM seemed a suitable approach. The sample size of 282 responses alongside facilitates the employment of SEM (Iacobucci, 2010; Kline, 2015).

4.2.1. Measurement model evaluation

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested that the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) should be conducted before testing the structural model of the study, as it determines how well a hypothesized measurement model based on prior knowledge or theory matches the reality that is, the sample data (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, CFA was performed using a maximum likelihood estimation to explore the factorial

structures of the measures evaluated by the respondents and to confirm the independence of the model variables (Byrne, 2001). CFA was mainly intended to evaluate model fit and to establish the validity and reliability of the multi-item constructs. In the CFA analysis, the five-factor model, including all five variables: employee i-deals, promotive and prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers, were evaluated. All these constructs were specified as latent constructs represented by their corresponding items, where each item was allowed to load on its particular construct only. It is essential that factor loadings of all the items that are used to measure the latent constructs should be $\geq .50$ ($p < 0.05$) to be considered for further analysis (Hair et al., 2009). The results show that the nine items of employee ideals hold the factor loadings .697, .648, .610, .664, .717, .687, .698, .722, and .680. The five items of promotive voice hold the factor loadings .739, .748, .745, .758, and .746. The five items of prohibitive voice hold the factor loadings .500, .642, .628, .627, and .772. The five items of organizational identification hold the factor loadings of .673, .683, .709, .736, and .663. The four items of i-deal opportunity for coworkers hold the factor loadings .821, .705, .764, and .830. Thus, the CFA analysis confirms that all the items loaded significantly ($> .610$) on their respective factors, as given in table 14.

Table 14

Factorial analysis

Construct	Item	Factor loading
Employee i-deals	EID1	.697***
	EID2	.648***
	EID3	.610***
	EID4	.664***

	EID5	.717***
	EID6	.687***
	EID7	.698***
	EID8	.722***
	EID9	.680***
Promotive voice	PMV1	.739***
	PMV2	.748***
	PMV3	.745***
	PMV4	.758***
	PMV5	.746***
Prohibitive voice	PHV1	.500***
	PHV2	.642***
	PHV3	.628***
	PHV4	.627***
	PHV5	.772***
Organizational identification	OID1	.673***
	OID2	.683***
	OID3	.709***
	OID4	.736***
	OID5	.663***
I-deal opportunity for coworkers	CID1	.821***
	CID2	.705***
	CID3	.764***
	CID4	.830***

Note: EID = Employee i-deals. PMV = Promotive voice. PHV = Prohibitive voice. OID = Organizational identification. CID = I-deal opportunity for coworkers. (***) = $p < 0.001$.

The measurement models of the given constructs were examined using several goodness-of-fit indicators to gauge whether they have an acceptable model fit (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Hu & Bentler (1999) and Kline (2015) suggest that model

fit should be evaluated on multiple fit indices, as each index has strengths and weaknesses. In line with conventions, the model was evaluated on a set of fit indices recommended by Hu and Bentler (1998) to assess the adequacy of the model (Bentler & Bonett, 1980) and to determine how well the parameter estimates reproduced the observed relationships of the latent variables (Hoyle, 2000). It included absolute fit indices that are chi-square (χ^2) / degrees of freedom (df) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and relative fit indices that are, comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). In this, the χ^2/df should be < 3 (Kline, 1998), the RMSEA should be < 0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992), and the CFI and TLI should be > 0.90 for a measurement model to be considered a good fit with the data (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2015). These fit indices are recommended to use in maximum likelihood estimations because they are sensitive to model misspecifications (Fan & Sivo, 2007). The analysis of the hypothesized model suggests a good fit with the data, communicating that the measurement scales used here hold acceptable psychometric properties ($\chi^2/df = 2.007$, RMSEA = .060; CFI = .914, TLI = .904).

The study measures were examined for reliability before taking them to structural model testing as prescribed by Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2011). Reliability refers to the extent to which a measurement is consistent in what it intends to measure (Bollen, 1989) or stability of measurement over a variety of conditions under which the same results should be obtained (Nunnally, 1978). Although the reliability of scales was augmented by the use of multi-item scales (Neuman, 2000), it was further ensured by using various statistical indicators available for the assessment (Drost, 2011).

The typical method to estimate test reliability in behavioral research includes internal consistency (Henson, 2001). Internal consistency concerns the reliability of the test components and measures the consistency within the instrument in terms of how well a set of items measures a particular behavior within the test (Streiner, 2003). A most popular method to test the internal consistency in behavioral sciences includes Cronbach's alpha (α) where its value should be $> .70$ (Santos, 1999), and an indicator of composite reliability (CR) that is, Joreskog's rho (Werts, Linn, & Jöreskog, 1974), where its value should be $> .70$ (Hair et al., 2011). In this study, all the latent variables satisfy the reliability indicators, as given in table 15. The values of Cronbach's alpha of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are .886, .863, .782, .821, and .862, respectively. The values of composite reliability of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are .886, .863, .773, .822, and .862, respectively. Therefore, all constructs are regarded as internally consistent. Although CR can provide valuable information about the reliability of the constructs, it could not capture the amount of variance attached to the measurement error (Steenkamp & Raisinghani, 2012). It necessitated the tests of validity.

Table 15

Reliability analysis

Construct	α	CR
Employee i-deal	.886	.886
Promotive voice	.863	.863
Prohibitive voice	.782	.773
Organizational identification	.821	.822
I-deal opportunity for coworkers	.862	.862

Note: α = Cronbach's alpha. CR = Composite reliability.

Validity refers to the accuracy of an assessment; that is, the measurement is measuring what it is intended to measure. (Bell et al., 2018). A most common method to gauge the validity of the measurement is to test the construct validity (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). Construct validity refers to how well a concept – that is, a construct – has been transformed into a functioning and operating reality (Trochim, 2006). To substantiate construct validity involves accumulating evidence for two types of construct validity that is, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Former recommend testing for convergence across different measures or manipulations of the same thing, and later suggest, testing for divergence between measures and manipulations of related but conceptually distinct things (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

Convergent validity was measured through average variance extracted (AVE), where its value, for a given construct, if $> .50$ (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), would indicate that the measurement error is less than the variance captured by the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In other words, the construct would be explaining more than half of the variance of its indicators (Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014). The results presented in table 16 show that the AVE values of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are .564, .558, .409, .581, and .611, respectively. Hence, the constructs of the given study show reasonable and acceptable convergent validity. Though prohibitive voice held AVE slightly below the threshold, however, it has been proved reliable earlier; thus, under this information, it was carried for further analysis.

The discriminant validity was measured through average shared variance (ASV). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the ASV of the construct should be less than AVE (calculated earlier for convergent validity), to justify the concerns of discriminant validity. The current analysis given in table 16 shows that all the constructs have ASV less than AVE. The values of the ASV of employee ideals, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, organizational identification, and i-deal opportunity for coworkers are .375, .393, .355, .363, and .194, respectively. It means all the constructs in the measurement model can explain their own measures better than any other construct in the model, which sets a piece of evidence for the given model's discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 16

Validity analysis

Construct	AVE	ASV
Employee i-deal	.564	.375
Promotive voice	.558	.393
Prohibitive voice	.409	.355
Organizational identification	.581	.363
I-deal opportunity for coworkers	.611	.194

Notes: AVE = Average variance extracted. ASV = Average shared variance.

It is important to note here that a prevalent threat to construct validity is common method variance; thus, it was also necessary to detect and treat the common method variance to fully ensure the validity of the measurement (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

In survey research, generally, the common method variance is of great concern (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). Common method variance (CMV) is defined as the overlap in variance between two variables ascribed to the type of measurement instrument used rather than due to a relationship between the underlying constructs (Avolio & Yammarino, 1991). The respondents might have the propensity to respond in a consistent manner, and this propensity could lead to false correlations (Chang et al., 2010). Therefore, CMV was important to be addressed since, the constructs were a concrete and externally verifiable phenomenon (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2008). There are various approaches that can be employed to mitigate the threat of common method bias and were used in this research. For example, the data were collected from respondents, while maintaining a higher level of anonymity of their responses. Additionally, the data were collected from multiple sources such that the data for dependent variables was collected from supervisors and the data for independent, moderating, and mediating variables was collected from subordinates. Therefore, the presence of common method variance was minimal; nonetheless, it remained a possibility as the data for independent, moderating, and mediating variables was collected from the same source at the same time thus, CMV must also be assessed post hoc (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

In this particular case, to ensure the robustness of the employed method, Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003) using Exploratory Factor Analysis (Malhotra et al., 2006) was conducted, which can detect the degree of variance explicated by a single factor (Harman, 1970). If the test suggests a single factor or if the first factor accounts for more than 50% variance, it would be indicative of serious common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The results

reveal that five factors emerged with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The five unrotated factors together accounted for 53.315% of variance where the first factor alone explained only 37.889% of the variance. It can be deduced from the results that most of the extracted variance has not been captured by the first factor alone (> 50%), but, the other factors also represent a significant amount of variance. Thus, while common method bias cannot be ruled out as a contributing factor in the current research, it does not appear to be a significant factor in confounding interpretations of the results.

Therefore, satisfying the concerns of reliability and validity for all the constructs used in the study, the data were subjected to structural model evaluation.

4.2.2. Structural model evaluation

Prior to testing the main hypotheses through SEM, the potential effect of nested data was analyzed. It is because the data may have a nested structure, as the supervisors were rating the employees' voice behaviors; thus, there was a possibility that the employees' data would have nested in supervisors' data. Sometimes this creates measurable differences between levels of analysis (Moerbeek, 2004). In this case, it would be inappropriate to rely on statistical methods that assume observations are independent (Peugh, 2010). A multilevel model, which accounts for the effect of variance at various levels, should be used when analyzing the nested data (Nezlek, 2008). If the multilevel analysis shows no significant variability between levels of analysis, results would be the same as in a single-level analysis (De Leeuw, Meijer, & Goldstein, 2008).

The nesting effect was determined by the percentage of variance attributed to manager rated outcomes (Hox, 2002). Using HLM (hierarchical linear modeling) software, the null random-intercept model was developed without any predictors to estimate the variability in the employees' promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors due to managers' rating effect. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) was calculated where it is recommended that the outcome variance should have $ICC > 10\%$ to be subjected to multilevel-level data (Bliese, 2000). On the contrary, if the variance explained by the nesting effect falls insufficient to affect the data, the simple SEM should be carried out.

