THE ROLES OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND DISIDENTIFICATION

ON RESTAURANT EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the

Faculty of the

Conrad N. Hilton College of Hotel and Restaurant Management

University of Houston

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

So Hee Park

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father and mother who support me to achieve my

goals. They are the most important people in my world and I dedicate this thesis to them.

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to develop a reliable and valid multi-item scale that measures restaurant employees' OI and ODI, to identify the respective antecedents of OI and ODI and to examine the relationships among OI, ODI, OCB, intention to stay and intention to leave.

The first step of Study 1 specifed the domain of the construct according to Churchill's (1979) suggestions. A preliminary list of OI and ODI measurements were generated based on previous measures and information from the interviews. Semi-structured personal interviews were conducted to generate a broad range of items. Many of the items were redundant so lists of items were down to fifty-four OI items and forty-eight ODI. An expert group consisting of a faculty member, restaurant employees, Ph.D. students with restaurant working experiences reviewed the items and redundant, irrelevant and ambiguous items were removed or modified. 14 OI items and 15 ODI items retained through the expert group meeting. The remained 29 items were included in the questionnaire. To identify clusters of variables from the expert meeting, an online survey was conducted. For item refinement, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) assessed and Cronbach's alpha and item-total correlation were reviewed. The EFA revealed single dimension scale of 11 OI items and 10 ODI items. Another online survey using MTurk was conducted to assess validity and reliability. In accordance with the results of EFA, the unidimension was adequate to measure OI and ODI respectively in the new data and the scales were valid and reliable.

In Study 2, ten hypotheses were tested. The OI and ODI scales were used to examine the relationships with their respective antecedents and consequences. A two-step approach was used

in this study. Before the structural equation modeling (SEM), the internal and external consistency of the scales was tested with the measurement model, and then the SEM was used to assess the relationships among research variables. Perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived brand authenticity (PBA) were significant predictors of employees' OI and POO was a significant predictor of ODI but PUOB did not have a significant relationship with ODI. Both OI and ODI were positively associated with the intention to stay. OI was positively linked to OCB but negatively linked to the intention to leave. ODI was positively linked to the intention to leave while negatively linked to OCB. Also, some dispositional characteristics such as restaurant type and position had significant moderating roles on the relationships between research variables.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Restaurant employees comprise 10 percent of the overall US workforce (National Restaurant Association, 2017). Although a mainstay of the economy, the restaurant industry faces high employee turnover. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that the voluntary quit rate of accommodation and food service industries in 2017 was 52.1 percent, which is considerably higher than the industry average of 26.0 percent. Accordingly, high employee turnover can decrease profitability by hurting consistent service quality (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008) and increase costs regarding rehiring and training. The replacement costs can be substantial. The rehiring cost is approximately 10 percent to 30 percent of an employee's annual salary (Boushey & Glynn, 2012). The rehiring cost includes not only advertising, interviewing, screening, and hiring but also time and training necessary for a new employee to reach full productivity. Moreover, inconsistent services owing to high turnover eventually can harm the brand image. Moreover, inconsistent services due to high turnover eventually can harm the brand image.

Scholars have been interested in understanding employee turnover in the restaurant industry (e.g., Koys, 2001; Han, Bonn, & Cho, 2016). Many factors affect employee turnover in the restaurant industry. Numerous studies have been conducted on factors that affect voluntary employee turnovers, such as pay and pay-related variables (Milkovich and Newman, 1999), generation (Brown, Thomas, and Bosselman, 2015), and human resource management (Huselid, 1995). Recently, scholars have increasingly focused on intangible resources and relationships in organizations (Lush & Harvey, 1994). Some organizational researchers have suggested that

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employees' psychological attachment can contribute to decreasing employee turnover intention. Levinson (1960) noted that employees' psychological attachment with an organization can solve the issues from these economic, social, and psychological changes. Practitioners are also looking for a way to foster employees' psychological attachment with their organization (Van Dick, 2004) to build long-lasting and strong relationships.

Social identity theory (SIT) has frequently been used to predict one's work-related intention and attitudes (Riketta, Van Dick, & Rousseau, 2006). SIT assumes that the part of an individual's self-concept is defined by social groups that he or she belongs (Trepte, 2006). Organizational identification (OI), a type of social identity, can be interpreted as a psychological attachment with the organization (Edwards, 2005). OI is "a specific form of social identification in which the person defines him- or her- self in terms of membership in a particular organization" (Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995, p. 47). The SIT approach can help in understanding why and under what circumstances OI is formed and what the outcomes of OI are. When an employee identifies with an organization, he or she perceives connectedness with and define himself or herself as part of the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Thereafter, they tend to be linked with positive work-related attitudes or behaviors. Also, employees with OI are likely to be proud to be a part of the organization and respect its values and accomplishments (Kelman, 1958).

However, OI alone cannot accurately explain how and why employees cognitively or emotionally separate from their organization. Therefore, organizational researchers began to examine topics beyond basic OI (e.g., Pratt, 2000; Mael & Ashforth, 2001). As an extended form of social identification (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004), organizational disidentification (ODI) refers to "self-perception based on a cognitive separation between one's identity and the organization's

identity and a negative relational categorization of oneself and the organization" (Elsbach & Bhattacharya 2001, p. 393). When ODI is formed, employees cognitively separate their identity from that of the organization and build their authentic identities. In addition, they form a negative relational categorization between the organization and themselves (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Some employees may search for a more desirable organization to restore their positive distinctiveness or even consider leaving the original organization (Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1999; Costas & Fleming, 2009; Tajfel, 2010). In other contexts, employees may have a relatively inert, "neutral" orientation toward the organization that possibly transits to either positive or negative polarization. To achieve employees' desired behavioral changes, organizations need to understand how to convert these apathetic states to positive attitudes toward the organization (Bhattacharya & Elsbach, 2002).

A strong psychological attachment with the organization may encourage employees' organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), that is, employees voluntarily help other employees without the promise of reward. Employees with high OI may also perform beyond their formal duties for their personal or organizational successes, However, employees with ODI may not be motivated to perform OCB because they do not perceive themselves as accepted members in the organization (Voelkl, 1997).

In the present study, OI and ODI are assumed to be distinct concepts that have their own salient antecedents, and the paths that lead to ODI can be different from the path to OI (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). OI may facilitate self-definition ("I am"), whereas ODI may facilitate another form of self-definition ("I'm not"). In OI, employees perceive themselves as part of an organization, whereas employees psychologically dissociate themselves from the organization in ODI (Sluss, and Ashforth, 2007). When employees believe that the organization is self-

referential or self-defining, OI is formed (Pratt, 1998); when employees perceive that the organization does not share the same attributes or principles that they expected the organization to have, ODI is formed (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001*).*

Given the importance of OI and ODI, scholars have been exploring and examining the antecedents of OI. In this study, two antecedents of OI are selected: perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived brand authenticity (PBA). Many customer studies on PBA have been conducted, but PBA has not elicited much attention from organizational scholars. However, BPA is a critical factor that each unit of a restaurant can control regardless of the size of the unit or its prestige. Working for an authentic brand may help employees to enhance or maintain their positive self-concept. When employees receive advantageous treatments from their organization, they may recompense the organization to manage their positive self-image and to avoid the criticisms regarding the reciprocity norm's violation.

Two antecedents of ODI are selected: perceived organizational obstruction (POO) and perceived unethical organizational behavior (PUOB). When employees perceive that "their personal or professional goals are obstructed by the treatment offed by the organization and the organization does not care about their wellbeing" (Gibney et al., 2009), then employees may believe that their values are different from those of the organization. Consequently, employees may distance themselves cognitively or emotionally (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004) to enhance or maintain their self-esteem (Gibney, Zagenczyk, & Masters, 2009).

When employees believe that the organization is unethical, they may be confused with their identity. To maintain positive distinctiveness, they will dissociate themselves from the incongruent values of the organization (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). Furthermore, they will cognitively and emotionally dissociate themselves with their organization or search for an

alternative organization, resulting in leaving their original organization (Tajfel, 2010).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Although employee turnover has long been a concern of the restaurant industry, empirical research on assessing the relationship between employees' identification and their behavioral intentions in restaurant settings is lacking. Many studies have dealt with identification. However, understanding of the conceptualizations and measurements of OI has been inconsistent (Boroş, 2008). In addition, only a few studies have explored the concept of ODI, so its antecedents and consequences remain unclear (Chang et al., 2013). The adequacy of measures of OI and ODI have rarely been empirically tested in the restaurant sector. Specifically, several papers (e.g., Cornelissen, 2002; Postmes & Ellemers, 2003) have even debated applying SIT to organizational behaviors. The measures, the antecedents, and consequences of OI and ODI must be clarified to fill any gaps in the extant literature.

1.3 Objectives

The main purposes of this study are to understand the underlying psychological processes that form employees' behavioral intentions and to identify factors related to employee turnover in restaurant settings. In this study, a dual-process model is used to assess the concurrent effects of OI and ODI on a restaurant employee's intention to stay. The specific goals of this study are 1) to develop reliable and valid OI and ODI scales; 2) to establish whether OI and ODI were unique distinct constructs and whether each of the separate subscales was a significant antecedent of OI and ODI constructs, respectively, based on dual-factor process assumptions;

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and 3) to identify the respective roles of OI and ODI on employees' behavioral intentions and OCB.

1.4 Delimitation

This study has a few delimitations. First, online surveys were conducted to collect data from current restaurant employees in the USA. Employees' emotional experiences and perceptions of the organization can be different depends on the industry types or their locations. Caution must be taken in interpreting and generalizing the findings across other types of industries. Second, this study was more interested in the employee- organization relationship rather than the relationship between individuals within the organization. OCB-O (OCB contributes to the organization directly) can directly affect an organization's performance, whereas OCB-I (OCB contributes to the organization indirectly by benefiting other employees) was more associated with their relationships with other coworker or their supervisor(s). Therefore, the roles of OCB-I were not considered in this study; only OCB-O was included in this study. Third, to apply the findings broadly across the organization, this study focused on examining relations between variables at an organizational rather than at a property level.

1.5 Justification

This study has significance in academe and industry. From a managerial standpoint, This study can improve the understanding of how organizations motivate their employees to share the same goals and decrease the relational conflicts in the organization. Also, This study can reduce specific voluntary turnover intentions by providing specific guidance on how to improve the psychological connection of employees to the organization. Theoretically, this study aims to

develop reliable and valid OI and ODI measures that assess restaurant employees' psychological experiences, and these scales will help understand the underlying psychological processes that shape employees' behavioral intentions. This study also identifies the respective antecedents and consequences of OI and ODI from the perspective of the social identity approach using dual-factor theory in the restaurant settings. This research is the first attempt to test the role of PBA on OI and the role of perceived unethical organizational behavior on ODI. The results shed light on gaps in previous research on antecedents and consequences of OI and ODI by an empirical investigation based on dual-factor theory.

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CHAPTER II.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter 2 presents a theoretical justification for the measurement development of OI and ODI. Als,o this chapter reviews the theoretical backgrounds of research variables.

2.1 Social identity theory

SIT has used as a powerful theoretical framework to understand an individual's behavior (Van Dick et al., 2004). SIT was introduced to organizational behaviors by Tajfel and Turner (1979). In a later study (1985), they noted that there is self-concept in addition to personal identity that is also made of social identity. Social identity refers to "part of the individuals' self-concept which derives from their knowledge of their membership of social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 2010, p.2).

SIT has been focused on intergroup relations and group processes (Abrams & Hogg, 1990). A group is defined as "two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person" (Shaw, 1976, p. 11). When individuals perceive themselves as part of a social group, They internalize the group as part of their concept and this cognitive process can cause group behaviors (Turner, 1982).

The social identity approach helps explain the conditions under which employees are psychologically attached to the organization. SIT consists of categorization and self-enhancement. Individuals tend to classify themselves and other people into various social groups such as ethnic groups, social status, and positions. Categorization is associating with

distinguishing ingroups (their group) from outgroups (comparison groups), whereas self-enhancement is associating with making favorable ingroup comparisons. Individuals can organize the social environment and find themselves and others within it through classification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). This classification reduces subjective uncertainty (Hogg & Terry, 2000), and increase psychological or physical safety. (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998), and motivate certain organizational behaviors (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). For self-enhancement, they are likely to affirm the value of ingroups relative to outgroups, resulting in intergroup comparisons. During these comparisons, employees tend to be favorably viewed in their group (Kreiner, Ashforth, & Sluss, 2006). When individuals are identified as social groups, they tend to psychologically connect with the fate of the group.

2.2 Dual factor theory

Dual-factor theory that is also called the motivation-hygiene theory was introduced by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959),. They noted that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were two unique dimensions. Motivators are associated job satisfaction such as the nature of work and reward, that can enhance the employees' self-actualization and self-realization, whereas hygiene factors are associated with job dissatisfaction such as the employees' relationship to the context or work environments (House & Wigdor, 1967). Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two unique concepts that differ in terms of antecedents. A lack of motivators may not direct to job dissatisfaction, whereas a lack of hygiene factors may not lead to job satisfaction.

In the present study, OI and ODI are examined using a dual-process model based on dual-factor theory (Herzber et al., 1959). This study assumes that OI and ODI are differentiated

structures in terms of prominent precedents. ODI is not merely the opposite pole of OI. The path that leads to ODI differs from that to OI, and various differences are found between the two variables (Kreiner & Ashforth, B. E. 2004).