A null model with a promotive voice as the outcome variable reveals an insignificant value of the variance; that is, 0.071% ($p > 0.05$) of the variance in promotive voice reside at the supervisor level (the calculation of ICC value is given in Appendix E). Similarly, when a prohibitive voice was the outcome variable, the null model test again reveals an insignificant amount of variance; that is, 1.119% ($p > 0.05$) of variance reside at the supervisor level (the calculation of ICC value is given in Appendix E). As the results show that there is an insufficient aggregation of variance across the higher level (such as supervisory level) of analysis to encourage the use of the multilevel method of analysis (Garson, 2013), the hypotheses were tested through conducting simple SEM.

In structural model testing, constructs were allowed to relate as proposed in the conceptual model such that employee i-deals were the independent variable, organizational identification was the mediator, and promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors were dependent variables, and the structural relationships between all of them

were analyzed simultaneously. The study aimed to examine the effect of employee i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice via organizational identification while controlling for employees' gender, age, tenure, and education. Consequently, the analysis leads to the assessment of the total and direct effects of employee i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice and indirect effects through organizational identification.

At first, the model fit was evaluated based on the fit indices suggested by Hu and Bentler (1998). It included absolute fit indices that are chi-square (χ^2) / Degrees of freedom (df) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and relative fit indices that are, comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). In this, the χ^2/df should be < 3 (Kline, 1998), the RMSEA should be < 0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992), and the CFI and TLI should be > 0.90 for a measurement model to be considered a good fit with the data (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2015). The SEM analysis suggests a good fit of the hypothesized model with the data as evident by the model fit indices ($\chi^2/df = 1.699$, RMSEA = .050; CFI = .933, TLI = .922).

Next, (1) the significance of the total effect (c) of employee i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice, (2) the significance of the direct effect (c') of employee i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice, and (3) the significance of the indirect effect (ab) of employee i-deals on the promotive and prohibitive voice in the presence of organizational identification were examined (where ' a ' represents the path between the independent variable and mediating variable and ' b ' indicates the path between the mediating variable and the dependent variables) (MacKinnon, 2008). The total effect (c) in this analysis is given by $c = c' + ab$ (MacKinnon, 2008). To evaluate

the hypothesized effects, the parameter estimates (β) were generated, where the estimate should be significant ($p \leq .05$) to validate the effect (Field, 2013). Table 17 presents the details of the structural regression model analysis.

The results describe the significant total effect of employee i-deals on promotive voice ($\beta = .789, p = .001$) and prohibitive voice ($\beta = .784, p = .001$), as given in table 17. The direct effect of employee i-deals on (a) promotive ($H_{1a}, \beta = .381, p = .031$) and (b) prohibitive ($H_{1b}, \beta = .383, p = .039$) voice behaviors is positive and significant, as depicted in table 17 and illustrated in figure 4. It confirms the claim that the employee i-deals are positively associated with (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice of employees. Hence, H_{1a} and H_{1b} are supported by the data.

For an indirect effect analysis, the two-step approach communicated by Preacher et al., (2007) was followed, that is, (1) verifying the significance of the association between the independent variable and mediating variable ($X \rightarrow M$) and then, (2) testing the significance between mediating variable and dependent variable ($M \rightarrow Y$). Given the details in figure 4 and table 17, the path from employee i-deals to the organizational identification ($H_2, \beta = .720, p = .001$) is significant, validating H_2 stating employee i-deals are positively associated with organizational identification. Also, table 17 is presenting, and figure 4 is illustrating that the paths from organizational identification to (a) promotive ($H_{3a}, \beta = .567, p = .001$) and (b) prohibitive ($H_{3b}, \beta = .557, p = .001$) voice behaviors are significant, supporting H_{3a} and H_{3b} respectively. Nonetheless, it is specifying, organizational identification is positively associated with both (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice of employees. Henceforth, the indirect effect of employee i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice

through organizational identification was calculated.

To determine the significance of the indirect effects, a Monte Carlo method, along with 5,000 iterations as recommended by MacKinnon, Coxé, and Baraldi (2012), was used. This method relies on the significance of the product of the coefficients (ab) approach (where ‘ a ’ represents the path between the independent variable and mediating variable, and ‘ b ’ indicates the path between the mediating variable and the dependent variables) (MacKinnon, 2008). The distribution of product method was used to calculate 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals with a 5% probability of error and bootstrapped percentile to validate the product (ab) coefficients. Bootstrapping has become one of the most preferred and reliable approaches for testing indirect effects (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). In this, the estimated confidence interval for the indirect effect through bootstrapping should not include the value of zero, and bootstrapped percentile should be significant ($p \leq .05$) to establish the indirect effect of employee i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice via organizational identification (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao, Jr, & Chen, 2010).

The results of indirect effects analysis are summarized in table 17 and illustrated in figure 4, dictating in the presence of organizational identification, the indirect effect of employee i-deals on (a) promotive (H_{4a} , $\beta = .408$, $p = .001$), and (b) prohibitive (H_{4b} , $\beta = .401$, $p = .001$) voice behaviors are significant. The indirect effect being significant confirms that mediation is present (Zhao et al., 2010). Therefore, the data supports the fact that the organizational identification mediates the relationship of employee i-deals and (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice behaviors. Hence, the results are consistent with H_{4a} and H_{4b} .

Figure 4

Illustration of direct, indirect, and interactional effects

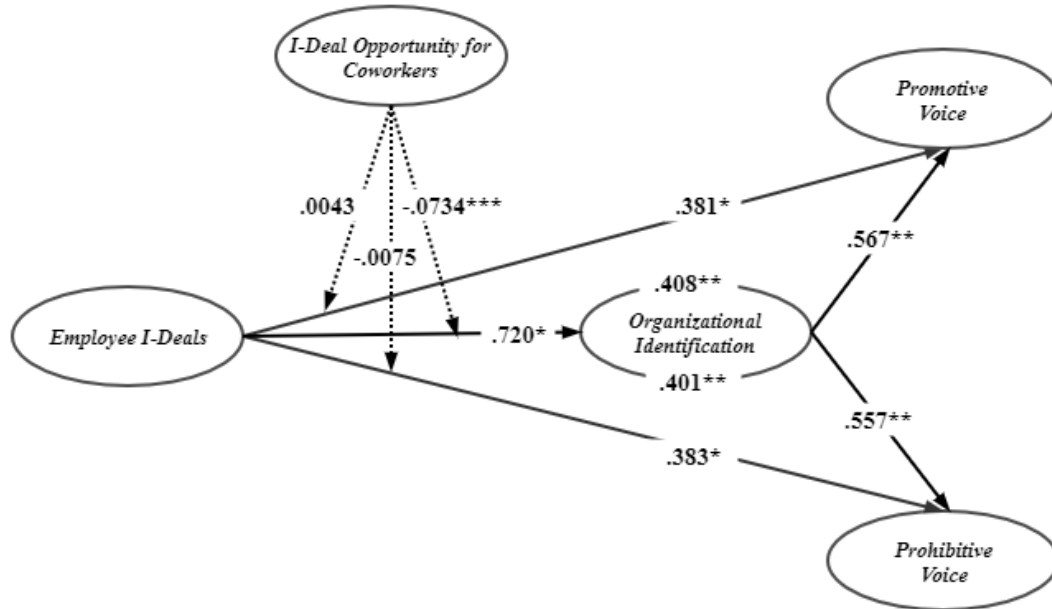


Table 17

Structural regression model analysis (total, direct, and indirect effects)

	β	SE	CI (95%)		p-value
			LB	UB	
Total effect(s)					
Employee i-deals → Promotive voice	.789**	.039	.720	.850	.001
Employee i-deals → Prohibitive voice	.784**	.044	.705	.851	.001
Direct effect(s)					
Employee i-deals → Promotive voice	.381*	.148	.140	.562	.031
Employee i-deals → Prohibitive voice	.383*	.159	.122	.570	.039

Employee i-deals → Organizational Identification	.720*	.050	.631	.794	.001
Organizational Identification → Promotive voice	.567**	.147	.371	.788	.001
Organizational Identification → Prohibitive voice	.557**	.160	.343	.795	.001
Indirect effect(s)					
Employee i-deals → Organizational Identification → Promotive voice	.408**	.103	.268	.622	.001
Employee i-deals → Organizational Identification → Prohibitive voice	.401**	.140	.249	.628	.001

Note: β = Beta (standardized coefficient). SE = Standard error. CI = Confidence interval. LB = Lower bound. UB = Upper bound. (*) = $p < 0.05$. (**) = $p < 0.01$ respectively. All tests are 2-tailed. Size of bootstrap sample for calculation of the indirect effect = 5000. Values of indirect estimates are standardized.

In order to determine the degree of mediation, the approach proposed by Zhao et al. (2010) was followed. Accordingly, the direct effect (c') of the independent variable on the dependent variable in the presence of a mediating variable and the indirect effect (ab) of the independent variable on the dependent variable via mediating variable were analyzed. In line with the norms (Zhao et al., 2010), (1) if both the direct effects (c') and the indirect effects (ab) are different from zero or else are significant ($p \leq .05$), and also, both of these effects exhibit the same direction of relationships, the mediation is said to be complementary, (2) if both direct and indirect effects are significant but exhibit different direction of relationships, the mediation is said to be competitive and (3) if only indirect effects are different from zero or else are significant

($p \leq .05$), the mediation is said to be indirect only mediation. In the given results, as discussed earlier, the direct effect of employee i-deals on (a) promotive (H_{1a} , $\beta = .381, p = .031$) and (b) prohibitive (H_{1b} , $\beta = .383, p = .039$) voice in the presence of organizational identification is significant. Also, the indirect effect of employee i-deals on (a) promotive (H_{4a} , $\beta = .408, p = .001$), and (b) prohibitive (H_{4b} , $\beta = .401, p = .001$) voice via organizational identification is significant. Importantly, both direct and indirect effects are presenting the same direction of relationships. Thus, the results report complementary mediation of organizational identification in the relationship of employee deals and promotive and prohibitive voice.

For an interaction effect analysis, the recently introduced PROCESS macros by Hayes (2017) were employed. PROCESS macros are a resampling method that uses an OLS regression-based path analytic framework for estimating interactional effects (Bolin, 2014). It is one of the most rigorous approaches for moderation analysis (Kisbu-Sakarya, MacKinnon, & Miočević, 2014) and a robust method for moderate sample sizes (Preacher et al., 2007). In doing so, while making use of the macros for model 8 (Hayes, 2017), a total of 5,000 bootstrap iterations as recommended by MacKinnon, Coxé, and Baraldi (2012) were performed. This method relies on the significance of the effect of the interaction term (XW), constituting an independent variable (X) and moderator (W), on mediating variable (M) and on the dependent variable (Y) (Hayes, 2017).

Thus, the analysis provides a valuable evaluation on variation in the effect of the employee i-deals on organizational identification (as hypothesized in H_5) and on (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice (as hypothesized in H_{6a} and H_{6b} respectively) due

to the presence of i-deal opportunity for coworkers. The moderation impact will be confirmed if the test statistics are significant ($\rho \leq .05$); or, in other words, if the estimated bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals with a 5% probability of error do not include the value of zero (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017). It is imperative to note that all predictor variables were standardized by calculating z-scores, before entering them into moderation analysis to reduce the potential multicollinearity (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004).

The results of the moderation analysis in figure 4 and table 18 indicate a significant negative interaction effect between employee i-deals and i-deal opportunity for coworkers on organizational identification ($H_5, \beta = -.0734, p = .0009$). Thus, the results are in accordance with the H_5 , confirming i-deal opportunity for coworkers moderates the relationship of employees' i-deals and organizational identification.

Table 18

Structural regression model analysis (interaction effects)

	β	SE	CI (95%)		p-value
			LB	UB	
Interaction effect(s)					
Employee i-deals * I-deal Opportunity for coworker → Organizational Identification	-.0734***	.0218	-.1163	-.0304	.0009
Employee i-deals * I-deal Opportunity for coworker → Promotive voice	.0043	.0197	-.0344	.0430	.8274
Employee i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworker → Prohibitive voice	-.0075	.0202	-.0474	.0323	.7097

Note: β = Beta (unstandardized coefficient). SE = Standard error. CI = Confidence interval. LB = Lower bound. UB = Upper bound. (***) = $p < 0.001$. All tests are 2-tailed. Size of bootstrap sample for calculation of the interactional effect = 5000. Values of interaction estimates are unstandardized.

To establish the direction and strength of moderation, the effect of employee i-deals on organizational identification was assessed at three levels of i-deal opportunity for coworkers (one standard deviation below the mean, the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean). Figure 5 illustrates the simple slope plot (Aiken & West, 1991) between employee i-deals and organizational identification for low and high perceptions of i-deal opportunity for coworkers. Table 19 shows that the unstandardized effect of employee i-deals on organizational identification is greater when the i-deal recipient perceives that coworkers have low opportunity to get i-deals ($\beta = .3312$), and is less low comparatively at higher levels of i-deal opportunity ($\beta = .1844$).

Table 19

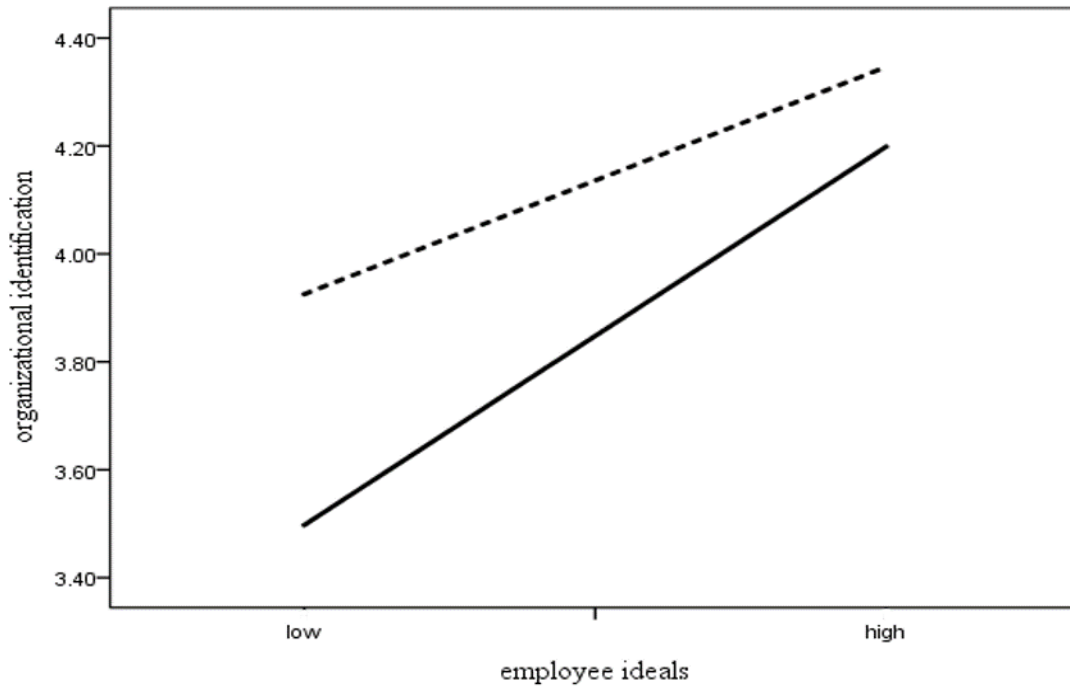
Simple slope test

	β	SE	CI (95%)		p-value
			LB	UB	
Conditional effect of employee i-deals on organizational identification					
-1 SD (-.95)	.3312***	.0335	.2652	.3972	.0000
Mean (.00)	.2578***	.0380	.1831	.3325	.0000
+1 SD (+.95)	.1844***	.0520	.0820	.2869	.0005

Note: β = beta (unstandardized coefficient). SE = standard error. CI = confidence interval. LB = lower bound. UB = upper bound. (***) = $p < 0.001$. Values of interaction estimates are unstandardized.

Figure 5

Diagrammatic representation of simple slope test



Note:

- low ideal opportunity for coworkers
- - - high ideal opportunity for coworkers

Furthermore, against predictions, the interaction of employee i-deals and i-deal opportunity for coworkers have fairly weak and insignificant effect on (a) promotive (H_{6a} , $\beta = .0043$, $p = .8274$) and (b) prohibitive (H_{6b} , $\beta = -.0075$, $p = .7097$) voice behaviors as presented in table 18 and illustrated in figure 4. Therefore, the data do not provide support for H_{6a} and H_{6b} , respectively, stating that i-deal opportunity for coworkers moderates the relationship of employees' i-deals and employees' (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice, respectively.

It is important to note that the analysis was controlled for employees' gender, age, tenure, and education. It allowed to make stronger inferences about the effects of changes in one variable on the changes in another and ruling out any alternative explanations of the results (Nielsen & Raswant, 2018). The parameter estimates of control variables while tests of total, direct, indirect, and interactional effects analysis show that none of them has any significant effect on the mediator (organizational identification) and dependent variables (promotive voice and prohibitive voice). The estimates along with their significance levels are given in tables I, II, III, and IV in Appendix F.

In addition to that, a supplementary analysis was performed to determine the possibility of industry-specific differences among results as the data were collected from multiple industries. Using industry as an exogenous variable, a test of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. However, no significant industry-specific differences can be witnessed. The statistical output is given in table V in Appendix G. Thus, the industry as a variable has not been included in the principal statistical analysis.

Following the detailed discussion on the statistics of the hypothesis testing, the next section provides a snapshot of the assessment of the hypotheses.

4.3. Hypotheses assessment and findings

Table 20

Hypotheses assessment

Hypothesis	Relationship	Actual sign	Status	Decision
H _{1a}	Employee i-deals → Promotive voice	+	Significant	Accepted
H _{1b}	Employee i-deals → Prohibitive voice	+	Significant	Accepted
H ₂	Employee i-deals → Organizational identification.	+	Significant	Accepted
H _{3a}	Organizational identification → Promotive voice	+	Significant	Accepted
H _{3b}	Organizational identification → Prohibitive voice	+	Significant	Accepted
H _{4a}	Employee i-deals → Organizational identification → Promotive voice	+	Significant	Accepted
H _{4b}	Employee i-deals → Organizational identification → Prohibitive voice	+	Significant	Accepted
H ₅	Employees' i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworkers' (low) → Organizational identification	-	Significant	Accepted
H _{6a}	Employees' i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworkers' (low) → Promotive voice	N/A	Insignificant	Rejected
H _{6b}	Employees' i-deals * I-deal opportunity for coworkers' (low) → Prohibitive voice	N/A	Insignificant	Rejected

Note: N/A = Not applicable.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter aimed to conclude the research study. The chapter provides a brief overview of research followed by a summary of research findings. Importantly, the theoretical contributions and practical implications of the research for researchers and practitioners are given in detail in this chapter. Moreover, several limitations of the study and pivotal avenues for future research are also presented. The chapter closes with the conclusion and outlook.

5.1. Summary and integration of research findings

Over a decade and a half of research suggests that i-deals are related to the attitudes and behaviors of the recipients (Anand, Vidyarthi, Liden, & Rousseau, 2010; Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008; Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, & Weigl, 2010; Liu, Lee, Hui, & Kwong Kwan, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2015). However, the research was progressing with the assumption that outcomes are universalistic and can be generalized to different contexts. Earlier empirical investigations of i-deals were missing some critical facets of behavioral outcomes such as various forms of voice behaviors that are the core representatives of job performance. It was also unclear how the effect of i-deals translates into the employees' behavioral outcomes. It was so, maybe, because scholars have adopted i-deal recipients' isolationist existence while ignoring the role of underlying mechanisms and contextual factors. Therefore, this study extended the theory of i-deals by hypothesizing the effect of employee i-deals on two recent forms of employee voice: promotive and prohibitive.

Furthermore, the postulations were made on the role of psychological attachment constituent, that is, organizational identification as a process mechanism in the relationship of employee i-deals and their voice behaviors. Finally, the premise was fabricated on the presence of third-party factors; specifically, an i-deal opportunity for a coworker was taken as a boundary condition in the correspondence of employees' i-deals and voice behaviors. In doing so, the theoretical frameworks of social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003) served as foundations.