ODI is formed when employees appear to be opposed to organizations, not mere disagreement; employees with ODI may actively dissociate themselves from the organization("This is not me") and ODI has a different phenomenon than low-level OI (Ashforth, Joshi, Anand & O'Leary-Kelly, 2013). The low level of OI may not direct to disidentification, which leads to cognitive separation and opposed to the organization. Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002) found that personal experiences are more likely associated with OI, whereas ODI is more likely associated with the values and beliefs attributed to the organization. Identifiers not only talk but also act in support of the organization, whereas disidentifiers stop at talking publicly about the organization.

2.2 Organizational identification (OI)

OI has long been considered to have a significant impact on satisfaction, employee affiliation, and efficiency at workplaces or social groups (Brown, 1969; Pached, 1970; Mael & Tetrick, 2005). Extensive research in a variety of areas such as child development, geography, philosophy, gerontology, psychology, consumer behavior, and nationality emphasizes the importance of identification (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). OI refers to "perceive oneness and belongingness to an organization" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Belongingness is the employees' perceptions that they are members of the organization, are accepted and respected in the organization, and have a sense of inclusion in the organization; in belongingness, employees include the organization as part of their self-definitions (Voelkl, 1996). To varying degrees,

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employees connect their organizational membership cognitively, emotionally, or both to their self-concept. When their beliefs toward their organization become self-referential or self-defining, OI occurs (Pratt, 1998).

Based on SIT, OI is formed, individuals view themselves as a member of an organization (Boroş, 2008). According to SIT, employees try to perceive themselves as part of an organization and strive to maintain or improve positive self-distinctiveness. They derive their sense of self from the organizations to different extents (Hogg & Terry, 2000). If the specific social identity of an organization is salient, then employees will behave in a manner consistent with organizational norms and stereotypes. (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998, p. 185).

An organization's identity attractiveness is linked to self-consistency motives ("how similar it is to employee's own identity"), self-differentiation motives ("how distinctive it is with another social group"), and the satisfaction of self-enhancement motives ("how prestige it is") (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Numerous scholars have explored antecedents of OI: reputation, person-organization fit, inter-role and intra-role conflict, psychological contract fulfillment, need for OI (Kreiner, 2002), distinctiveness of group value and prestige (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), Distinctiveness, prestige, network density, relationship strength, network size (Jones & Volpe, 2011), the need for identification, positive affectivity, tenure, and intra-role complicity (Egold & Van Dick, 2015).

Existing studies found that OI can benefit to the organization. A meta-analysis by Lee, Park, and Koo (2015) found that OI is a significant predictor of key attitudes (satisfaction, involvement, and affective commitment) and behaviors (in-role and extra-role performance) in organizations. Also, OI increases employees' long-term commitment and support for the organization (Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Adler & Adler, 1988; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Elsbach

& Bhattacharya, 2001). OI had positive relationships with employees' performance and organizational citizenship behaviors, and OI negative relationships with their intention to leave and actual turnover (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998; Haslam & Platow, 2001; Mael & Ashforth, 1995; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004).

2.3 Organizational disidentification (ODI)

Employees simultaneously identify and disidentify with their organization; thus, for maintaining positive relationships with employees, understanding this dynamic identity process is required for organizations (Alvesson, 2010). ODI is now an important research area to understand how employees psychologically dissociate themselves from managerial domination by building their own "authentic" identities (Costas & Fleming, 2009).

Identity is not only "crucial" but also can be "problematic" in some cases (Alvesson, 2010). People may define themselves by "extreme" and "complete connections" and "separations," "partial connections," and "the lack of connection" altogether (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). Identification and disidentification play roles in an employee's self-concept (Zagenczyk, Gibney, Few & Scott, 2011). ODI is formed, employees experience a cognitive separation between their identities and the organization's identity, and form a negative relational categorization with the organization (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

Employees may have certain expectations, values, beliefs, and practices toward their organization (Voelkl, 1997). When employees perceive that the organization does not have values or practices that they expect that the organization should have, then they can psychologically detach themselves from the inappropriate values and negative stereotypes to maintain positive differentiation and avoid negative distinctions (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001).

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In the identification process, employees can achieve self-enhancement by their similarity with the organization that has a high status; however, in the disidentification process, psychologically disassociating with the organization and the creating of negative distinctiveness may help individuals to achieve self-enhancement (Vadera & Pratt, 2013). Positive attributes of the organization urge employees to identify with their role relationship, whereas negative attributes of the organization urged employees to disidentify with their relationship (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

Researchers have explored the causes of ODI. For example, Kreiner (2002) found that ODI was significantly linked to intra-role conflict, individualism negative affect, negative organizational reputation, cynicism, psychological contract fulfillment, and negative affect. Chang et al. (2013) found that person-organization fit and abusive supervision are related to ODI.

When an "organization's identity and an employee's identity are incongruent, then his or her personal identity is likely to be aroused" (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998, p. 191). It can then lead to employee confusion or imbalance about their identity (Chang, Kuo, Su, & Taylor, 2013), which may feel less belongingness to the organization. Also, they may not perceive themselves as an accepted member within the organization. In the end, employees may not include an organization in their definition, their commitment to the organization, and cause disbelief, anger, and suspicion about the organization (Voelkl, 1997; Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001).

Moreover, when the employee perceives that the organization does not actively try to reduce the incongruences, he/she may either dissociate himself/herself from the organization physically, psychologically or both.

ODI may take various forms such as cynicism, skepticism, and irony (Costas, & Fleming, 2009). ODI also can lead to employees' support for a rival organization, criticizing the organization (Elsbach, & Bhattacharya, 2001), or categorize the organization as "rivals" or even "enemies" (Lawrence & Kaufmann, 2011). Employees with OI are more likely to view the organization as negative or pessimistic and have potential negative experiences, perceptions, and attitudes (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Furthermore, they disagree with the norms or stereotypes of the organization and strive to differentiate themselves from the organization (Vadera & Pratt, 2013). The National Rifle Association study by Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001), employees with ODI actively oppose the organization and openly criticize the organization. Non-prototype low identities in organizations looking for desirable out-groups can use ODI as a defense mechanism. (Ellemers & Doosje, 1999). Thus, Some employees may actually leave the original organization looking for members with higher status organizations to recover positive distinctiveness (Tajfel, 2010; Van Dick, 2004).

2.4 Antecedents of organizational identification

This study has investigated the antecedents of Organizational Identification (OI) using a systematic review approaching. 33 journals and 2 books were reviewed and identified the most frequently cited antecedents of OI. Table 2.1 presents the most frequently cited the antecedents of OI.

Table 2. 1 The most cited antecedents of organizational identification

Factors	Publications	Author
Prestige	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Mael et al. (1992)
	Academy of management review	Ashforth et al. (1989)
	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Bartels et al. (2007)

	Journal	Citation
	Journal of Product & Brand Management	Kuenzel et al. (2008)
	Academy of Management Review	Galvin et al. (2015)
	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology	Lipponen et al. (2005).
	Identity in Organizations: Building Theory Through Conversations	Pratt et al. (1998).
	Academy of Management Journal	Lee, S. M. (1971)
	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Jones et al. (2011)
	Journal of services marketing	Gwinner et al(2003)
	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Bartels et al. (2007)
	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology	Lipponen et al. (2005).
Distinctiveness	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Jones et al. (2011)
	Journal of services marketing	Gwinner et al. (2003)
	Academy of management review	Ashforth et al. (1989)
	Zeitschrift für Personalpsychologie	Riketta et al. (2006)
	Identity in Organizations: Building Theory Through Conversations	Pratt, M. G. (1998).
Similarity	Journal of Applied Social Psychology	Gibney et al. (2011)
	Academy of Management.	KREINER, G. E (2002)
	Identity in Organizations: Building Theory Through Conversations	Pratt, M. G. (1998).
	Administrative Science Quarterly	Dutton et al. (1994)
Construed external image	Journal of applied psychology	Ahearne et al. (2005)
	Administrative Science Quarterly	Dukerich et al. (2002)
Identity	Administrative Science Quarterly	Dutton et al. (1994)
	British Journal of Management	Van Dick et al. (2004)

Prestige is the most cited factor. Individuals tend to identify with organizations that perceived as prestigious because being a member of such an organization make employees more proud and emphasize the need for self-enhancement. (Albert et al., 2000). Carmeli, Gilat, and Weisberg (2006) showed that perceived external prestige is positively linked to cognitive identification results in enhanced affective commitment. The second most frequently quoted element is the distinctiveness. Based on the SIT, social identity and inter-group behavior are induced by pursuing a positive social identity (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

When employees found their organization is superior to other organizations, they perceive themselves that they have a high subjective status and a positive social identity (Turner, 1982). The third factor is a similarity with the organization. A social group can be defined as "two or more individuals who share a common social identification of themselves, or, similarly, perceive themselves to be a member of the same category" (Tajfel, 2010, p. 15). Employees tend to identify with organizations that they perceive to be similar to themselves (Van Knippenberg & Van Schie, 2000). The fourth factor is construed external image. Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994) indicated that organizational members tend to identify with organizations that have positive public images.

The present study focuses on employees' perceive brand authenticity (PBA) and perceived organizational support (POS) as the antecedents of OI. It is the first attempt to examine the role of PBA on restaurant employees' OI. Brand authenticity has been one of the major topics in consumer behavior research, but surprisingly little research on academic literature has examined the impact of brand authenticity within the organization. Like in a customer-brand relationship, employees, internal customers, may also look for a more authentic brand or unit during their job search; brand authenticity may help them to maintain their positive social identity. Some organizational scholars have been interested in the role of POS in enhancing employees' OI. When employees perceive that they are not merely tools to increase organization's profit in the organization and the organization appreciates their contributions and care about their work performance and their wellbeing, then they may increase their psychological attachment with the organization.

2.5 Antecedents of organizational disidentification

Although many antecedents of OI have been explored in the existing research, only some studies have examined the antecedents of ODI. In their exploratory study, Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) found that disidentification is negatively linked to organizational reputation and positively linked to negative affectivity, cynicism, and psychological contract breaches. Extending this study (2004), Ashforth et al. (2013) identified that occupational identification has significant positive relationships with occupational reputation and negative affectivity and has a significant negative relationship with need for occupational identification and occupational reputation. The present study proposes two antecedents of ODI: POO and PUOB).

Gibney et al. (2011) argued that POO facilitates employees' cognitive disassociation with their employers, and they found that POO is a significant predictor of ODI and POO is distinguished from a low perception of organizational support. In POO, the organization actively hinders employees from reaching their personal professional goals. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1968), when employees perceive that the organization hinders or harms them or the organization does not care about their wellbeing, they will cognitively separate themselves from the organization.

Unethical organizational behavior can affect customers, employees, and stakeholders; such behavior may lead to devastating consequences such as threatening customers' or employee's safety and financial and reputational losses. Employees' psychological attachment or detachment with the organization can be determined by the organization's ethical behaviors (Ploeger & Bisel, 2013). ODI may occur when employees perceive a gap between their defining attributes or values and the attributes or values defining the organization (Ferrell, 2004). To

restore their positive distinctiveness, they may cognitively separate themselves from the organization.

2.6 Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

Organizations need to have high employee OCB. OCB is defined as "behavior(s) of a discretionary nature that is not part of the employee's formal role requirements but promote the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Organizations rely on not only employees' formal performances but also employee cooperative behaviors beyond role prescriptions, altruism, and unrewarded voluntary help from employees. Employees' attitudes and behaviors are crucial, especially in the service industry. In many cases, providing expected service is inadequate to impress customers. To attract and retain customers, service organizations should be interested in how to promote employees' OCB to deliver high-quality service. Service is the main product in the service industries. Small differences in customer contact employees' attitudes or behaviors can greatly affect customer satisfaction or revisit intention. Customer contact employees can directly affect customer satisfaction, and they can perform marketing functions during interaction with customers (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996). To provide a high quality of service, organizations are looking for the way to encourage employees to perform discretionary behaviors that are beyond their official duties. OCB also provides organizations with a competitive advantage by helping employees manage resources more efficiently, coordinate activities within teams, and help employees adapt to changing environments more efficiently. (Van Der Vegt, Van De Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003).

Although the degrees differ, every organization relies on employees' behaviors of "cooperation, helpfulness, suggestion, gestures of goodwill, altruism" (Smith, Organ, & Near,

1983, p. 653). Organ (1988) suggested conceptually distinct dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Altruism refers to "the behavior that has the effect of helping a specific another person with an organizationally relevant task or problem." Conscientiousness refers to "discretionary behaviors on the part of the employee that goes beyond the formal role requirements of the organization, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth." Sportsmanship refers to "the willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining" (Organ, 1988, p. 11). Courtesy refers to "discretionary behavior on the part of an individual aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring." Civic virtue refers to "the behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the company" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990, p. 115). Podsakoff et al. (1990) operationalized Organ's (1988) five dimensions. Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed an alternative two-dimensional conceptualization of OCB that consists of behaviors directed toward individuals (OCB-I) and those directed toward the organization (OCB-O). Anderson (1991) also reduced organ's five dimensions into OCB-I (altruism and courtesy) and OCB-O (conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). OCB-O benefits the organization directly, whereas OCB-I contributes to the organization indirectly by benefiting other employees. The present study only focuses on employees' behaviors that can directly contribute to organizational success. Therefore, OCB-I was excluded.