The results of the study substantially support the integration of social identity theory and group engagement model. Precisely, H₁ predicting the direct effect of employee i-deals on (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice has been largely supported by the results. As theorized, employee i-deals have a positive and significant effect on both types of voice behaviors. These results are parallel to the findings of earlier scholars (Anand et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2015; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016), who found that i-deals have a positive and significant effect on various extra-role behaviors, for example, organizational citizenship behavior (Anand et al., 2010). Confirmation of the significant effect of employee i-deals on voice behaviors as per social identity theory in the given study is essential, as it proves beneficial consequences of i-deals for both employees and employers. The results corroborate that employees receiving favorable treatment from the employers in the form of i-deals are motivated to express positive job behaviors (Liu et al., 2013), particularly in the form of suggestions and concerns to improve the current functioning of the organization. Hence, this study clarified the vagueness in the concept of employee voice prevailing in the literature of i-deals by demonstrating the significant impact of i-deals on two distinct forms of voice. It can be

argued that when i-deals act as a source for employees to achieve the desired level of self-concept, they not only verbalize promotive content but also risk voicing prohibitive concerns. More empirical investigations with these distinctive forms of voice behaviors would generate interesting findings in the context of i-deals.

Consistent with explanations of group engagement model, the postulation of H2 on the effect of employee i-deals on organizational identification; the results validate H3 on the effect of organizational identification on (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice and finally, H4 on the mediating effect of organizational identification on the relationship of employee i-deals and (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice behaviors. Importantly, as predicted, organizational identification positively and significantly mediates the relationship of employee i-deals and both types of voice behaviors. This finding is the key insight of the study, as it substantiated the critical need for situating a psychological mechanism in explaining the relationship of i-deals and job behaviors. These results are similar to those of Ng and Feldman (2015), who found organizational trust, another psychological mechanism, as a significant mediator between the relationship of i-deals and extra-role behaviors. The results support the notion that special treatment given by the employers to their employees in the form of i-deals act as cues of care and worth which enhances their identification with the organization and encourage them to go the extra mile for the organization through the expression of extra-role behaviors (Tyler & Blader, 2003). The finding also implies that the relationship of i-deals and their outcomes cannot be assumed, however, the importance of psychological mechanism as an underlying process has to be recognized to fully exploit the benefits of i-deals by the employers. Further examination around this assumption would be worth exploring.

To unleash the boundary condition effects, the speculation of H₅ on the moderating effect of the i-deal opportunity for coworkers on the relationship of employee i-deals and organizational identification, and those of H₆ on the moderating effect of employee i-deals and (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice, were tested. As expected, the results indicate that the i-deal opportunity for coworkers has a significant moderating effect on the relationship of employee i-deals and organizational identification such that the relationship is stronger only when the i-deal opportunity for coworkers is low. Nevertheless, when employees believe that the opportunities of getting similar i-deals for coworkers are high, the link loses its strength, that is, the effect of employees' i-deals on organizational identification dampens. Two probable reasons for such findings can be inferred from within-group social comparison perspectives of social identity theory (Hogg, 2000). First, the i-deal opportunity for coworkers is likely to alter the strength of the effect of employees' i-deals on their identification with the organization. When the i-deal opportunity for coworkers is low, i-deal recipients feel more privileged in the organization while comparing themselves with coworkers, which triggers motivation to strongly associate themselves with their organization as a way to resonate with the given status of the 'star' in the organization (Korman, 2001). Second, the i-deal opportunity for coworkers may alter the direction of the effects of employees' i-deals. Perception of employees about their i-deals may lead to a variety of attitudes that reflect their self-concept, such as higher levels of organizational identification. Therefore, in a context where coworkers do not have similar i-deal opportunities, the fulfillment of self-concept through a personalized package of i-deals may translate into organizational identification rather than in a context where coworkers have similar options. It is because the expression of such an

attitude may help the i-deal recipients to validate their status of being better off in the organization.

Furthermore, contrary to the expectations, the results provide no empirical evidence on the moderating effect of the i-deal opportunity for coworkers on the relationship of employee i-deals and (a) promotive and (b) prohibitive voice. Perhaps, because intragroup social comparisons initiated by social identity (Hogg, 2000) do not affect employees' behavioral outcomes, following the granting of i-deals. Therefore, it can be said that i-deal recipients are likely to express favorable behaviors towards organization, regardless of whether the i-deals put them in a better position than coworkers in the organization. One possible explanation for such a finding may be due to the nature of the i-deals considered in this study. Task and developmental i-deals are directed towards career advancement and they are likely to provide valuable resources for career and skills enhancement, where these deals are usually awarded in regard to exceptional performance (Rosen et al., 2013). Similarly, flexibility i-deals are offered to improve employees' wellbeing and are likely to aid them in balancing personal life with professional commitments, where these arrangements are normally granted in recognition of their value to the organization (Rosen et al., 2013). Therefore, such high valued special treatments given by employers may explain why i-deals foster positive behaviors of employees such as promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors, regardless of whether coworkers have similar options. However, the results were unexpected, and there is a need for additional empirical studies that investigates a variety of i-deals to get stronger evidence of the possible effects of within-group social comparisons stimulated by social identity (Hogg, 2000) in the i-deal and promotive and prohibitive voice relationship.

In sum, the findings of this study substantially support the view of the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003) as a complementary theoretical framework to social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979); it broadens the understanding of the relationship of i-deals and voice behaviors. However, the group engagement model should not be perceived as an alternative mechanism that could replace social identity theory, as employee i-deals have a significant direct effect on both promotive and prohibitive voice. The group engagement model, instead, complements the theoretical framework of social identity theory. Precisely, a favorable treatment from the employer that is, the grant of personalized i-deals entails an internalization of respect demonstrated by an employee in the form of organizational identification (Tyler & Blader, 2003). This internalization strengthens employees' supportive behaviors for the organization that embodies the identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), where those supportive behaviors, such as voice behaviors, represent a means to express belongingness and oneness with the organization. Finally, the significant moderating effect of the i-deal opportunity for coworkers emphasizes on the importance of considering contextual factors (Kong, Ho, & Garg 2018) that surrounds the relationship of employee i-deals and voice behaviors.

5.2. Theoretical contributions

Several implications can be drawn from the present review of the theoretical and empirical literature and the findings of this study. First, this study sought to make up for the lack of attention given to the behavioral outcomes of idiosyncratic deals, particularly voice behaviors. The literature in this area was predominantly focused on the generic voice built on Hirshman's 'voice exit and loyalty model' (Hirschman,

1970). This older conviction of the voice has been currently in criticism by voice scholars (Mowbray et al., 2019; Mowbray et al., 2015), as it is directed towards the generic voice behavior of individuals. However, recent scholars have presented a multidimensional concept of voice (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014), catering to the different intentions of voicing. Thus, this study extends the previous literature of i-deals by demonstrating the significant effect of two different forms of voice that are, (a) promotive voice, where employees seek to express suggestions with the intention to improve the current functioning of the organization and (b) prohibitive voice, where employees seek to express concerns with the intention to protect the organization from harm (Liang et al., 2012). Therefore, this study has provided novel insights by adding i-deals as a new antecedent to promotive and prohibitive voice. Accordingly, it is suggested that i-deal research studies should consider variants of voice to gauge the actual impact of i-deals on the job performance of recipient employees. That is, they should not neglect the influence of social cues employees pick from the granting of special working arrangements on their specific job behaviors that are, promotive and prohibitive voice. It is of critical importance because i-deals are a form of investment on the employees which the employers commence to encourage the employees to perform better, and voice behaviors are the legitimate representatives of the job performance of employees. Thus, i-deals can successfully derive employee job behaviors towards improvement, which would reflect their better job performance.

Second, the present study highlights the utility of social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003), in understanding the employees' responses to receiving i-deals in general and engaging in voice behaviors in particular. Specifically, this study has given

completely a new turn to the literature of i-deals that were previously dominated by the social exchange view (Blau, 1964). As communicating that it is the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which governs the relationship of increase in i-deals to positive job attitudes and behaviors of recipients while providing sound empirical justifications to believe that social identity mechanisms can also drive these linkages. In line with the social identity perspectives, it has been argued that when employees are granted favorable employment arrangements, the cues in the act concerning the extent to which their organization value them and care for their wellbeing, help the recipients in finding their self-concept, gaining self-esteem and experiencing personal growth (Liu et al., 2013). Consequently, they express positive job attitudes and behaviors (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tyler & Blader, 2003). The i-deals have recently been recognized as one such employment practice of organizations, an attempt at enhancing the self-concept of employees; hence, as per the results of this study, it is of no surprise that employees respond to i-deals with greater organizational identification and promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors.

Third, this study also contributes to the literature by demonstrating that the effect of i-deals on promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors is not direct, instead, mediated via organizational identification. As noted earlier, Ng and Feldman (2015) were the first ones to show that i-deals impact employee outcomes through organizational trust. This study extended the theoretical argument by using a neighboring mechanism of organizational trust, that is, organizational identification (Ng, 2015), as a mediator. Following the backdrop of social identity perspectives, the significant mediation of organizational identification in the given relationship presents a pristine contribution to the theory. The theory of i-deals needs to appreciate the fact

that the effective outcomes of i-deals may be more dependent upon the employers who have considerable control over the resources. It is important because the grant of employee desired resources, send cues to the employees that they are valued and internally respected, which enhances their identification with the organization and encourages them to retaliate positively with citizenship behaviors (Tyler & Blader, 2003). In other words, if the employers do not put extent resources to the employment relationships, the employees will also be less likely to express voice behaviors. Thus, employers' resource investments are an important mediating mechanism here.