2.7 Behavioral intentions: Intention to stay and intention to leave

In the restaurant industry, the high turnover rate has been a serious issue. Inexperienced employees can lower productivity and service quality. The behavioral intention has been

considered one of the most immediate predictors of voluntary turnover (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Mobley, 1977). Behavioral intention refers to "to individuals' perceived probability of staying in the employing organization or terminating employment. In other words, behavioral intentions reflect the motivation to stay or leave." (Parasuraman, 1982, p. 113). Intention to stay refers to "employees' conscious and deliberate willingness to stay with the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262), whereas intention to leave refers to "an employee's decision to leave the current job and look onwards to find another job in the near future" (Rizwan, Arshad, Munir, Iqbal & Hussain, 2014, p. 4). In most previous studies, scholars used these two terms interchangeably. However, some researchers have argued that intention to stay and intention to leave are the same, diametrically opposed, dimension. Cho, Johanson, and Guchait (2009) found that POS is associated with both the intention to stay and the intention to leave but that POS is a much stronger predictor for intention to stay than for intention to leave. In the present study, the intention to stay and intention to leave were measured.

2.8 Research Model and Hypothesis Development

2.8.1 Hypotheses

Based on the above-mentioned theoretical relationships among study variables, this research proposed the following four hypotheses:

H1: Perceived organizational support is positively associated with organizational identification.

H2: Perceived brand authenticity is positively associated with organizational identification.

H3: Perceived unethical organization behavior is positively associated with organizational disidentification.

H4: Perceived organizational obstruction is positively associated with organizational disidentification.

H5: Organizational identification is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior.

H6: Organizational identification is positively associated with the intention to stay.

H7: Organizational disidentification is negatively associate with Organizational citizenship behavior.

H8: Organizational disidentification is positively associated with the intention to leave.

2.8.2 Proposed Model

Figure 2.1 presents the proposed research model. OI, ODI, OCB, intention to stay, and intention to leave are the endogenous variables, and POS, PBA, PUOB, and POO are exogenous variables.
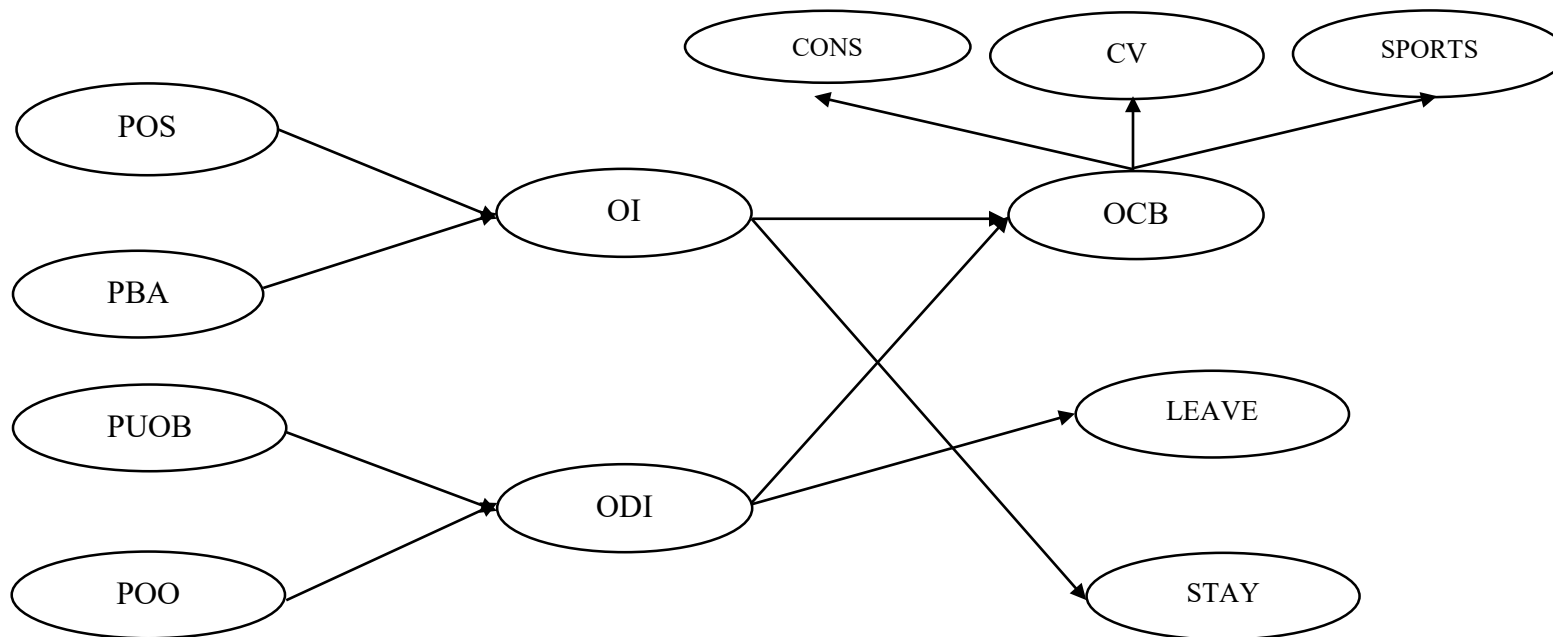
Figure 2. 1 Proposed model
Notes: POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity, POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction, PUOB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior, OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizational disidentification, BI – Behavioral Intention, OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave, CONS – conscientiousness, CV – Civic virtue, SPORTS – sportsmanship

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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter 2 discusses the research design and data analysis to reach research goals. Study 1 was performed for scale development of OI and ODI. In Study 2, A survey questionnaire was created based on a literature review to test the conceptual framework and then conducted in-depth personal interviews with restaurant employees to create additional survey questions to achieve a collective view on OI and ODI. Figure 2 Summarized the procedure used to develop OI and ODI measures and test the conceptual model.

STUDY 1. SCALE DEVELOPMENT OF OI AND ODI

3.1 Scale development procedures

The scale development procedures followed guidelines of Churchill's (1979), Anderson and Gerbing's (1988), and Gerbing and Anderson (1988).

3.1.1. Specify Domain of Construct

The first step to developing OI and ODI measures was to specify the area of the structure and review of the literature as suggested by Churchill (1979). Scholars are increasingly focusing on intangible resources and relationships in the organization (Lush & Harvey, 1994), however, assessing employee OI and ODI has not conducted in restaurant settings. Before generating measures, relevant items were identified from reviewing the existing literature. Identification and

disidentification have been studied in different areas of research such as nationalism, customer marketing, academic area, and ranging in length from 3 items to 25 items and unidimensional to multidimensional.

3.1.2 Generate a sample of items

The second step is generating a large pool of items which capture the domain as specified (Churchill, 1979). The scales of identification is varied through research (see Table 1 and Table 2). Existing measures included cognitive (e.g., centrality, membership), evaluative (e.g., similarity) and affective factors (e.g. ingroup bond, ingroup tie) (Tajfel, 1981; Miller. Allen, Casey, & Johnson, 2000; Cameron, 2004). Semi-structured personal interviews were conducted to generate a broad range of items. Interviewees consisted of restaurant, managers, and employees and they were asked to describe their experiences in the restaurant industry in an open-ended format. The purpose of the in-depth interviews was to identify specific characteristics of OI and ODI. The interviews were transcribed, analyzed, and converted into items. Then, a preliminary list of OI and ODI measurement scales were generated based on previous measures and information from the interviews.

3.1.3 Data Collection 1

To identify clusters of variables from the expert meeting, an online survey was conducted. An online survey was distributed to 500 restaurant employees in the USA through MTurk. A total of 500 responses remained after deleting the responses that answered wrong on attention question. A total of 455 responses remained after deleting outliers and the responses that answered wrong on an attention question.

3.1.4 Item refinement

For item refinement, exploratory factor analysis assesses, coefficient alpha, item-total were accessed. low standardized factor loadings indicating poorly capturing the construct and with cross-loading were removed.

3.1.5 Data collection 2

Another online survey using MTurk was conducted to assess validity and reliability (Churchill, 1979). The survey was distributed electronically to 250 restaurant employees in the USA. Only eligible participants could participate in this study. We conducted a pre-survey screen to ascertain that they reside within the US, at least 18 years of age, are fluent in English, and are current restaurant employees. To increase the validity, the name of the restaurant where the participant is currently working was asked followed by choosing the concept of the restaurant. If two answers do not match, they were removed from the sample. Also, an attention check question was included, the responses with an incorrect response were removed from the sample.

3.1.6 Assess Reliability and Validity

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to verify empirically whether the number of dimensions conceptualized correctly (Churchill, 1979) and directly tests Unidimensionality of constructs (Gerbing & Anderson,1988). When dimensionality was confirmed, the reliability of each construct was assessed. The average variance extracted (AVE) were calculated to verify the convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 1998).

STUDY 2. INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG STUDY VARIABLES

3.2.1 Procedure

Study 2 used a two-step approach. Before the structural equation modeling (SEM), a measurement model was estimated to test the internal and external consistency of the measures, and then the SEM was used to examine the relationships among research variables. According to Gerbing and Anderson (1988), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the maximum likelihood method was conducted to test reliability, and convergent, construct and discriminant validity. Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were assessed to examine the internal consistency of each construct. To test convergent and discriminant validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) of the proposed model, (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) was used. The square root of the AVE for each latent variable needs to be higher than any of the bivariate correlations involving the latent variables in question, indicating discriminant validity. (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In addition, predictive validity test was conducted assessing the correlation coefficients with OI, ODI and job satisfaction using multiple regression analysis.

An additional CFA model was conducted to compare with the hypothesized model. An objective of this analysis was to establish whether OI and ODI constructs can indeed be interpreted as distinct constructs (discriminant validity) which have separate antecedents. Thus, the hypothesized twelve-factor CFA model tested compared to the fit of the eleven-factor CFA model that assumes all items measuring OI and ODI all loaded on one latent factor.

The next, SEM was used to test the relationships among research variables. The hypothesized model was first examined via a fitness modeling test. A competing model has added 12 direct paths from the POS, PBA, POO, PUOB to behavioral intentions and OCB in the hypothesized model.

Figure 3. 1 Procedures

Qualitative		Quantitative

Study 1

Content analysis	Thorough literature on identification and disidentification	Item refinement	

↓

Personal interview	Restaurant employees, managers	Online survey 1	Exploratory factor analysis Unit of analysis Categorization

↓

↓

Expert input	Faculty, restaurant employee, Ph. D. student	Online survey 2	Confirmatory factor analysis Coefficient alpha • Composite reliability • Convergent validity • Discriminant validity Criterion validity

↓

Context analysis	Interpret and code qualitative data. Develop conceptual framework		

↓

Scale development and item editing	Develop scale –items Pretest – Categorization – inspected items –		

Study 2

Online survey 3	

↓

Data Analysis	Exploratory factor analysis Confirmatory factor analysis Structural equation modeling

↓

Conclusion

3.2.2 Measures

A 5-point Likert-type scale(except the demographic items) was used to measure participants' perceptions ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Also, we included several characteristics in the study: age, education, gender, ethnicity, organization tenure, industry tenure, and whether they are part-time or full time.

Organizational identification (OI), organizational disidentification (ODI): Because this study assumed that OI and ODI entailed a different phenomenological experience, direct measures of each form were used. The questionnaire included questions about OI and ODI measurements identified through the scale development process.

Perceived organizational support (POS), perceived organizational obstruction (POO): POS was measured by taking five items which were most relevant items in the restaurant operation from the 36-item scales developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). A sample item for POS is "This organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work" and "This organization really cares about my well-being". To measure POO, a four-item scale by Gibney et al. (2009) was used. A sample item for POO is "This organization blocks from reaching my professional goals" and "This organization is an obstacle to my well-being".

Perceived Brand Authenticity(PBA): PBA was measured by taking 6 items that can apply in a restaurant brand from 14 items consumer-based brand authenticity measure developed by Napoli et al (2014). A sample item for PBA is "This organization has a strong connection to a historical period in time, culture and/or specific region."

Perceived Unethical Organization Behavior (PUOB): PUCB was measured by taking 5 items from 37 items of unethical behavior developed by Kaptein, M. (2008). Keptein's unethical behavior scale was consist of five subscales comprising mainly related to financiers, customers,

employees, suppliers, and society. This study used 5 items which showed the highest frequency of observed unethical behavior toward employees. A sample item for PUOB is "This organization is discriminating against employees (based on age, race, gender, religious belief, sexual orientation, etc.)" and "This organization is violating employee wage, overtime, or benefits rules."

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): Organizational citizenship behavior was measured by three-dimensional OCB-O measures (conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). Conscientiousness was assessed by 4 items developed by Lo, and Ramayah, T. (2009). Civic virtue was assessed by 5 items developed by Lo, and Ramayah, T. (2009). Sportsmanship was measured by 4 items developed by Konovsky and Organ (1996).

Behavioral intention (intention to stay, intention to leave)*:* Intention to stay was assessed by 2 items developed by Gibney et al. (2009) and 1 item developed by Kim et al. "I would stay with this organization even if offered the same position with slightly higher pay at another company"; "It is likely for me to work for this company as long as this organization wants me"; and "I would be reluctant to leave this". Following Meyer et al., Intention to leave the was measured with three items developed by Labatmedienė, Endriulaitienė, & Gustainienė, (2007): "I frequently think about leaving the organization," "I am searching for a job in another organization" and "I will actually leave the organization within the next year". One item was generated to measure intention to leave. "I would not think twice leaving [name of the restaurant (brand)] if I have another opportunity."