Fourth, this study offers instrumental insights into the existing research stream of i-deals by incorporating the third-party factor in the research model, namely, an i-deal opportunity for coworkers as a boundary condition. The significant influence of i-deal opportunities for coworkers on the relationship of employee i-deals with organizational identification confirms that the i-deal recipients do not exist in the vacuum, and the perceptions of their i-deals are affected by the contextual factors (Kong et al., 2018). In fact, within-group social comparisons and assessment of where one stands, vis-a-vis coworkers among employees may be at the center of how the employees process the information on their i-deals and build their relationship with their organization (Liu et al., 2013). Therefore, the consideration of a contextual factor provides a more comprehensive understanding such that it explained the balanced view encompassing both the effects of an individual's i-deals and coworkers' i-deals on the employees' identification with their organization. It is argued that social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) commonly assumes that the relationship of i-deals and their outcomes does not consider the possibilities of other foundational perspectives; thus, an accounting of within-group social comparisons concerning social identity

perspective (Hogg, 2000) shall portray a more complete and accurate picture. As in this study, rather than focusing on one's situation in isolation, it was found that higher levels of i-deal opportunities for coworkers dampen the effect of employees' own i-deals on the organizational identification and in contrast when there are less similar opportunities available for coworkers, it strengthens the given effect.

In addition to that, the results also contribute to the literature of i-deals through identifying an unforeseen fact; that is, an i-deal opportunity for coworkers has no moderating effect on the relationship of employee i-deals and voice behaviors. Though this finding needs further theoretical development; however, it can be deduced that employees' perceptions of whether their coworkers are receiving similar or dissimilar i-deals do not affect their behavioral outcomes because employees getting unique treatments may not care what their coworkers are getting in order to respond with positive behaviors. In retrospect, voice behaviors are largely explicit processes (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014); thus, employees may not choose to raise voice while evaluating the i-deal opportunities for their coworkers. Instead, they compare the value given by the organization to them, in terms of growth and development opportunities and ease of working available to them with the coworkers, when they chose to go beyond the job requirements for the betterment of the organization (Guerrero & Challiol-Jeanblanc, 2016). Therefore, the personalized package of i-deals to employees can serve a tool for employers to direct their psychological processes, such as organizational identification. Nevertheless, how the comparison of i-deals among employees can direct their behaviors, needs further theoretical and empirical development in subsequent research.

Finally, interesting enough, the cultural effect can also be detected in the findings of this study. As per earlier frameworks built on social identity theory, the significance of the results is more frequent in South Asian cultures (Yuki, 2003). It is because members of collectivist cultures have a stronger need to develop a sense of belongingness than members of individualistic cultures (Huff & Kelley, 2003; Yamagishi, Cook, & Watabe, 1998). Following this line of argument, the grant of professional growth opportunities and flexibility in working conditions may be seen as strong evidence that the organization is placing more value in employees; thus, the effect of receiving such i-deal in a collectivistic culture like Pakistan and other similar cultures might elicit particularly strong responses. The significant effect of i-deals on attitudinal (organizational identification) and behavioral outcomes (promotive and prohibitive voice) in this study may be the endowment to the given culture. This finding gauges support from a recent comparative study on i-deals, where it was found that the effect of i-deals on performance outcomes is stronger in a collectivistic culture of China, as compared to the individualistic culture of the United States (Ng & Feldman, 2015). Therefore, cross-cultural differences are noteworthy, as most of the i-deals research to date has been concentrated in individualistic cultures (Hornung et al., 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Precisely, i-deals research is presenting more robust responses in a collectivistic culture, hence, cross-cultural research studies in this domain are a promising avenue for future research.

Taken together, the results of this study successfully contribute to the existing body of literature by demonstrating how the effect of employee i-deals translates into their promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors. Specifically, in addition to catering to the needs of introducing the intermitting process and incorporating contextual factors

in the realm of i-deals and voice behaviors, this study, while using social identity perspectives, has given this stream of research an entirely new perspective. This study implies that i-deal recipients' express positive outcomes (such as organizational identification), independently, and also, in the presence of contextual factors (i-deal opportunity for coworkers), as a way to maintain, confirm and develop their positive self-concept in the organization.

5.3. Practical implications and recommendations

Changing labor market dynamics (Greenhaus et al., 2010), and increasing complexities in employees' work preferences (Guest & Rodrigues, 2015) made traditional one-size-fits-all human resource practices less effective in targeting the right resources to attract, motivate and retain a valuable workforce (Bal, De Jong, Jansen, & Bakker, 2012; Ester, Halman, & Moor, 1994). Workers who have been long told to take charge of their professional and personal goals and 'pack their own parachutes' to secure their future, thus, may have become increasingly comfortable to bargain for themselves (Hirsch, 1987; Rousseau, 2005; Sparrow, 2000). Therefore, it is imperative to inform managers about the effectiveness of i-deals.

As much as organizations believe that they will benefit from granting employees' i-deals (Rousseau, 2001), the research to date has provided limited evidence on this notion. This study's findings offer valuable insights to managers; they might expect from consenting to different types of i-deals. Negotiating with employees to better align their work duties to their professional and personal interests can increase job performance. Task and developmental i-deals, with future orientation, can build

competencies that improve employees' value to the firm (Rosen et al., 2013). Flexibility i-deals that personalize work schedules help employees cope with job requirements and personal commitments and can reduce strain and create pleasant work experience (Rosen et al., 2013). As such, i-deals help managers to authorize i-deals more effectively to enhance the employees' performance areas.

The current study demonstrates to the managers that i-deals are related to at least one of the essential components of the performance viz., voice, precisely, promotive, and prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012). It is because employees' receiving personalized i-deals perceive their self-concept is being fulfilled and, thus, go beyond the defined job behaviors for their employers (Liu et al., 2013). The results suggest that i-deals can serve an 'unfreezing' function (Ng & Feldman, 2015) in how employees approach their jobs and their employers more broadly. It may explain why employees' having desired i-deals are often more productive in different performance areas. To maximize the utility of i-deals and to ensure more desired returns on this type of human resource investment, managers should understand the unique requirements of employees and grant the i-deals to employees which could motivate them to express positive job behaviors. Therefore, managers may be able to leverage the grant of i-deals to promote vocalization of the suggestions and concerns of employees to improve the organization's current functioning.

Besides, organizations are aware of the instrumental benefits of the i-deals; less attention has been given to the underlying processes. The findings of this study illustrate that the use of i-deals at the workplace affects not only the behavioral outcomes of the employees but also the attitudinal constituents. For instance, it is being recognized that

employee i-deals affect their supervisor rated promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors through organizational identification. Thus, managers should be cognizant that employees pick up cues from the grant of i-deals and act accordingly. When the employees feel their organization values them and care for them, this likely enhances their identification with the organization and encourages them to express extra-role behaviors out of similar concerns for the organization (Tyler & Blader, 2003). Therefore, there are good reasons for organizations to continue to offer such arrangements to employees, and to meet their varied preferences and needs in order to have desired performance outcomes from employees.

Furthermore, the interaction effect identified in this study should indicate managers that it is critical to consider the trio-relationships that are, relationships among employees, employers, and coworkers while managing i-deals. Employees' perceptions about their i-deals and their perceptions about the opportunities of i-deals available to their coworkers do not work independently; instead, they jointly affect the likelihood of employees' identification with the organization. If employees observe that coworkers have fewer i-deal opportunities available, this strengthens the translation of the effect of employees' i-deals into their positive attitudes (Liu et al., 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2015), including organizational identification. Conversely, when employees feel that there are similar options available to their coworkers, this weakens the induced translation. Accordingly, to account for the interactionist perspective is useful for managers, who widely offer i-deals to their employees'. From this, managers can easily discern why some employees are deeply associated with the organization upon receiving i-deals and why others are not.

Last, it can be said that i-deals have more vigilant effects when they resonate with the cultural norms. This study endorses the previous research studies conducted in collectivistic cultures, where they found that employees react more strongly to the special treatment given by their employers in contrast to individualistic cultures (Liao, Wayne, & Rousseau, 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2015). As i-deals have become a popular mechanism to attract talent around the world (Ding & Chang, 2019; Wang et al., 2018), thus, a better understanding of the cross-cultural difference in i-deals will be useful for the manager in managing a global workforce (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Newburry & Yakova, 2006; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). To extend this finding to the corporate arena in a given culture, the content of i-deals has to be revised accordingly. For example, in collectivistic cultures, individuals are more strongly bound to their social groups such as organization or family (Yuki, 2003); thus, they need highly distinctive and particularistic i-deals to fulfill their professional commitments and personal commitments. Moreover, changing societal trends leading to increased diversity at workplaces (Bal & Jansen, 2015) also ignited the demand for i-deals by the employees such that earlier research show that working women more frequently ask for personalized working arrangements in order to manage their career goals along with family responsibilities (Erden Bayazit & Bayazit, 2017). Therein, managers need to cope with the cultural shifts and continue to customize the content of i-deals in order to attract, retain, and motivate the talented workforce.

Summatively, this study proposes concrete suggestions to the management of the organizations. The study's findings are sufficient to encourage managers to invest wisely in i-deals to improve employees' critical performance indicators such as voice behaviors. The study recommends that managers not directly target behavioral

outcomes through i-deals but also take care of intermitting mechanisms as they are imperative in translating the true effect of i-deals. For example, as in the given case, the effect of i-deals flows to promotive and prohibitive voice through organizational identification. In addition to that, the study insisted that management of the organization should consider trio-relationships, including, employee, employer, and coworkers while dealing with i-deals. It is because of the results of the study that showed that opportunities of i-deals available to coworkers affect employee outcomes such as organizational identification in response to their i-deals.

5.4. Limitations and future research directions

Despite the aforementioned contributions, this study holds several methodological and theoretical caveats that though open up avenues for future research. Upon evaluating methodological aspects, few concerns are important to discuss here. For instance, despite the data of dependent variables were collected from alternative source (supervisors), however, it is recognized that the data for independent, moderator, and the mediator were collected from the same source (subordinates) at the same time. Hence, primarily relying on the employee's self-reports for few variables and use of cross-sectional design raise concerns regarding common method bias. Though the researchers argue that self-reporting is also a useful and valid source of data (Glick, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1986; Spector, 1994), however, it can also create common method bias (Spector, 1994). In order to minimize this bias, the study has followed some serious recommendations such as employed multisource data, ensured the confidentiality of respondents, provided a cover letter that explains the purpose of the study, and measured predictors and dependent variables separately (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Since

all constructs were measured using a cross-sectional research design, the single-factor model was also analyzed. The results show no single factor explains the bulk of variance; thus, common method variance cannot be a serious threat to the data set, but its effects cannot be truly ruled out. Future studies that seek objective or multisource data are requested to use more rigorous approaches to fully combat common method bias, such as multiple source statistical remedies or multiple source separation remedies (Craighead, Ketchen, Dunn, Tomas, & Hult, 2011).