3.2.3 Data collection and analysis

This study was conducted to determine the underlying psychological processes forming an employee's intention to stay in restaurant settings. An online survey was conducted to test the

theoretical framework. The population of this study was restaurant employees who were currently working in restaurants in the USA. MTurk was used to collect data during February 2019. MTurk was the survey company that administered the online survey. To improve response rates, reward (25 cents) is presented when a respondent completes the survey. MTurk recruited current restaurant employees after verification of consent form, ethnic group, age and identified participants who completed the survey too fast or in the same pattern. MTurk also used procedures to prevent the same panelist from completing the survey more than once. The respondents who answered who were not living in the USA or 18 years of age or younger were excluded. Also, to ensure that respondents are at great attention throughout, one attention check question was included in the middle of the survey. The responses which had a wrong answer for the check question were excluded. SPSS 22 for Windows 11.0 and Mplus 7.4. were used for data analyses.

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CHAPTER IV

ORGIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL DISIDENTIFICATION MEASUREMENT DEVELOPMENT: A RESTAURANT SETTING

4.1 Introduction

SIT has frequently been used to predict work-related intention and attitudes (Rikettaa & Van Dick, 2004). When individuals perceive themselves as part of a social group, they internalize these groups as part of their self-concept, and these processes can produce group behaviors (Turner, 1982). Employees who identify strongly with the organization tend to view themselves as a part of the organization (Boroş, 2008) and tent to behave in a manner consistent with the norms and stereotypes of the organization (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998). Such employees tend to feel proud to be a part of the organization and respect its values and accomplishments. Furthermore, they are more motivated and more likely to be linked with positive organizational attitudes or behaviors (Kelman, 1958).

However, people psychologically distance themselves with that organization which is stigmatizing or violates personally important moral standards (Becker & Tausch, 2014) to maintain positive distinctiveness and avoid negative images attributed to an organization (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). OI refers to employees' cognitive connection with an organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), whereas ODI refers to a sense of separateness with the organization (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001).

Researchers and practitioners in the restaurant industry have attempted to understand the process by which employees psychologically attach or detach with the organization. Adequate scales are used to assess identification and disidentification with the organization. Although

identification is an important psychological phenomenon in organizational settings, understanding of the conceptualizations and measurements of the variables involved has been inconsistent (Boroş, 2008). Furthermore, the appropriateness of SIT measures in the hospitality industry, particularly in the restaurant sector, has rarely been examined. Surprisingly little academic and empirical research has especially been conducted on the structure, measurement, correlates, and consequences of ODI (Becker, J. C., & Tausch, N. 2014). OI and ODI have been measured with many different scales. To date, few studies have systematically explored the exact nature of dimensionality of OI and ODI, leaving their precise compositions unclear. The present study outlines how OI and ODI have been measured in previous studies.

This study attempts to contribute further insights into the nature, dimensionality, and measurement of OI and ODI. It has two objectives: (1) to develop scales that measure employees' identification and disidentification with the organization and which have desirable reliability and validity and (2) to identify underlying dimensions of OI and ODI in the restaurant industry.

The present study provides several contributions. It defines the dimensions that compose OI and ODI and developed scales to measure them. Organizations can use these scales for assessing, planning, and tracking employees' psychological attachment and detachment with the organization. Based on the assessment, organizations can develop strategies to allocate their resources to the important aspects to enhance OI and decrease ODI.

4.2 Literature review

4.2.1 Organizational identification (OI)

The social identity theory (SIT) has long been recognized as an important theoretical framework to predict individual's behaviors (Van Dick et al, 2004). d OI defined as "perceived

oneness and belongingness to an organization" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 103). According to SIT's assumptions, OI is formed, employees view themselves as members of the organization (Boroş, 2008). Employees with OI tend to feel proud to be a part of the organization and respect its values and accomplishments. Also, they are more likely to be motivated and to be linked with positive organizational attitudes or behaviors (Kelman,1958). They also act in a way that complies with the norms and stereotypes of the organization. (Whetten and Godfrey,1998, p 185). Furthermore, the employees' self-perception tends to be depersonalized and they perceive the success or failure of the organization as one's personal success or failure. Then, they may strive to maintain or enhance their positive and distinctive self-concept (Hogg and Terry, 2000) through the success or prestige of the organization. Thus, highly identified employees are more likely to exert effort for organizational success to enhance their own self-esteem (Dutton et al., 1994; van Dick, 2004).

Previous research has shown that OI increase organizational commitment, supporting behaviors for the organization (Bhattacharya et al, 1995; Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001), extra-role behaviors, employees' work performance while decrease employees' turnover intentions (van Knippenberg, 2000; Van Dick et al., 2004; Harris and Cameron, 2005). Because of the benefits of OI may bring to organizations, numerous antecedents of OI have been explored in existing research. Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) noted that an organization's identity attractiveness was linked to self-consistency motives ("how similar it is to employee's own identity"), self-differentiation motives ("how distinctive it is with other social groups"), and the satisfaction of self-enhancement motives ("how prestige it is"). The frequently cited antecedents were prestige, distinctiveness, and self–brand similarity. Employees may identify with organizations when they perceive the organization is prestigious because membership in a

prestigious organization enhances their self-esteem (Albert et al., 2000). Also, the more employees identify with the organization, the more they perceive themselves to be members of the organization (Tajfel, 2010).

4.2.2 Organizational Disidentification (ODI)

Compared with OI, organizational disidentification (ODI), as an extended form of social identification (Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004), has received relatively less attention. Elsbach and Bhattacharya, (2001) defined ODI as "self-perception based on a cognitive separation between one's identity and the organization's identity and a negative relational categorization of oneself and the organization" (p. 393). When employees perceive that they define themselves as not having the same values or principles, ODI occurs. To maintain positive distinctiveness, they dissociate themselves from the incompatible values and undesirable stereotypes of the organization (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001).

Previous studies found that ODI was positively associated with intra-role conflict, negative affect, and cynicism (Kreiner, 2002), person-organization fit and abusive supervision (Chang, Kuo, Su and Taylor, 2013) while negatively with organizational reputation, psychological contract fulfillment, negative affect, and individualism (Kreiner, 2002). Disidentification may take multiple forms, including cynicism, humor, skepticism, and irony (Costas, and Fleming, 2009). OIDs can result in negative consequences such as increased turnover intention (Lai, Chan, and Lam, 2013) or reduced efforts on long-term tasks (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). ODI also may lead to undesirable behaviors such as opposing the organization, criticizing the organization publicly (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001).

Furthermore, some employees may consider their organizations as "rivals" or even "enemies" (Lawrence & Kaufmann, 2011). Also, they tend to view the organization in a negative or pessimistic way and embrace potential negative experiences and attitudes (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989; Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004). Also, ODI can be used as a defensive mechanism by non-prototypical low identifiers who searching for a more desirable outgroup (Ellemers & Doosje, 1999).

4.2.3 Review of existing measures of identification

Much literature has focused on identification with the social group (e.g., Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Ikegami & Ishida, 2007). Table 1 provides a summary of identification measures proposed in previous research.

- Insert Table 4.1 here -

Many scholars believe that OI overlaps with organizational constructs such as involvement, satisfaction, and commitment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Tetrick, 1992; Pratt, 1998). Several researchers have argued that OI is part of attitudinal organizational commitment or that the two are identical (e.g., Griffin et al., 1986; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). However, after Mael and Ashforth (1992). Organizational researchers empirically tested and supported that OI is a unique conceptual construct (e.g., Ashforth & Mael,1989; Pratt, 1998; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000).

Researchers also have debated whether OI is unidimensional or multidimensional. Mael and Ashforth (1992) developed a unidimensional OI scale to measure alumni's identification with their religious school. The measures were generated based on Ashforth and Mael's (1989) definition of OI: "perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate" (p.

21). The scale consists of six items and is one of the most frequently used OI measures (Riketta, 2005). In addition to Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale, various unidimensional group identification measures with various social groups are developed. Examples include OI (Cheney, 1982), sports fan identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) national identification (Verkuyten, Yildiz, 2007), cultural identification (Zou, Morris, & Benet-Martínez, 2008), and brand identification (Wolter, Brach, Cronin Jr., & Bonn, 2016). In Voelkl's (1996) study, the overall goodness of fit for the two-factor model that consisted of separate measures of belonging and valuing is not significantly better than that of the unidimensional model. Shamir and Kark (2004) presented a simple graphical scale for the measurement of identification with the organization. The circles in the graphical measure overlap differently. The degree to which the two circles overlapped indicates the extent to which an employee identified with the organization. However, the graphic scale is not superior to verbal scales of OI. This single-item measure requires further empirical support of its reliability and validity.

However, several researchers were interested in identifying and examining the components of group identification. Tajfel (1981) proposed that group identification consists of three dimensions. 1) The cognitive factor recognizes group membership that can help individuals to organize in the social group. 2) The evaluative factor provides meaning by comparing ingroups with outgroups. 3) The affective factor is emotionally involved with the particular social group (Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004). Miller et al. (2000) identified three dimensions from Cheney's (1982) 25-item OI questionnaire (OIQ). They found that only 12 items contribute to the OI scale, and they are composed of three factors: membership (3 items), loyalty (6 items), and similarity (3 items). Cameron (2004) suggested a three-factor model of social identity that consists of 1) centrality, "the frequency with which the group comes

to mind" and "the subjective importance of the group to self-definition" (p. 243); 2) ingroup affect, "specific emotions that arise from group membership" (p.243), and 3) ingroup ties, "the extent to which group members feel 'stuck to,' or part of, particular social groups" (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990, p. 482). The present study attempts to assess identification with real-life using an experimental method across multiple groups and samples (Harris, & Cameron, 2005). The three-factor model has a superior fit to one- or two-factor models.

4.2.4 Review of existing measures of disidentification

Disidentification has been studied in different areas of research, such as national disidentification (e.g., Verkuyten, & Yildiz, 2007), customer disidentification (e.g., Josiassen, 2011; Wolter, Brach, Cronin Jr, & Bonn, 2016), ODI (e.g., Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001), and academic disidentification (e.g., Osborne, 1997). Although several researchers addressed disidentification, little empirical evidence exists regarding its structure, measurement, antecedents, and consequences. Table 4.2 represents a summary of disidentification measures proposed in previous research.

<center>- Insert Table 4.2 here</center>

Most scholars suggested and used unidimensional scales to measure disidentification. Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) conducted an exploratory study. They developed a three-item scale and tested a framework of ODI with focus groups consisting of university students, faculty, and staff. The measures were generated based on the following definitions: "cognitive separation between one's identity and organization's identity" and "one's negative relational categorization of oneself and the organization" (p. 393). Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) developed measures of the four dimensions of the expanded model: identification, disidentification, ambivalent

<center>72</center>

identification, and neutral identification; they tested the operationalization of the four

dimensions. Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) tested the ODI measure of public disidentification

with external members, whereas Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) tested organizational members,

and the four factors are correlated but support the discriminability of disidentification construct.

Disidentification is positively correlated with ambivalent and neutral identification and

negatively correlated with identification. Several other researchers also developed

unidimensional scales to measure disidentification (e.g., Silver, 2001; Ikegami, Ishida, 2007;

Verkuyten, & Yildiz, 2007; Zou, X., Morris & Benet-Martínez, 2008).

Becker and Tausch (2014) argued that disidentification has more than one dimension and

introduced a multi-dimension model of group disidentification consisting of 1) detachment, "a

negative motivational state that ranges from feelings of rather passive alienation and

estrangement to an active separation from one's ingroup;" 2) dissatisfaction, a feeling of

"unhappy about belonging to the group and regret their group membership;" and 3) dissimilarity,

"the degree to which individuals perceive themselves as different from the ingroup prototype"

(pp. 295–296). They found that the three-factor model fits the data better than alternative one and

two-factor models with two samples with different cultural and language contexts. Group

disidentification measures predict negative behavioral intentions better than identification

measures, whereas the identification measures predict positive behavioral intentions better than

the disidentification scales. Identification and disidentification can be distinct factors.

Although the identification studies have expanded in scope, the appropriate methods for

measuring OI and ODI still need clarification. In addition, whether existing measures are suitable

to measure employees' identification and disidentification in the restaurant industry has not been

examined. The restaurant industry has higher employee turnover rate than other industries do

(The Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018), and average employee tenure is just 1 month and 26 days (7shifts.com, 2018), possibly leading to a different level of psychological attachment or detachment with the organization. Thus, the present study developed the measures of OI and ODI that can apply to restaurant employees.

4.3 Scale development procedure

The scale development procedures were followed by guidelines of Churchill's (1979), Anderson and Gerbing's (1988), and Gerbing and Anderson (1988).

4.3.1. Specify Domain of Construct

According to Churchill's paradigm (1979), the first step of study 1 was specifying the domain of the construct and a literature review. Scholars are increasingly focusing on intangible resources and relationships in the organization (Lush & Harvey, 1994), however, assessing employee OI and ODI has not conducted in restaurant settings. First, relevant items from reviewing the existing literature were identified. Identification and disidentification have been studied in different areas of research such as nationalism, customer marketing, academic area, and ranging in length from 3 items to 25 items and unidimensional to multidimensional. (see Table 4.1, 4.2).

4.3.2 Generate samples of items

The next step is to create a large pool of items to capture the domain as specified. (Churchill, 1979). The measure of social identification varied across the studies (see Table 1 and Table 2). Existing measures included cognitive (e.g., centrality, membership), evaluative (e.g.,

similarity) and affective factors (e.g. ingroup bond, ingroup tie) (Tajfel, 1981; Miller, Allen, Casey, & Johnson, 2000; Cameron, 2004). Semi-structured personal interviews were conducted to generate a wide range of items. The interviewees were composed of restaurants, managers, and staff and asked to be described in an open format. The purpose of the in-depth interview was to identify the specific characteristics of OI and ODI. The interviews were transcribed, analyzed, and converted into items. Then, a preliminary list of OI and ODI measurement scales (111 OI items and 83 ODI respectively) were generated based on previous measures and information from the interviews.

4.3.2.1 Personal interview

Sixteen semi-structured interviews were conducted for restaurant employees. The interviews were conducted between April and May 2019. At the beginning of the interview, interviewees were asked about working experiences in the food and beverage industry. Interviews were recorded and transcribed. To protect participants' confidentiality, participants were coded with numbers (P1 to P16). The average industry tenure was 4.5 years (n = 16), and 9 interviewees (57%) were male. Each interviewee was interviewed for approximately 30 minutes. Most of the participants worked in more than one facility and experienced multiple positions. All participants have working experiences not only in restaurants but also in other industries. To understand employees' psychological attachment or detachment within the organization, the interviewer asked a series of questions. Nine OI items and eleven ODI items were generated by these interviews. The sample questions are summarized in Table 4.3 and the dispositional characteristics of the participant are presented in Table 4.4.

- Insert Table 4.3 here –

Organizational identification

The interviewees shared interesting personal working experiences in the food and beverage industry. When they talked about the brand or the restaurant to which they were especially attached, they used terms such as "love, like, interact, enjoy, care, excited, relaxed, happy, trust, learn, important and impacted".

"I like to communicate with people. That's why I like it. I feel like I was doing something important."

"I like everything about that. I loved everything. Bosses, coworkers, food…. It was coordinated, systematic…

Several factors influenced their attachment with the organization. The most-cited factor was relationships with others in the organization. In particular, similarities with others in the organization in terms of age, ethnicity, language, and cultural background were important factors to create a sense of belonging to the organization.

"If you don't like coworkers, you don't like the job. It is really important to build a good team that actually like each other."

"I was bonded with employees like family. We have so much in common. We used to do a lot of stuff together inside and outside of work. We enjoyed working together."

The participants who are strongly attached to the organization, consistent with previous literature, perceived the organization's success as their personal success (Ashforth &

Mael, 1989). They also perform beyond their formal duties such as participating in job referrals and helping out on off days or after work (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983).

"I want to be recognized for my work. I don't get recognition for my work where I work now."

"They really take care of their employees. Every month they have a culture event. It is the way to celebrate employees. Every month, last month, they took us to the rodeo. They paid for the tickets and everything. This month they take us to the Astros game. It shows us that they really care about their employees. Having fun."

Organizational disidentification

Organizational disidentification is "cognitive separation between one's identity and organization's identity" and "one's negative relational categorization of oneself and the organization" (p. 393). When participants described the brand or the restaurant to which they did not feel attached, they used terms like "left on my own," "don't care," "hate," "terrible," "not belonging," "poor," "not happy," "miserable," "not good enough," "mess," "different," "not suitable," "lost passion," and "don't enjoy."

"I hate it absolutely hate it. The management is terrible, the chef is terrible, just all around terrible."

When they were asked "When did you feel that you did not belong to the organization?", three main streams of answers were observed. First, some participants answered that they felt that they were strangers there when they had just joined the organization. Their inexperience or mistakes made the participants think they were lagging behind others in the organization. The uncomfortable feeling was stronger when they perceived that they did not receive proper training from the organization.

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"The first time I started to work in XXX, I didn't know anything about XXX. I didn't know what to do. Everyone else is so much better than me. I didn't feel like I am belonging there. I asked myself, Do I really want to do this? do I have to continue?"

"Everyone was already searching for a job but I couldn't because hospitality was all about experiences. I didn't have much work experiences".

Others mentioned different culture, age, ethnicity, and languages. When they perceived they are the only one who had a different ethnicity, education level, nationality, etc.

"I don't really talk with coworkers because they speak Spanish. We have different cultures. I only meet them at work".

Also, they felt that they did not belong there when they have a different career goal.

"It is not tied with my XXX emphasis. I am more hospitality oriented person. My current work, everyone is more reactive than proactive. They don't do anything until you see the problem, very different from hospitality".

Some of them overcame isolated feelings when they were getting used to the organization culture

"I decided to continue. After learning more…. looking back, I am glad I continued".

However, some participant answered they would stay with the organization just until they found a new opportunity.

"It is not poor enough made me quit. I guess. I am only there, I about to graduate".

"I would not really think twice going somewhere else if I have a better opportunity."

They were also asked for opinions at work as an observer. "As a supervisor or coworker, how do you spot the person who is attached to the organization and who is not?" They described

the former as "proactive," "passionate," "enthusiastic," "open to new changes," and "focused."

"They always think "What can I do, what can I do?"

While they described the latter as "lazy, slow, pessimistic, complaining all the time".

"They just clock in and out. Pick up a paycheck. They don't care about a lot of things."

"They always think "Do I have to? Do I have to?"

"They just want to do the barely minimum. Whatever takes them to not get in the trouble and get the job done. also taking a short cut."

Overall, when participants were attached to the brand or the restaurant, they perceived that they were playing important roles in the organization and considered the organization's success their personal success. They were very knowledgeable about their tasks and the organization. In addition, they were interested in matters beyond their formal duties such as the organization's reputation and growth. However, when they psychologically dissociated themselves from the organization, they felt isolated and perceived themselves differently from others in the organization. They also tended to have little interaction with other members of the organization.

Most of the participants had congruent images between the brand and the working unit. However, some participants showed different levels of attachment with the brand and the unit. One participant was very satisfied with the company policies or the systems of the organization, but they were not satisfied with hiring processes and working environments in the restaurant. Another participant felt cognitively separated in the organization, although the participant thought that the organization was a nice place to work. This participant perceived that others in the organization were different in terms of age and education.

"I like all about the Company including policies, emergency family fund, CSR, however, my unit was at high volume area and region manager turnover was too high. Many GMs were fired. The culture in the unit was not ideal."

"It was a really nice hotel and it is really cool but… at that time, when I got hired, I was only young, college student there, everyone else was older, like moms and dads. Like my parent's age. I felt out of place. I felt like they didn't like me because of that".

4.3.2.2 Expert input

An expert group consisting of a faculty member, restaurant employees, and Ph.D. students with working experience in restaurants reviewed the items generated by the literature search and personal interviews. After removing redundant items, a total of 53 OI items and 48 ODI items from the literature review were reviewed, and redundant items and ambiguous items were removed or modified. Overall, 14 OI items and 15 ODI items were retained from the expert group meeting, and these 29 items were included in the questionnaire (Tables 4.5 and 4.6).

4.3.3 Data Collection 1

To identify clusters of variables from the expert meeting, two online surveys were conducted. The first online survey was distributed to 500 restaurant employees in the USA through MTurk during May 2019. A total of 475 responses remained after deleting the responses that answered wrong on attention question in first survey and Tests for multivariate outliers found 20 significant cases (Mahalanobis' D (29) > 116.916, $p < .001$) and they were removed from further analyses**.** Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

4.3.4 Item refinement

For item refinement, the collected data were subjected to EFA, item-to-total correlation, and Cronbach's alpha and identified/excluded ineffective items that may lead to confusion (Churchill, 1979). An EFA with all OI and ODI (29 items) measure was conducted and produced two factors. From OI1 to OI14 loaded to one factor and from ODI1 to ODI14 loaded to another factor. Descriptive statistics, factor loadings correlation matrix of three EFAs were examined and unnecessary and/or redundant items, as well as noises induced by sampling/measurement errors, were excluded (Mastsunaga, 2010). First, two redundant items were removed. OI5 ("I feel a strong attachment to [Name of restaurant (brand)].") was strongly correlated ($r = 0.87$) with OI6 ("I feel a strong sense of belonging to [name of the restaurant (brand)].") and OI5 was removed. Also, OI3 ("I am interested in [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s growth.") was strongly correlated ($r = 0.85$) with OI9 ("I really want to contribute to the success of [name of the restaurant (brand)].") and OI9 was removed. Also, ODI14 (*"I regret that I belong to [name of the restaurant (brand)]."*: M = 2.07*)* and ODI11*("It is good if people say something bad about [name of the restaurant (brand)].":* M = 1.90) had relatively lower mean ratings than other ODI items were eliminated. Compare to other ODI items, those 2 items described strong negative feelings toward the organization that may lead to a lower level of agreement on the items. Also, ODI10 *("I have tried to keep [name of the restaurant (brand)] I work for a secret from people I meet."*), OI14 ("I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes [name of the restaurant (brand)]."), ODI2 ("I'm completely different from other employees of [name of the restaurant (brand)].") had factor loadings below .60 that may threaten the validity of the measure were removed. Specifically, ODI2 uses an extreme term "completely" that might make respondents hard to agree on the item.

Another EFA was conducted with the remaining 21 items to assess dimensions of the constructKaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy/Bartlett's Test of

Sphericity was used to test the suitability of the respondent data for factor analysis. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis of 21 items. KMO measure was 0.96 ('marvelous' according to Hutchenson and Sofroniou, 1999) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (p<.05). All KMO values for individual items were greater than .93, which is well above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2013). A principal axis factor analysis was conducted on the 21 items with Promax rotation (oblique rotation) that had the advantage of being fast and conceptually simple (Abdi, 2003). The correlation coefficient between the two factors was -0.64. Two factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 explained 74.5 % of the variance. The first factor (11 OI items) explained 61.7% of the variance and the second factor (10 ODI items) explained 12.6 % of the variance. The Cronbach's α of the OI factor was 0.97 and that of the ODI factor was 0.97 (Nunnally, 1978).

4.3.5 Data collection 2

Another online survey using MTurk was conducted to assess validity and reliability (Churchill, 1979). The survey was distributed electronically to 250 restaurant employees in the USA. Only eligible participants could take part in this study. We conducted a pre-survey screen to ascertain that they reside within the US, at least 18 years of age, are fluent in English, and are current restaurant employees. To increase the validity, the name of the restaurant where the participant is currently working was asked followed by choosing the concept of the restaurant. Ten responses that the two answers did not match, they were removed from the sample. Also, an attention check question was included, 12 responses with an incorrect response were removed from the sample. Tests for multivariate outliers found 10 significant cases (Mahalanobis' D (29)

> 116.89, p < .001) and they were removed from further analyses. A total of 218 responses

remained after deleting outliers and the responses that answered wrong on an attention question.

4.3.6 Assess Reliability and Validity

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to verify empirically whether the number of

dimensions was conceptualized correctly (Churchill, 1979) and to directly tests

unidimensionality of constructs (Gerbing & Anderson,1988). When dimensionality was

confirmed, the reliability of each construct was assessed. The average variance extracted was

calculated to verify the convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 1998).

Two CFAs using the maximum likelihood method was conducted to establish

unidimensionality and composite reliability and construct validity were tested (Gerbing &

Anderson, 1988; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) via Mplus 7.4. First, eleven OI items loaded to

one latent variable and ten ODI items loaded to another latent variable in the hypothesized model

(M0). The first factor represented general aspects of negative identification, while a second

factor represented general aspects of positive identification. The values of goodness-of-fit indices

were acceptable. (*df* = 188, χ^2 = 419.65, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94 RMSEA = 0.08 SRMR = 0.05).

The hypothesized measurement factor loadings were all statistically significant (p < 0.05) and the

lowest factor loading of OI items was 0.79 (OI10) and the lowest factor loading of ODI was 0.67

(ODI3).

Items and their respective factor loadings are present in Table 4.9. The composite

reliabilities were large (CR$_{OI}$ = 0.99, CR$_{ODI}$ = 0.99), providing evidence for the convergent

validity of the constructs. The latent variable correlation was -0.68 and AVE of each of the

latent constructs exceeded the minimum criterion of .50 (AVE$_{OI}$ = 0.71, AVE$_{ODI}$ = 0.71).

- Insert table 4.9 here –

In the present case, the hypothesized two-factor CFA model (M0) was compared to the fit of a one-factor model that assumes that all 21 items measuring OI and ODI all loaded to one latent factor (M1). To compare these models, likelihood ratio test was used. CFA demonstrates that two-factor model ($df = 188$, $\chi^2 = 419.65$, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94 RMSEA = 0.08 SRMR = 0.05) was a significantly better fit than a one-factor model ($df = 189$, $\chi^2 = 1516.50$, CFI = 0.72, TLI = 0.70, RMSEA = 0.17, SRMR = 0.11).

These findings served as a good foundation for further hypothesis testing, implying that both OI and ODI could both be compared, about antecedents and their influence on outcome variables. Consistent with the results of the first survey, unidimensionality of both OI and ODI constructs were found in the new data.

- Insert table 4.10 here -

4.4 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop reliable and valid measures of OI and ODI. The scale development procedures were followed by guidelines of Churchill's (1979), Anderson and Gerbing's (1988), and Gerbing and Anderson (1988). To specify the domain of construct, the existing measures of social identification varied across studies were reviewed. A preliminary list of OI and ODI measurement scales (approximately 53 OI items and 48 ODI respectively) were generated based on previous measures and information from the interviews. To ensure high content validity and reduce the number of items, a restaurant employee, faculty member, and graduate students with restaurant experiences evaluated items and eliminate ambiguous, unsuitable, and redundant items. To determine scale dimensions underlying the construct, an

EFA was conducted with the remaining 11 OI items and 10 ODI items. The results of the CFA using the new data indicate that the final measure using the categorical dimension approach is one-dimensional, reliable and valid.