Furthermore, the use of cross-sectional design limited the opportunity to infer causality of the relationships and non-linear changes that might have occurred over time. While the findings of this study support the proposed effects, definite causal relationships cannot be affirmed in a one-time non-experimental study (Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2011). Although the significant direct, indirect, and interactional effects have been widely discussed in the study, it is important to note that the statistical analysis shows that the variables are co-varied with one another; they do not cause each other to change. Given that the sample included employees working at several occupations in different industries, it would have been difficult to observe changes over time in a natural environment; thus, the present research design has considerable merits. Future research can employ more sophisticated research designs such as experimental or longitudinal design (Bell et al., 2018) that could provide robust evidence of the constructs' causal relationships.

In addition, the use of purposive sampling can be highly prone to researcher's unit (e.g., individuals, groups, data) selection bias which refers to bias that results due to failure of proper randomization of a population sample (Sharma, 2017). It is because

the purposive sampling is relying on an idea that sample is created based on researcher's judgement (Tongco, 2007). This judgement subjective component of purposive sampling is the only major disadvantage when the judgements are ill-conceived or poorly considered that is, where judgements have not been based on clear criteria (Sharma, 2017). It may posit major roadblocks in the way of a true representation of the sample and inhibits the achievement of theoretical, analytic, and logical generalization of the findings (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). In the given study, only those employees were purposefully allowed to participate in the study who were working in organizations that were offering and appreciating negotiations of i-deals, so that they can relate to the given phenomenon and can provide information by virtue of their knowledge. Thus, the criteria for choosing a particular type of employees was clear. Hence, the chosen technique was well-adjusted with the objectives of the study and minimized the possible disadvantages of purposive sampling. Nevertheless, future research studies can employ more vigorous sampling techniques such as systematic sampling (Sayed & Ibrahim, 2018).

Moreover, the unit of analysis of this study involved individuals. Though, it provides avant-garde insights on behavioral outcomes of the employees. However, how the relationships among construct unfold at group-level is unpredictable through the given findings. It is because, with the change in the unit of analysis, the level of constructs may also change. For instance, when employees' promotive and prohibitive voices are seen at the group level, they are referred to as promotive group voice (refers to the expression of novel ideas for improving team functioning) and prohibitive group voice (refers to the expression of concerns about harmful practices or behaviors in the team) (Li, Liao, Tangirala, & Firth, 2017). Therefore, the group-level studies can

explore the effects of i-deals at the given level, and simultaneously study the effects of i-deals on i-deal recipients and coworkers, to better understand the outcomes of i-deals granting for the team.

Additionally, this study tested a simple moderating effect of i-deal opportunity for coworkers in the relationship of employee i-deals and their induced relationships. Though this act provides useful insight into the theory and practice; however, with slight statistical experimentation, more novel insights can be brought. For instance, the test of the conditional indirect effect (Preacher et al., 2007) can be performed in which the treatment effect of employee ideals on promotive and prohibitive voice via organizational identification at different levels of i-deal opportunity for coworkers to render distinctive insights.

Importantly, the study also acknowledges several areas that need further theoretical development in the future. First, as the data were collected from multiple industries of Pakistan, specifying where the task and developmental i-deals and flexibility i-deals were being offered, this inhibits the scope of knowing the industry-wide variations. The content of i-deals likely varies across occupations, organizations, and cultures (Hornung, Rousseau, Weigl, Müller, & Glaser, 2014). For instance, in some cases, the nature of the job and the culture of the organization allow location flexibility (e.g., home-based telecommuting) (Hornung et al., 2008; Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2009). In other cases, there is a need for stationery equipment (e.g., manufacturing), close collaboration with coworkers (e.g., surgery), personal dealing with customers (e.g., childcare), thus, imposes constraints on location flexibility i-deals. This study chose to study the taxonomy of task and developmental i-

deals and schedule flexibility because they appear relevant to the wide range of corporate settings (Hornung et al., 2014). However, as mentioned earlier, i-deals are heterogeneous and cover a variety of work and employment features (Rousseau, 2005); hence, future research studies should continue to explore and test the additional industry-specific dimensions of i-deals in order to provide relevant insights and to represent the phenomenon of i-deals better.

Second, this study treated i-deals as a unidimensional construct, mainly because earlier research concluded through exploratory factor analysis that all measurement items of i-deals are loading on a single factor only (Ng & Lucianetti, 2016). The consideration of a single factor of i-deals synchronized with the purpose of this study, where the aim was to identify the effect of i-deals on their outcomes, especially in a geography where the phenomenon of i-deals is still infancy. However, as noted earlier, Rosen et al. (2013) presented different subtypes of i-deals, each catering to a different type of employment agreements. Hence, it would be preferred to expand the current findings of the study by making a fine-grained comparison between the subtypes of i-deals and analyze their effects independently on behavioral outcomes of employees. For example, it would be interesting to know, out of the task and developmental i-deals and flexibility i-deals, which one has a more effective influence on outcomes.

Third, the study provides insights into i-deals in a South Asian culture where the phenomenon is under-researched (Chenwei Liao et al., 2016). Although the findings of this study contribute to the literature substantially and pay tribute to the earlier research on collectivistic cultures, where it is believed that i-deals have more significant outcomes (Liao et al., 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2015); however, it did not hold hands-on

comparison with individualistic cultures. Future research can exploit this opportunity by replicating this framework in an individualistic culture, and making a direct comparison with the given collectivistic culture, to better understand the differences in the outcomes of i-deals due to cultural differences. For example, an earlier study in this regard showed that in China's collectivistic culture, i-deals more significantly affect the organizational trust, in contrast to the United States (Ng & Feldman, 2015). In a like manner, future studies can test the significance of the effect of i-deals on organizational identification, a neighboring mechanism to organizational trust, in both types of cultures.

Fourth, the framework tested in this study is positively skewed; that only sheds light on the positive outcomes of i-deals. Although the past literature suggests that i-deals mainly have positive outcomes (for detailed reviews, see Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2015) and Liao et al. (2016)); however, there might be a possibility of negative outcomes of i-deals (Yang, 2020), as not all organizations offer or encourage negotiations of i-deals. Having one's request for an i-deal turned down can result in more negative consequences such as he/she may raise complaining voice (Marescaux et al., 2019) to express retaliation or destructive voice (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014) to express dissension with organizational policies. This study limits its scope while including only those individuals who are working in organizations that are offering and appreciating the negotiations of i-deals, which, though suitable for the study, where it aims to contribute to the existing stream of positive outcomes of i-deals. Future studies can study a variety of organizations, regardless of the fact that they are offering and appreciating ideals and can develop frameworks concentrating on negative outcomes of i-deals such as complaining or destructive voice behaviors.

Fifth, the third parties present in the context that is, coworkers can also render negative behaviors of employees (Chenwei Liao et al., 2016). It may be because not all employees may be happy with the availability of similar opportunities of i-deals to others (Ng, 2017). Resultantly, employees may aggravate negative attitudes such as organizational dis-identification (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004), where the employees feel less valued by their organization, separate their identity from their organization, and be more vocal about objectionable aspects of the organization. As noted earlier, this study was not directed towards negative repercussions of i-deals; thus, it leaves the opportunity for future studies. To address these concerns, further investigations can be made in recognizing negative process mechanisms such as organizational dis-identification as a mediator between employee i-deals and various voice behaviors.

Sixth, this study incorporated perceptions of employees about coworkers' i-deals as a boundary condition; it did not include the direct perspective of coworkers such that, how they feel or react on the grant of i-deals to others. For example, this study grounded its hypotheses in social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), and used 'i-deal opportunity for coworkers' to measure the context where the intragroup comparisons with respect to social identity (Hogg, 2000) could be activated. However, this study did not measure the perception of employees about upward comparisons with coworkers (Kong et al., 2018). The study may have more convincing results if it could incorporate such variables in the conceptual model (Yang, 2020). Thus, it is believed that future research would benefit from the integration of variables directly related to identity-based intragroup comparisons to test the effects of i-deals on employees' attitudes and behaviors. Studies incorporating upward

comparisons in the process linking i-deals to employees' outcomes would confirm and extend the findings of this study.

Finally, this study for the very first time utilized the perspectives of social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003) as theoretical frameworks where, previously, the research on i-deals was dominated by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Therefore, to further strengthen the usefulness of the newly identified framework, future studies can see it as an additional mechanism to social exchange theory in order to provide more novel insights into the theory. Further, more social identity perspectives such as group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1989; Tyler & Lind, 1992) which advocates that the group membership effect occurs because it is also a source of information for individuals about their self-worth, thus, this can also be used as a complementing mechanism along with social identity theory to explain the relationship of i-deals and their outcomes.

5.5. Conclusion and outlook

The research aimed to answer the theoretically and practically relevant question 'whether i-deals are beneficial for both employees and employers. The results of the study put forward broader implications for both research and practice. The study adds to the stream of literature by adding i-deals as a new antecedent to two relatively newer forms of employee voice that are, promotive and prohibitive voice. In sum, employee i-deals encourage employee voice behaviors if carefully managed by the management of the organization. Additionally, the study contributes to the literature by finding that

the relationship between i-deals and job behaviors is not straightforward but partially mediated by organizational identification. Therefore, managers can use the i-deals as a tool to tie employees with the organization more strongly and encourage them to raise their voice in concern of their organization. The study also highlights the importance of third-party factors, that is, i-deal opportunity for coworkers, in leading the relationship of i-deals and their outcomes. Hence, the management of the organizations should not ignore the presence of contextual factors while deciding on i-deals with employees. Moreover, this study suggests that i-deals are intently relevant to South Asian culture. Therefore, the research encourages organizations operating in collectivistic cultures to accelerate the use of i-deals to capitalize on their advantages. Most importantly, the integrated model's cornerstone is that it is being derived from social identity frameworks. In this spirit, the research hopes that the findings may inspire other scholars to explore i-deals and their outcomes from differential perspectives. Future research studies can examine additional explanatory mechanisms and contextual conditions, which could enable the translation of the effect of i-deals into outcomes. Ultimately, the research concludes that i-deals can have a huge positive potential for both employees and employers. However, it is up to the management of the organization to recognize this potential and turn it into a viable opportunity for organizations to attract, retain, and motivate outstanding employees.