This study has implications for both scholars and practitioners in the restaurant industry. Theoretically, this study represents the first attempt to develop a reliable and valid OI and ODI measures that assess employees' psychological attachment and detachment with the organization in the restaurant industry. These measurements can be used to predict employees' attitudes, behaviors in the organization such as organizational citizenship behavior, behavioral intention, the commitment of restaurant employees. Among 21 items, 8 additional items consisting of 3 OI and 5 ODI items were generated through personal interviews with restaurant employees. These new measures using the mixed method will help to capture employees' attachment or detachment with the organization in the restaurant industry more precisely. For example, a new measure (*"When I see positive (online) guest comments, I am proud of being part of [name of the restaurant (brand)]."*) compare to an existing measure *"When someone praises [name of the restaurant (brand)], it feels like a personal compliment"* provide more a concrete example so respondents can judge easier to agree or disagree. Also, the nine new items used the words or sentences from the personal interviews. Interviewees described OI and ODI using their own words that may be better for a proper assessment of complex restaurant employees' psychological experiences in the organization.

Several scholars have constructed multidimensional scales to identification (e.g. Brown et al., 1986; Hinkle et al., 1989; Karasawa, 1991). however, the results failed to confirm the multidimensionality of identification measures. Consistent with major social identity studies, the results of EFA and CFA illustrated that a single dimension was adequate to capture the range in

both employees' OI and ODI in the restaurant industry. Therefore, it is recommended for restaurant researchers to use the unidimensional measure when conducting social identity research. In addition, the roles of ODI in organizational settings are still not clear. These measures may help shed light on the role of ODI in the organization.

Practically, inducing OI and decrease ODI may help to achieve a competitive advantage in the hospitality industry. Employees who are strongly identified with their organization may not only work efficiently but also perform beyond formal role requirements discretionarily (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Providing unexpected outstanding services will help to attract and retain more customers. The identified OI and ODI measures enable restaurant operators to better understand the psychological experiences of their employees and develop more sophisticated staff training and operating systems that lead to better attitudes or behaviors for employees.

There are several limitations to this study. First, Web-based surveys using MTurk were conducted to collect data on only current restaurant employees in the USA. Employees' emotional experiences and perceptions of the organization can differ based on the type of industries or locations. The measures from this study may be particular to the restaurant (brand). Therefore, care should be taken when interpreting and generalizing the results of research in other industries. Second, the current study collects data from the employees working at various F&B concepts from fast food restaurant to fine dining restaurants. Some items on the developed scales may be essential in one segment of the restaurant industry, but they may not be essential in another segment of the restaurant industry. Also, large chain restaurant brands and single-unit restaurants may have different items to measure their social identity factors since they may different level of supports and benefits. Future studies should include moderating analysis of restaurant segments or the size of the brand.

An important next step for researchers is to identify the drivers and outcomes of OI and ODI. It is hard for restaurant operators to manage the level of OI and ODI directly so to identify the factors which increase employees' psychological attachment or detachment is crucial for them to set their operation strategies. Also, knowing the outcomes of OI and ODI can help restaurant operators to allocate their limited resources to the most appropriate places.

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Table 18. Annual quits rates by industry and region, not seasonally adjusted. (2019, March 15).

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Table 4. 1 A Summary of the Organizational Identification Measures in Previous Research

Authors	Classification	Dimensions	No. of Descriptors
Cheney (1982)	Organizational identification	Unidimensional	25
Hinkle, Taylor, Fox-Cardamone, & Crook (1989).	Group identification	Unidimensional	8
Mael & Ashforth (1993)	Organizational identification	Unidimensional	6

Miller, Allen, Casey, & Johnson, (2000)	Organizational identification	Multidimensional
		  Membership (3)
		  Loyalty (5)
		  Similarity (4)
			12

Cameron (2004)	Organizational identification	Multidimensional
		  Ingroup ties (4)
		  Centrality (4)
		  Ingroup affect (5)
			13

Kreiner, & Ashforth (2004)	Organizational identification	Unidimensional	6
Verkuyten & Yildiz (2007)	National identification	Unidimensional	6
Ikegami & Ishida (2007).	Organizational identification	Unidimensional	9
Zou, Morris & Benet-Martínez (2008)	Cultural identification	Unidimensional	7
Wolter, Brach, Cronin Jr, & Bonn (2016)	Brand identification	Unidimensional	4
Lee et al. (2017)	Organizational identification	Unidimensional	5

Table 4. 2 A Summary of the Organizational Disidentification Measures in Previous Research

Authors	Classification	Dimensions	No. of Descriptors
Elsbach & Bhattacharya (2001).	Organizational disidentification	Unidimensional	3
Silver (2001)	Group disidentification	Unidimensional	9
Kreiner& Ashforth (2004)	Organizational disidentification	Unidimensional	6
Ikegami & Ishida (2007)	Organizational disidentification	Unidimensional	11
Becker, & Tausch. (2014)	Group disidentification	Multidimensional Detachment (3) Dissatisfaction (4) Dissimilarity (4)	11

Table 4. 3 Interview questions

Categories	Sample question
General questions	Have you worked in the food and beverage industry?
	What kind of restaurant concept was it?
	How long have you worked in the restaurant?
	What was your position there?
Perceptions about the organization previously worked	Among the organizations you previously worked, which one is your favorite?
	Is there any brand or restaurant you still attach to and talk to others about? Why?
	Could compare the restaurants previously worked?
	What made you leave the organization?
	While you were working in this restaurant (brand), was there any moment you thought "I do not belong here"? why?
Perceptions about the current job	Where do you work?
	How do you like the current work and the position?
Observations	How do you spot the person who really likes the organization with the person who doesn't want to be in the organization?
Future plan	When you choose a future job, what is most important to you?

Table 4. 4 Industry tenure, position, gender of participants

Label	Organization	Industry Tenure	Position	Gender
PI	Pizza restaurant, bar, Premium casual restaurant	6 and a half years	Server, assistant manager, bartender	Male
P2	fast food, cruise ship, casual dining	8 years	server, head server, host, expo	Male
P3	Country club, sports bar, fine dining	5 years	server, bartender	Female
P4	Casual dining	6 months	dishwasher, server	Male
P4	fast food	4 years	Kitchen supervisor	Male
P6	Casual dining, hospital	12 years	Host, busser, expo, bartender, server, prep cook	Male
P7	Chinese casual dining, Hotel restaurant1.5 years	1 and a half years	server, expo	Female
P8	Bar	1 year	Server	Female
P9	Milk tea, banquet, fine dining	3 and a half years	Sever, expo, runner, purchasing	Male
P10	Casual dining	7 months	Catering manager	Female
P11	Fast food	9 months	Crew	Male
P12	Ice cream vendor, casual dining	3 and a half years	vendor, server, cashier	Male
P13	Japanese casual dining	10 months	Server	Female
P14	Casual dining	2 years and 7 months	Hostess, server	Female
P15	Catering	5 years	Independent cater	Female
P16	Vietnamese casual dining	4 and a half years	Server	Male

Table 4. 5 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Label	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
OI1	[the name of the restaurant (brand)]'s successes are my successes. [a]	0.87	
OI2	Being a part of [Name of restaurant (brand)] is important to me. [b]	0.87	
OI3	*I am interested in [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s growth.*	0.84	
OI4	*When I see positive (online) guest comments, I am proud of being part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].*	0.73	
OI6	I feel a strong sense of belonging to [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [c]	0.90	
OI7	I find that my values and the values of [name of the restaurant (brand)] are very similar. [d]	0.85	
OI8	I have a lot in common with others in [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [e]	0.79	
OI10	I see myself as an important part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].[f]	0.82	
OI11	I would describe [name of the restaurant (brand)] as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging. [e]	0.86	
OI12	*[name of the restaurant (brand)] means a lot to me.*	0.91	
OI13	When someone praises [name of the restaurant (brand)], it feels like a personal compliment. [g]	0.91	
ODI1	I do not consider [name of the restaurant (brand)] to be important. [h]		0.73
ODI3	*I don't care about [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s goals*		0.75
ODI4	*I am not aligned well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].*		0.81
ODI5	I feel like that I do not fit at [name of the restaurant (brand)].[h]		0.85
ODI6	I feel uncomfortable being perceived as an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)].[i]		0.97
ODI7	*It is hard to find something common between myself and others in [name of the restaurant (brand)]*		0.93
ODI8	*I felt so lost sometimes in [name of the restaurant (brand)]*		0.93
ODI9	I have the tendency to distance myself from [name of the restaurant (brand)].[j]		0.86
ODI13	Overall, being an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)] has very little to do with how I feel about myself. [k]		0.70
ODI15	*My personality does not match well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].*		0.87

** Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4. 6 Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
OI1	1.00																				
OI2	0.73	1.00																			
OI3	0.70	0.76	1.00																		
OI4	0.64	0.66	0.73	1.00																	
OI6	0.71	0.74	0.78	0.70	1.00																
OI7	0.69	0.72	0.71	0.66	0.78	1.00															
OI8	0.59	0.66	0.67	0.62	0.72	0.68	1.00														
OI10	0.67	0.74	0.76	0.66	0.74	0.65	0.63	1.00													
OI11	0.68	0.69	0.70	0.62	0.77	0.72	0.72	0.75	1.00												
OI12	0.75	0.78	0.77	0.69	0.79	0.73	0.70	0.75	0.80	1.00											
OI13	0.68	0.76	0.74	0.72	0.75	0.69	0.69	0.75	0.77	0.80	1.00										
ODI1	-0.52	-0.58	-0.55	-0.55	-0.55	-0.53	-0.49	-0.52	-0.51	-0.53	-0.51	1.00									
ODI3	-0.51	-0.56	-0.63	-0.59	-0.53	-0.51	-0.49	-0.58	-0.53	-0.58	-0.55	0.77	1.00								
ODI4	-0.52	-0.56	-0.58	-0.57	-0.55	-0.54	-0.49	-0.55	-0.52	-0.55	-0.55	0.74	0.82	1.00							
ODI5	-0.48	-0.53	-0.56	-0.53	-0.52	-0.53	-0.55	-0.55	-0.55	-0.56	-0.52	0.72	0.75	0.81	1.00						
ODI6	-0.29	-0.40	-0.41	-0.34	-0.39	-0.38	-0.38	-0.39	-0.40	-0.38	-0.33	0.65	0.66	0.68	0.77	1.00					
ODI7	-0.44	-0.45	-0.51	-0.48	-0.50	-0.46	-0.47	-0.48	-0.48	-0.51	-0.45	0.69	0.72	0.80	0.81	0.77	1.00				
ODI8	-0.40	-0.43	-0.47	-0.53	-0.47	-0.41	-0.40	-0.49	-0.46	-0.45	-0.44	0.70	0.73	0.72	0.75	0.70	0.77	1.00			
ODI9	-0.44	-0.49	-0.51	-0.53	-0.48	-0.45	-0.48	-0.54	-0.53	-0.49	-0.51	0.68	0.69	0.71	0.73	0.70	0.77	0.84	1.00		
ODI13	-0.34	-0.39	-0.43	-0.42	-0.42	-0.41	-0.37	-0.43	-0.38	-0.39	-0.40	0.57	0.57	0.59	0.58	0.53	0.59	0.55	0.59	1.00	
ODI15	-0.44	-0.51	-0.57	-0.58	-0.56	-0.55	-0.52	-0.51	-0.53	-0.57	-0.51	0.71	0.76	0.80	0.82	0.75	0.81	0.79	0.77	0.64	1.00

Table 4. 7 Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results

Item	Factor loading
Organizational identification	
[the name of the restaurant (brand)]'s successes are my successes. [a]	0.81
Being a part of [Name of restaurant (brand)] is important to me. [b]	0.86
I am interested in [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s growth.	0.87
When I see positive (online) guest comments, I am proud of being part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	0.80
I feel a strong sense of belonging to [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [c]	0.89
I find that my values and the values of [name of the restaurant (brand)] are very similar. [d]	0.83
I have a lot in common with others in [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [e]	0.79
I see myself as an important part of [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [f]	0.85
I would describe [name of the restaurant (brand)] as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging. [e]	0.86
[name of the restaurant (brand)] means a lot to me.	0.90
When someone praises [name of the restaurant (brand)], it feels like a personal compliment. [g]	0.87
Organizational disidentification	
I do not consider [name of the restaurant (brand)] to be important. [h]	0.81
I don't care about [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s goals	0.85
I am not aligned well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	0.88
I feel like that I do not fit at [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [h]	0.89
I feel uncomfortable being perceived as an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [i]	0.81
It is hard to find something common between myself and others in [name of the restaurant (brand)]	0.88
I felt so lost sometimes in [name of the restaurant (brand)]	0.86
I have the tendency to distance myself from [name of the restaurant (brand)]. [j]	0.85
Overall, being an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)] has very little to do with how I feel about myself. [k]	0.66
My personality does not match well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	0.90

df = 188, χ^2 = 419.65, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94 RMSEA = 0.08 SRMR = 0.05

a Adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992). b Adapted from Lee et al. (2017). c Adapted from Verkuyten and Yildiz (2007). d Adapted from Porter and Smith (1970). e Cheney (1982). f Adapted from Hinkle et al. (1989). g Adapted from Ikegami and Ishida, (2007),h Adapted from Hinkle et al. (1989). i Adapted from Zou, Morris, and Benet-Martínez (2008). j Adapted from Verkuyten and Yildiz (2007). k Adapted from Cameron (2004). Italic Items generated through personal interviews