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APPENDIX A:

COVER PAGE

LAHORE SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS



Dear Participant,

I am currently pursuing a Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Business Administration degree at Lahore School of Economics. I would like your help in my final research project, which is aimed at examining the effect of idiosyncratic deals on employees' job behaviors.

Although the study has purely academic objectives, this would render valuable insights for your organization in terms of how effective is the use of idiosyncratic deals for both employees' and the organization.

For this purpose, I need some resourceful information from you, as you have been qualified as a relevant respondent for this research study. Thus, I am inviting you to please participate in this research by completing the attached survey.

I am assuring you that all the provided information will remain confidential, and in order to maintain anonymity, you are not required to mention your name anywhere. The data collected will only be used for academic purposes, and the copies of the research project will only be submitted to the Lahore School of Economics.

The following questionnaire will require approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. While participating in this study, please answer all questions as honestly as possible and return the completed questionnaire to the administrator of the survey.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors. The data collected would enable me to complete my research project and would fulfill my degree requirements.

If you would like to have a summary of the findings of this study, please complete and detach the Request for Information Form given below and return it to the administrator of the survey.

If you are not satisfied with the manner in which any part of this research is being conducted, you may report (anonymously, if you so choose) any complaints to Lahore School's Center for Research in Economics and Business (Phone: +92 42 36561230).

Sincerely,
Iqra Ayoub

Email: iqraayoub@hotmail.com

Detach here

Request for Information

Please send a copy of the study results to the email listed below.

Name:

Email:

APPENDIX B:

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (A)

Code: _____ *(for administrative use only)*

Section 1

1. Please encircle one of the given choices to specify your gender:

Male	•	Female	•
------	---	--------	---

2. Please specify your age _____

3. Please specify your tenure in this organization _____

4. Please encircle only one of the given choices to specify your education:

Less than a bachelor's degree	Bachelor's degree	Postgraduate degree
•	•	•

5. Please specify your industry _____

Section 2

Please fill this section by keeping in mind the following types of idiosyncratic deals:

- Task and development (e.g. specific job assignments, training sessions, etc.)
- Schedule flexibility (e.g. work hours)

Please encircle only one number that indicates your frequency of disagreement or agreement with the given statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have successfully asked for extra responsibilities that take advantage of the skills that I bring to the job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. At my request, my supervisor has assigned me tasks that better develop my skills.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have negotiated with my supervisor for tasks that better fit my personality, skills, and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My supervisor has offered me opportunities to take on desired responsibilities outside of my formal job requirements.	1	2	3	4	5

5. In response to my distinctive contributions, my supervisor has granted me more flexibility in how I complete my job.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Following my initial appointment, my supervisor assigned me to a desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My supervisor considers my personal needs when making my work schedule.	1	2	3	4	5
8. At my request, my supervisor has accommodated my off-the-job demands when assigning my work hours.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Outside of formal leave and sick time, my supervisor has allowed me to take time off to attend to non-work-related issues.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Working at my company is important to the way that I think of myself as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
11. When someone praises the accomplishments of my company, it feels like a personal compliment to me.	1	2	3	4	5
12. When someone from outside criticizes my company, it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The place I work says a lot about who I am as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I think I am similar to the people who work at my company.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My colleagues can have the same special individual arrangements as me if they ask.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My colleagues can get special individual arrangements if they are in need of them.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My coworkers have the opportunity to negotiate their working conditions if they need it.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My organization makes efforts to satisfy my coworkers' requests for special individual arrangements.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank You For Your Time And Cooperation

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (β)

Code: _____ (for administrative use only)

Section 1

1. Please encircle one of the given choices to specify your gender:

Male	•	Female	•
------	---	--------	---

2. Please specify your age _____

3. Please specify your tenure in this organization _____

4. Please encircle only one of the given choices to specify your education:

Less than a bachelor's degree	Bachelor's degree	Postgraduate degree
•	•	•

5. Please specify your industry _____

Section 2

You are requested to fill this questionnaire while keeping in mind your employee:

Mr./Mrs./Ms. _____

Please encircle only one number that indicates your frequency of disagreement or agreement with the given statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<u>This employee:</u>					
1. Proactively develops and makes suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Proactively suggests new projects, which are beneficial to the work unit.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Proactively voices out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Proactively reports coordination problems in the workplace to the management.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank You For Your Time And Cooperation

APPENDIX C:

NORMAL DISTRIBUTION ANALYSES

Figure I
Employee i-deals distribution

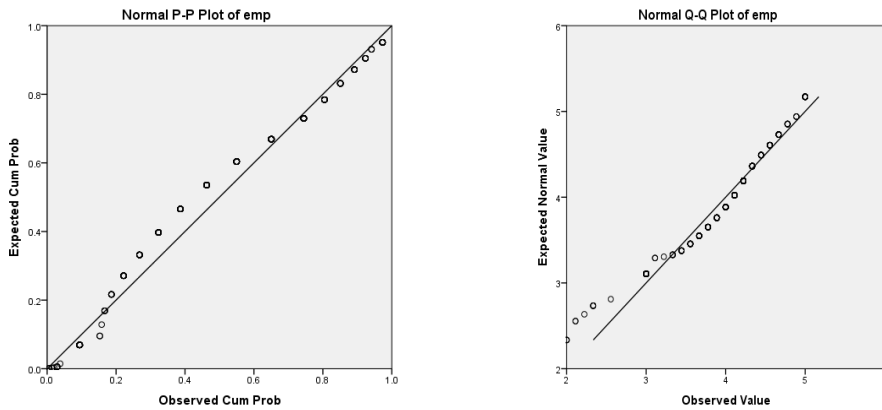


Figure II
Promotive voice distribution

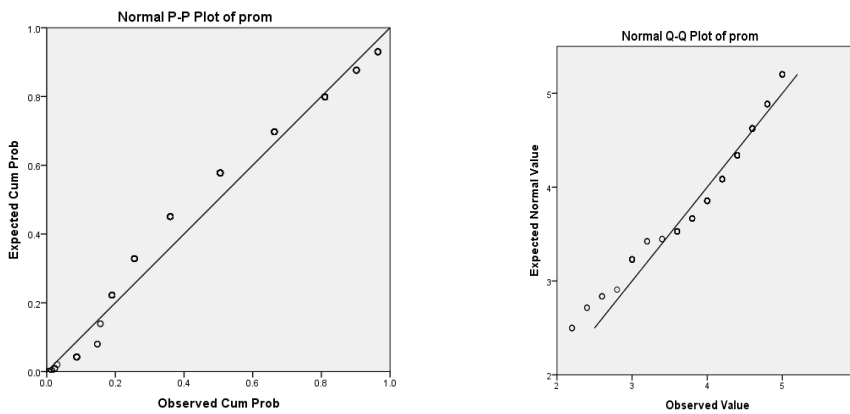


Figure III
Prohibitive voice distribution

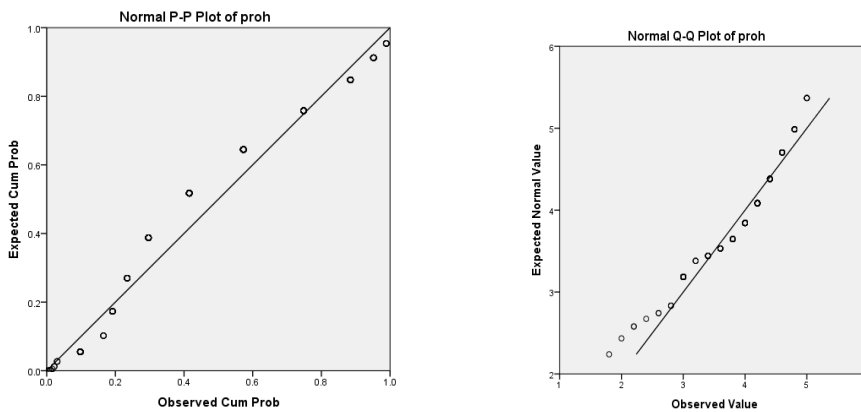


Figure IV
Organizational identification distribution

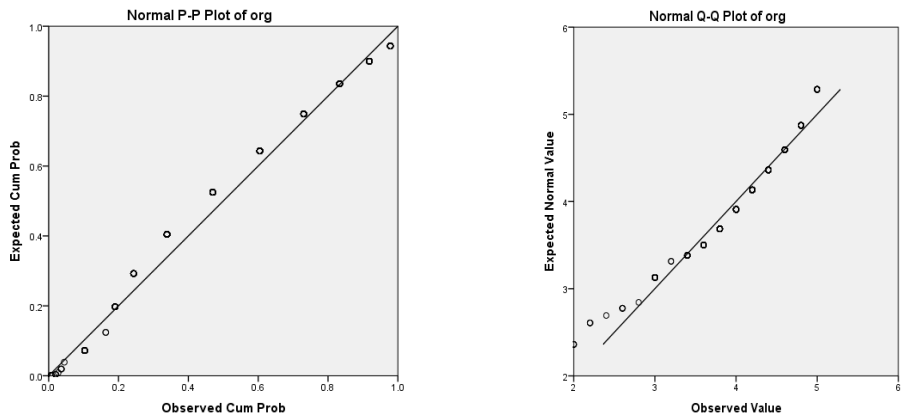
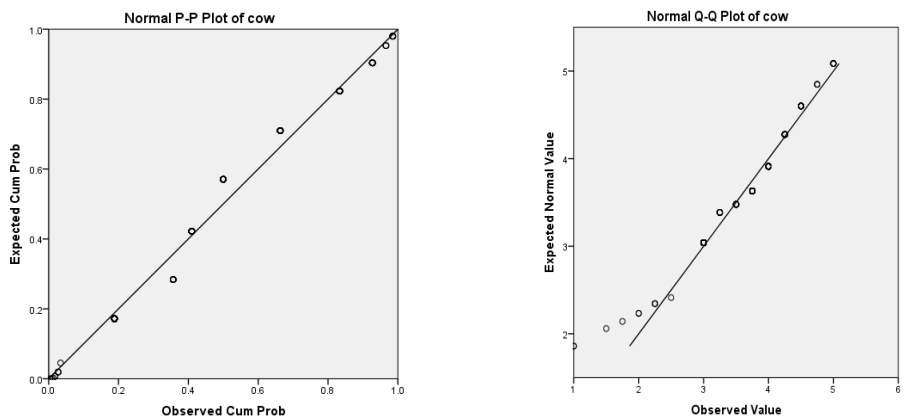