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┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                              │          Literature review
│  Specify domain of construct │
│                              │
└──────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                              │          Literature review
│                              │          Personal interview
│   Generate sample of items   │          Expert input
│                              │
└──────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                              │          Online survey
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│      Data collection 1       │
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┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                              │          Exploratory factor analysis
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│       Item refinement        │
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│      Data collection 2       │
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                ▼                          Coefficient alpha
                                           Confirmatory factor analysis
┌──────────────────────────────┐             • Composite reliability
│                              │             • Convergent validity
│ Assess reliability and validity│           • Discriminant validity
│                              │           Criterion validity
└──────────────────────────────┘
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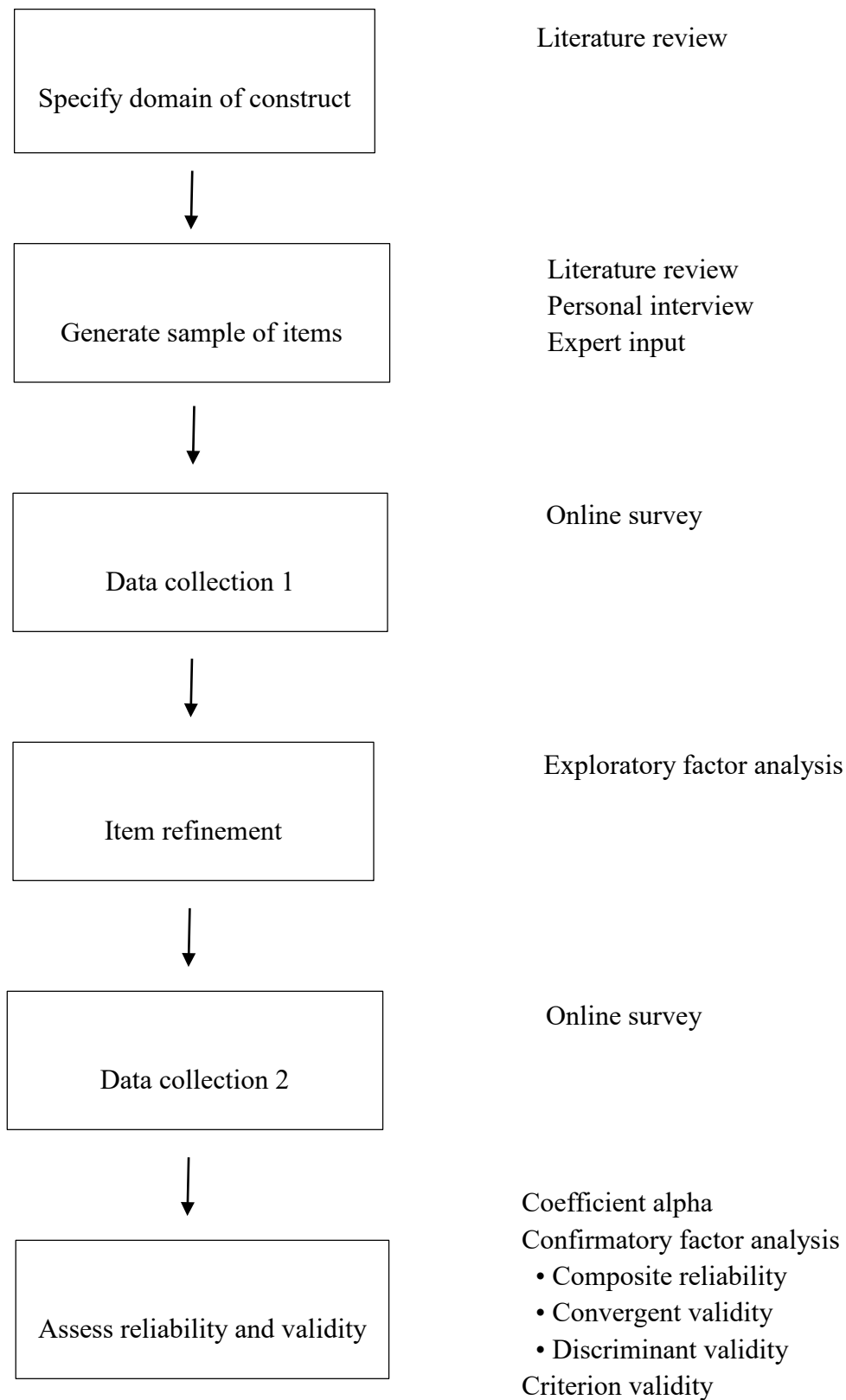
Figure 4.1. Procedure to Develop OI and ODI scales

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CHAPTER V.

THE ROLES OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND DISIDENTIFICATION ON RESTAURANT EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

5.1 Introduction

The Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that the voluntary quit ratio of accommodations and food-services industries in 2017 was 52.1 percent, that is considerably higher than the industry average of 26.0 percent. High employee turnover can increase direct and indirect costs related to rehiring, training until reaching the new hire to the same level of productivity as the employee who left. High employee turnover can damage consistent service quality (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008) which may lead to tarnishing the brand reputation.

Due to its impact on the business, both scholars and practitioners have been strived to identify the reasons of voluntary employee turnovers, such as reward and compensation (Milkovich & Newman, 1999), age and generation (Brown, Thomas, & Bosselman, 2015), and job satisfaction (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Recently some scholars focus on employees' psychological attachment to explain employee turnover intention. Organizational identification (OI), a form of social identification, can be seen as a psychological attachment with the organization (Edwards, 2005). Social identity theory (SIT) has been used to predict employees' attitudes and behaviors (Riketta, Van Dick, and Rousseau, 2006). For employees, the organization where they belong can be an important source of their self-esteem and sense of social identity (Tajfel, 1979). Organizational Identification (OI) is "a specific form of social identification in which the person defines him- or her- self in terms of membership in a particular

organization" (Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995, p. 47). When employees identify with their organization, they perceive connectedness with and define themselves as part of the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). After that, they tend to be linked with positive work-related attitudes or behaviors (Kelman,1958).

However, OI alone cannot accurately explain how and why employees cognitively or emotionally separate from the organization. Therefore, organizational researchers started to examine topics beyond basic OI (DiSanza & Bullis, 1999; Pratt, 2000; Mael & Ashforth, 2001). As an extended form of social identification (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004), organizational disidentification (ODI) is defined as "self-perception based on a cognitive separation between one's identity and the organization's identity and a negative relational categorization of oneself and the organization" (Elsbach & Bhattacharya 2001, p. 393). When ODI is formed, employees cognitively separate their identity from the organization's identity and build their authentic identities. Also, they form a negative relational categorization between themselves and the organization (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

Eliciting high quality of customer services from employees is a key success factor in the service industry. According to Kotler, Bowen, Makens, and Baloglu (2017), service is the product that is intangible, inseparable, variable, and perishable. Service quality highly relies on who provide and it limits quality control. Therefore, it is difficult to specified all behaviors in to benefit to the organizations in advance through job training, rewards and job description (Morrison,1996). Thus, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) can significantly contribute to the success of service businesses (Schneider, 1990). A strong psychological attachment with the organization may encourage employees' OCBs - that is "behavior(s) of a discretionary nature that is not part of the employee's formal role requirements but promote the effective functioning

of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). The employees with high OI may perform beyond their formal duties (Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006) because they perceive the organization's success as their personal success. OI increases work motivation and work performance (Van Knippenberg, 2000).

Furthermore, employees with high OI consider performing OCBs as the behaviors helping themselves (Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006). However, employees with ODI may not be motivated to perform OCB because they do not perceive themselves as accepted members in the organization (Voelkl, 1997). OCBs are discretionary behaviors. Despite the importance of OCBs in the service industry, it is difficult for the organization to force the behaviors to employees since the behaviors are not even their formal role requirements and there will be no reward for them. Previous studies found that there is a significant positive relationship between OI and OCB (e.g., Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006; Feather, & Rauter, 2004). Thus, this study focus on identifying the factors increasing employees' OI and decrease the level of ODI to promote their OCBs.

Studies have been conducted to understand the content and process of employee identification. The current study proposes that perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived brand authenticity (PBA) can increase employees' OI. Although there has been a great deal of customer research about PBA, it has not received much attention from organizational scholars. Regardless of size, each restaurant or brand has a unique concept. Accordingly, working in an authentic unit or brand may enable employees to maintain their respective positive social identities. PBA may have a significant role in employees' OI by enhancing their self-esteem. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) states that when employees receive advantageous

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treatments from their organization, they may increase their level of psychological attachment to the organization to recompense such treatments (Edwards, & Peccei, 2010)

Perceived unethical organizational behavior (PUOB) and perceived organizational obstruction (POO) can increase ODI. If employees perceive an organization as unethical, identity imbalance and confusion can occur. To maintain a positive image, they may separate from your organization's unmatched values and negative stereotypes. (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). Moreover, when employees perceive that the treatments by the organization hinder or block their personal or professional goals, they may believe that their values differ from those of the organization. Subsequently, employees are likely to seek out aspects that disidentify with the organization (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004).

Although extensive research has dealt with social identity, only a few empirical studies have been conducted on what fosters OI and reduce ODI and their relationships with employees' behavioral intention within the restaurant setting context. The findings of the conceptualizations, definitions, and measurement instruments of identification studies have been inconsistent (Boroş, 2008). In particular, ODI remains scarcely studied and its antecedents and consequences continue to be unclear (Chang et al., 2013). Several papers (e.g, Haslam, Postmes & Ellemers, 2003) have argued about the usefulness of social identity for understanding organizational behaviors. Thus, the antecedents, consequences, and potential moderators of OI and ODI should be clarified to fill in any gaps in previous research and provide guidelines to practitioners on managing employee OI and ODI in restaurant settings.

The main purpose of this research is to identify the underlying psychological processes forming an employee's intention to stay and intention to leave in an organization dealing with psychological attachment with such an organization. To fill in the gap in the previous research,

the current study develops a model to examine the concurrent effects of OI and ODI on the intention to stay. This study examined OI and ODI using a dual-process model. Moreover, this research proposed that ODI is not the opposite pole of OI and comprises unique psychological states that have distinct salient antecedents.

The objectives of this research are twofold: (1) examine whether POS and PBA are the significant antecedents of OI, while POO and PUOB are the significant antecedents of ODI; and (2) identify the respective roles of OI and ODI on employees' behavioral intention and OCB. This study will theoretically examine the antecedents of OI and ODI from the perspective of the social identity approach and their respective roles on behavioral intentions. The results will clarify the antecedents and results of OI and ODI through empirical studies based on the dual-factor theory. Moreover, the findings will provide several implications on how to manage identification to effectively increase employees' OI and decrease ODI in restaurant settings.

5.2 Literature review

5.2.1 Organizational Identification (OI)

SIT has long been recognized as a useful theoretical framework for understanding an individual's behaviors (Van Dick et al, 2004). Mael and Ashforth (1992) defined OI as "perceived oneness and belongingness to an organization" (p. 103). SIT's assumptions indicate that when OI is formed, employees view themselves as members of an organization (Boroş, 2008). Employees with OI tend to feel proud to be a part of an organization and respect its values and accomplishments. These employees are likely to be motivated and linked with positive organizational attitudes or behaviors (Kelman,1958). They also act in a manner that complies with the norms and stereotypes of the organization. (Whetten & Godfrey,1998, p 185). Furthermore, employees' self-perception tends to be depersonalized and they perceive the

success or failure of the organization as one's personal success or failure. After that, they may strive to maintain or enhance their positive and distinctive self-concept (Hogg & Terry, 2000) through the success or prestige of the organization. Thus, highly identified employees are likely to exert effort to achieve organizational success to enhance their own self-esteem (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; van Dick, 2004).

Previous research has shown that OI increases organizational commitment, thereby supporting behaviors for the organization (Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995; Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001), extra-role behaviors, and employees' work performance while decreasing their turnover intentions (van Knippenberg, 2000; Van Dick et al., 2004; Harris & Cameron, 2005).

Given the benefits that OI may bring to organizations, numerous antecedents of OI have been explored in the existing research. Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) explained that an organization's identity attractiveness is associated with self-consistency motives ("how similar it is to employees' own identity"), self-differentiation motives ("how distinctive it is with other social groups"), and the satisfaction of self-enhancement motives ("how prestigious it is"). The frequently cited antecedents are prestige, distinctiveness, and self–brand similarity. Employees may identify with organizations when they perceive that such organizations are prestigious because membership in these types of institutions enhances their self-esteem (Albert et al., 2000). Also, as employees share their common social identity, they will be perceived as members of the organization. (Tajfel, 2010).

5.2.2 Organizational disidentification (ODI)

Compared with OI, ODI is an extended form of social identification (Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004) and has received relatively minimal attention. Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) defined ODI as "self-perception based on a cognitive separation between one's identity and the organization's identity and a negative relational categorization of oneself and the organization" (p. 393). ODI occurs when employees perceive that they define themselves as not having the same values or principles. To maintain positive distinctiveness, employees dissociate themselves from the incompatible values and negative stereotypes attributed to an organization (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001).

Previous studies have found that ODI is positively associated with intra-role conflict, negative affect, and cynicism (Kreiner, 2002); and abusive supervision (Chang et al., 2013), while negatively associated with organizational reputation, psychological contract fulfillment, negative affect, and individualism (Kreiner, 2002). Disidentification may take multiple forms, including cynicism, humor, skepticism, and irony (Costas & Fleming, 2009). OIDs can result in negative consequences, such as increased turnover intention (Lai, Chan, and Lam, 2013) or reduced effort on long-term tasks (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994). ODI may also lead to undesirable behaviors, such as opposing and criticizing the organization publicly (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). Furthermore, some employees may consider their organizations as "rivals" or even "enemies" (Lawrence & Kaufmann, 2011). In addition, these employees are likely to view the organization in a negative or pessimistic light and embrace potential negative experiences, cognitions, and attitudes (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Moreover, ODI can be used as a defensive mechanism by non-prototypical low identifiers who

are searching for a considerably desirable outgroup (Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1999).