Figure V
I-deal opportunity for coworkers' distribution



APPENDIX D:

OUTLIERS ANALYSES

Figure VI
Employee i-deal outliers' illustration



Figure VII
Promotive voice outliers' illustration

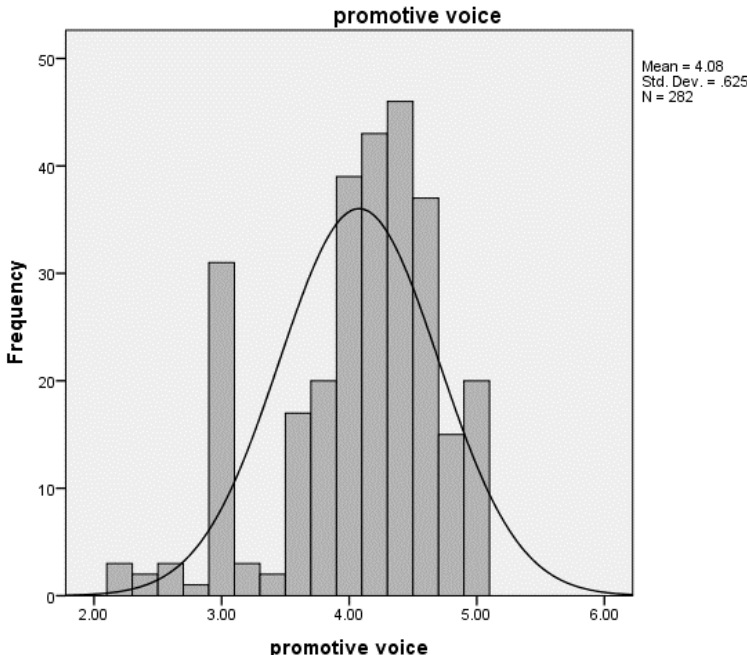


Figure VIII
Prohibitive voice outliers' illustration

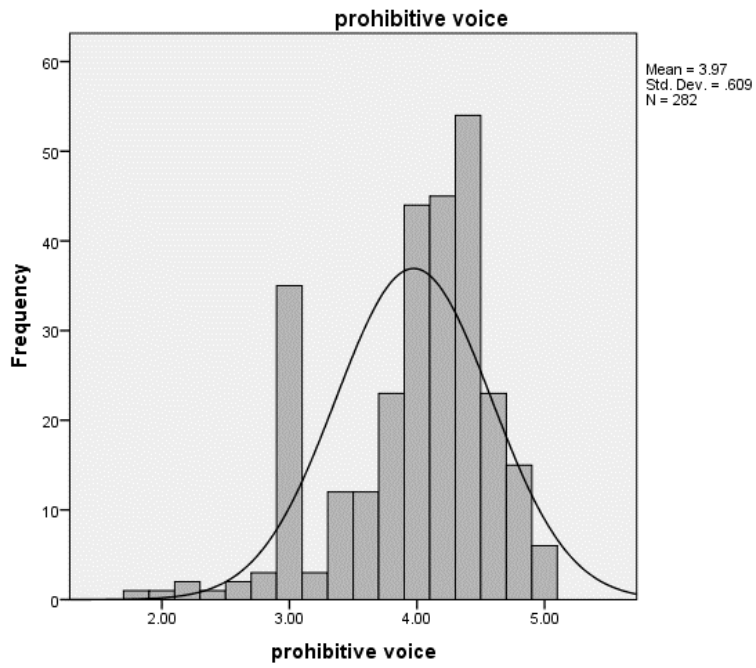


Figure IX
Organizational identification outliers' illustration

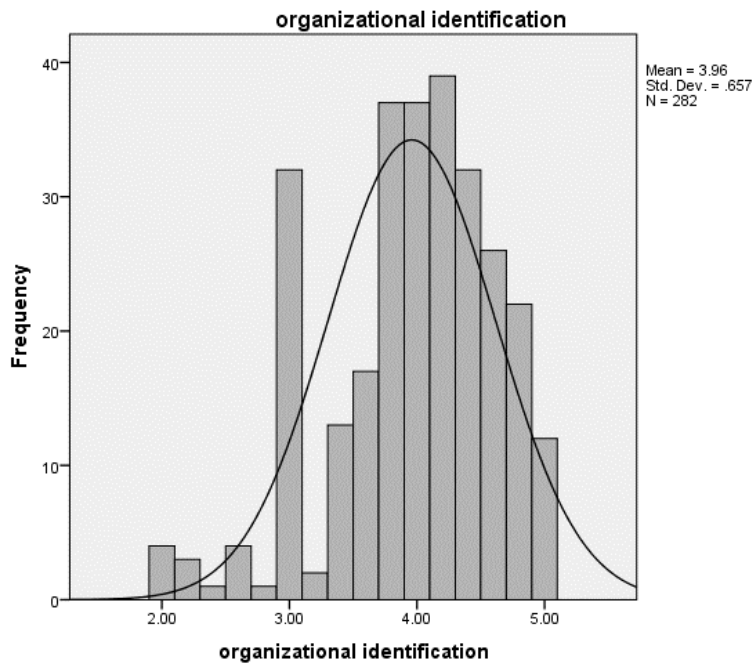
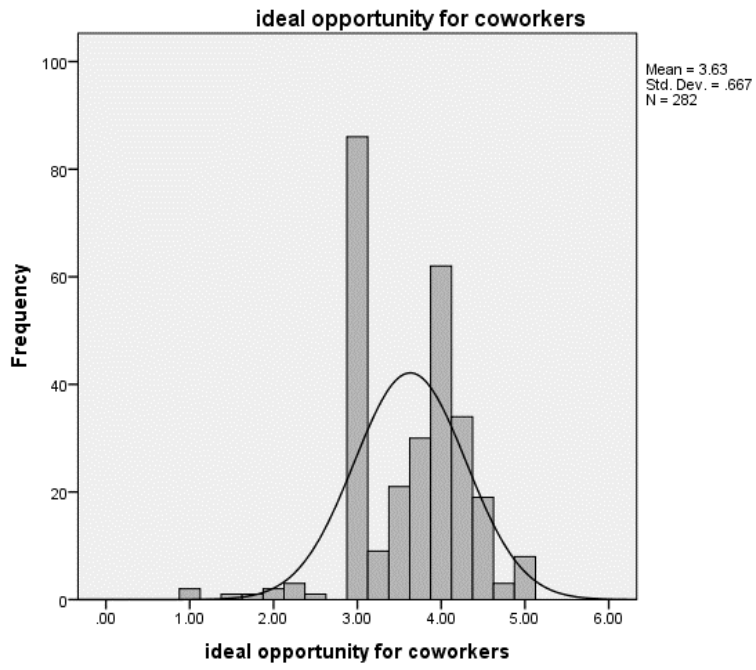


Figure X
I-deal opportunity for coworkers' outliers' illustration



APPENDIX E:

ICC CALCULATION

Following formula has been used to calculate the intra-class coefficient (ICC) values:

$$ICC = \frac{\tau_0^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau_0^2}$$

Where *ICC* represents the intra-class coefficient, τ_0^2 represents variance component at the intercept, and σ^2 represents variance component at level-1.

The calculation of ICC of the null model with a promotive voice as an outcome variable is given below:

$$ICC = \frac{0.00028}{0.39384 + 0.00028} * 100$$

$$ICC = 0.071\%$$

The calculation of ICC of the null model with a prohibitive voice as an outcome variable is given below:

$$ICC = \frac{0.00417}{0.36827 + 0.00417} * 100$$

$$ICC = 1.119\%$$

APPENDIX F:

CONTROL VARIABLES ANALYSES

Table I

Control variables analyses (with respect to total, direct and indirect effect analysis)

Relationship	Estimate	p-value
Employee gender → Organizational identification	.045	.402
Employee age → Organizational identification	-.083	.239
Employee tenure → Organizational identification	.079	.256
Employee education → Organizational identification	.083	.125
Employee gender → Promotive voice	-.004	.953
Employee gender → Prohibitive voice	-.067	.214
Employee age → Promotive voice	.021	.755
Employee age → Prohibitive voice	-.069	.271
Employee tenure → Promotive voice	.049	.418
Employee tenure → Prohibitive voice	.007	.918
Employee education → Promotive voice	-.069	.177

Table II

Control variable analysis (with respect to interactional effects analysis)

Variable	Estimate	p-value
Gender	.0817	.2271
Age	-.0442	.1616
Tenure	.0067	.4555
Education	.1083	.0193

Note: Above results were recorded when organizational identification was the outcome variable.

Table III**Control variable analysis (with respect to interactional effects analysis)**

Variable	Estimate	<i>p</i>-value
Gender	.0215	.7188
Age	.0004	.9887
Tenure	.0085	.2838
Education	-.0363	.3773

Note: Above results were recorded when promotive voice was the outcome variable.

Table IV**Control variable analysis (with respect to interactional effects analysis)**

Variable	Estimate	<i>p</i>-value
Gender	-.0706	.0504
Age	-.0492	.0073
Tenure	.0032	.0191
Education	.0422	.1128

Note: Above results were recorded when prohibitive voice was the outcome variable.

APPENDIX G:

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE

Table V

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Construct	Analysis	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Organizational identification	Between Groups	8.189	19	.431	.998	.464
	Within Groups	113.174	262	.432		
	Total	121.363	281			
Promotive voice	Between Groups	4.863	19	.256	.640	.874
	Within Groups	104.771	262	.400		
	Total	109.635	281			
Prohibitive voice	Between Groups	9.230	19	.486	1.338	.159
	Within Groups	95.096	262	.363		
	Total	104.326	281			

Note: Above results were recorded when industry was the exogeneous variable. df = Degrees of freedom. F = Variation between sample means / Variation within the samples.

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