5.2.3 Dual-factor theory

Dual-factor theory, which is also known as the motivation-hygiene theory, was introduced by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). They proposed two distinctive dimensions in job satisfaction, in which each dimension has its own salient antecedents. Motivators such as the nature of work itself or the rewards that can enhance employees' self-actualization and self-realization can increase job satisfaction. Hygiene factors such as the employees' relationship to the context or environment enhance job dissatisfaction, (House & Wigdor, 1967). Thus, the lack of hygiene factors may not direct to job satisfaction, whereas the absence of motivators may not direct to job dissatisfaction.

Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) proposed that OI and ODI are individually distinct psychological states that have their respective salient antecedents (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). ODI is different from a simple mismatch because it occurs when employees identify themselves in opposition to the organization (Pratt, 2000). When employees disidentify with an organization, they dissociate themselves from the collective ("This is not me"). ODI entails different phenomenological states compared with low-level identification (Ashforth et al., 2013, p. 2428). Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2001) studied the members of the National Rifle Association and found that identification is associated with "member's personal experiences," whereas disidentification was associated with "their values surrounding the organization" (p. 26).

5.2.3. Perceived brand authenticity (PBA)

The word, 'Authentic' in Latin, authenticus, meaning "worthy of acceptance, authoritative, trustworthy, not imaginary, false or imitation, conforming to an original" (Beverland, 2009, p.15). 'Authenticity' is associated with 'realness' or 'trueness to origin' (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014). In our lives, authenticity serves "as a signpost pointing toward a way of being in the world" (Cappannelli & Cappannelli, 2004). Authenticity is also an important concept in positive psychology and is related to organizational welfare, health and leadership effects (Knoll, & van Dick, 2013). Researchers see authenticity has been considered not only as an aspect or precursor to well-being but also the essence of well-being and healthy functioning (Schlegel, Hicks, Arndt & King, 2009: Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2013). Morhart, Malär, Guevremont, Girardin, and Grohmann (2015) found that PBA had a positive relationship with emotional brand attachment and word-of-mouth, and it drives brand choice likelihood through self-congruence for consumers.

Employees not only pursue similarities with the organization, but also strive for the uniqueness of the organization. (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980). The favorable comparison between the ingroup and an outgroup(s) provide ingroup employees with a positive social identity through enhancing subjective status (Turner, 1982). Thus, the PBA can play an important role in an employee's OI by improving employee self-esteem. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) defined organization-based self-esteem as "evaluations of self-worth deriving from one's membership in the organization" (p. 560). According to Pierce and Gardner (2004), self-esteem is positively associate with employee motivation, work-related attitudes, and behaviors. Each restaurant unit or brand has its own authentic concept. Working for the restaurant for an authentic unit or brand that is trustworthy, conforming to an original may help employees to maintain their positive social identities.

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5.2.4. Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

Organizations value employees' commitment and loyalty and employees value the organization's commitment to them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). From an employee's point of view, the organization is not only a source of economic exchange but also a source of socio-economic resources (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), when people receive fair returns for their expenditures, they will have satisfied. Also, favorable treatments between two parties are reciprocal and this reciprocity norm will be beneficial for both parties. Therefore, in the employee-organization relationship, when employees received beneficial treatments from the organization, they are likely to recompense it to the organization. It might help employees to maintain their positive self-image and to avoid the social stigma associated with'"breach of reciprocity norms". This perceived beneficial treatment by an organization increase employee's perceived organization support (POS) which is defined as "employees' perception the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986, p.500). This POS makes employees feel an obligation to care about the organization's welfare and support to reach the organization's objectives, fulfill their socioemotional needs, and lead them to incorporate the organizational membership and role status into their social identity. Also, POS makes the employees believe that the organization will recognize and reward for improved performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Rooted in the reciprocity norm, POS will evoke a feeling of care about the organization's welfare (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). POS positively associated with positive organizational attitudes or behaviors: work attendance (Eisenberger, Huntington,

Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1997), job performance (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), OCBs (Shore & Wayne, 1993) and especially affective organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997).

5.2.5 Perceived Organizational Obstruction (POO)

Fuller et al (2006) asserted that POS, as well as perceived organizational obstruction (POO), can also have an impact on an employee's organization. Gibney, Zagenczyk, Masters (2009) introduced the concept of POO in the literature to explain employee misbehavior. POO is the employee's perceived relationship with the organization. Fuller et al. (2006) defined POO as "employees' belief that the organization obstructs, hinders, or interferes with the accomplishment of their goals and is a detriment to their well-being" (p.667). POO concept can apply to the relationship between organizations and employees as well. When employees perceive that the organization obstructs or hinder their goals, they may disidentify with their organization.

There is a perceived psychological contract between the organization and its employees. Psychological contracts defined as "employees' perceptions of what they owe to their employers and what their employers owe to them" (Robinson, 1996, p. 574). Perceived psychological contract violations are subjective experiences (Rousseau, 1989) that affect their behavior and attitudes (Robinson, 1996), regardless of whether the beliefs are valid or actual violations have occurred, whether an employee achieves a goal, employees perceive that an individual or professional goal has been discontinued by the organization then they perceive it as an obstruction. (Gibney, Zagenczyk, Fuller, Hester & Caner, 2011). Also, employees may think that

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a psychological contract with the organization is violated. (Zagenczyk, Gibney, Few & Scott, 2011)

Perceived psychological contract breach is more the norm than their fulfillment, and that breach has linked directly to workplace outcomes (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). It decreases perceived obligations to one's organization, lowered citizenship behavior, and reduced commitment and satisfaction (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson, 1996). The contract breaches can lead to disidentification (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). The treatment in a negative manner by the organization can convince employees that their values are different from those of the organization. In addition, following violations, employees tend to look for organizational flaws and disadvantages to explain their disappointment, which makes it easier to spot aspects of an organization that can be disidentified (Gibney, Zagenczyk & Masters, 2009).

5.2.6 Perceived Unethical Organization Behavior(PUOB)

Organizations are judged by the effect of their actions but also judged by their intentions as well (Mella & Gazzola, 2015). An organization's positive reputation helps businesses attract investment, gain additional market share, reduce employee turnover, and increase customer loyalty and satisfaction. However, organizational scandals resulting from unethical behavior are detrimental to market value and credit ratings. group. Therefore, many organizations today focus on corporate ethics and organizational social responsibility (Morrison, 1995). Organizations have been established as a code of ethics for a minimum standard of behaviors and develop training programs on how to deal with ethical issues more effectively. Also, many organizations include ethics as a formal procedure of their decision-making process (Creyer, 1997).

Ethical behaviors that people expect is used as a reference point to judge an organization's behavior and provides very explicit predictions of the evaluation of ethical and unethical behavior. Ethical behaviors need to be distinguished from the social responsibility concept. Not performing social responsibilities cannot be regarded as 'wrong' or 'unethical' since they are discretionary actions (Carroll, 1981) while unethical behaviors will be criticized. If organizational behavior fails to achieve the reference point, people are considered unethical. Also, people regard unethical behavior as a loss,while regard ethical behavior as retention of status (Creyer, 1997).

Oliver (1980) pointed out that PUOB not only makes a significant difference in customer attitudes and beliefs. However, when the organization is accused of unethical behaviors, unethical behaviors will be considered as a significant negative disconfirmation against the standard. It may make them think as deserving punishment' (Creyer & Ross, 1996).

Nowadays, more often customers or social organizations boycott the products from the firms accused of unethical scandals. Unethical behaviors (e.g., selling unsafe food, cheap labor exploitation, overcharging, and top executive sexual scandals) can devastate corporate market value and credit ratings. The loss of Volkswagen in 2015 from the emissions scandal estimated approximately $20 billion in market capitalization (fortune.com).

There have been many studies on customer attitudes and behavior toward unethical organizational behavior (Creyer & Ross, 1996; Creyer, 1997; Lindenmyeier, Schleer & Price, 2012), however little work has focused on the roles of employees' perception toward unethical organizational behavior and its outcomes. Turban and Greening (1997) noted that organization social performance was positively related to the organization's reputation and attraction which can provide a competitive advantage to the organization by attracting outstanding applicants.

Brammer, Millington, & Rayton (2007) also found that organization social responsibility was one of the factors to increase employees' organizational commitment. Also, the fit between employee and organizational ethics is positively related to the levels of commitment and job satisfaction and negatively related to the levels of turnover intention (Ambrose, Arnaud & Schminke, 2008). However, there is a lack of research into the effects of unethical organizational behavior on organizational identification from the perspective of organizational employees.

According to Elsbach, and Bhattacharya (2001), if employees perceive the organization does not have the same attributes or principles with that they defined the organization, their personal identity will arouse. Also, when employees observe or experience unethical behaviors of the organization such as fraudulent accounting practices, selling unsafe food, they will perceive the organization unethical. Then they may experience identity imbalance and confusion. To get out of the status, they may build their own identity. Moreover, when employees who highly identified the organization even take negative publicity personally (Schwartz, 1987) that may lead them to be depressed or stress out. Then, they increase the level of disidentification by distancing themselves from incongruent values and negative stereotype attribute to the organization to maintain positive distinctiveness and avoid negative distinctiveness. Some employees may use disidentification as an excuse to stay in the organization. By thinking themselves "Although I am staying in this organization but I am different" will help them to maintain positive self-concept while they are staying in the organization. However, the negative attitudes of these employees can lead to undesirable organizational outcomes such as reduced long-term work effort (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994). Furthermore, to bring back his or her positive distinctiveness, they might not only dissociate himself or herself from the

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organization psychologically but also physically resulting in leaving the organization (Tajfel, 2010).

5.2.7 Behavioral Intentions; Intention to stay and intention to leave

In the restaurant industry, the high turnover rate has been a serious issue. Inexperienced employees can lower productivity and service quality. The behavioral intention has been considered one of the most immediate predictors of voluntary turnover (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Behavioral intention refers to "to individuals' perceived probability of staying in the employing organization or terminating employment. In other words, behavioral intentions reflect the motivation to stay or leave." (Parasuraman, 1982, p. 113). Intention to stay refers to "employees' conscious and deliberate willingness to stay with the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262), whereas intention to leave refers to "an employee's decision to leave the current job and look onwards to find another job in the near future" (Rizwan, Arshad, Munir, Iqbal & Hussain, 2014, p. 4). In most previous studies, scholars used these two terms interchangeably. However, some researchers have argued if the intention to stay and intention to leave the same, diametrically opposed dimension. Cho, Johanson, and Guchait (2009) found that POS was associated with intention to stay and the intention to leave but that POS was a much stronger predictor for intention to stay than for intention to leave. In the present study, the intention to stay and intention leave were measured separately.

5.2.8 The effect of OI and ODI on behavioral intentions

The extent to which an employee identifies with an organization varies. The employees who highly identified with their organization tend to feel proud to be a part of their organization

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and respect its values and accomplishments. Furthermore, they are psychologically intertwined with the organization, and they tend to view the organization's success as their own (Ashforth &Mael, 1989) Thus, when employees highly identified with their organization, withdrawal from the organization would be critical for their self-concepts because leaving the organization would mean a loss of part of themselves (Haslam & Turner, 2001). VanDick (2001) found a positive relationship between OI and intention to stay, whereas Riketta's meta-analysis indicated a negative relationship between OI and intention to leave.

An employee with ODI may not feel affiliated with the organization and may not feel accepted in the organization. Then, they feel uncomfortable in an organized environment. As a result, they may reduce their commitment to the organization and do not include their organization in their own definitions that can lead to hostility, anger, and suspicion about the organization (Voelkl, 1997). Then, employees may dissociate themselves from the organization physically, psychologically, or both. Furthermore, they may seek membership of a higher-status organization to restore their positive distinctiveness (Tajfel, 2010). ODI can make employees consider their current job position as a mere stopover to a better job (Wildes, 2005). Lai, Chan, and Lam (2013) found that the more that casino dealers are disidentified with their organization, the higher their intention to leave. Mishra and Bhatnagar (2010) also found a significant relationship of OI with turnover intention mediated by emotional dissonance.

5.2.9 Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

Organizations need to have high employee OCB. OCB is defined as "behavior(s) of a discretionary nature that is not part of the employees' formal role requirements but promote the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Organizations rely on not only

employees' formal performances but also employee cooperative behaviors beyond role prescriptions, altruism, and unrewarded voluntary help from employees. Employees' attitudes and behaviors are crucial, especially in the service industry. In many cases, providing expected service is inadequate to impress customers. To attract and retain customers, service organizations should be interested in how to promote employees' OCB to deliver high-quality service. Service is one of the main products in the service industry. Small differences in customer contact employees' attitudes or behaviors can greatly affect customer satisfaction or revisit intention. Customer contact employees can directly influence customer satisfaction and perform marketing functions during interaction with customers (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996). To exceed customers' expectations and provide a high quality of service, organizations are looking for ways to encourage employees to perform discretionary behaviors that are beyond their formal duty. OCB provides competitive advantages to organizations by helping employees to manage resources, coordinating activities within a team, and enabling employees to adapt more effectively to environmental changes (Van Der Vegt, Van De Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003).

Although they differ in degree, every organization relies on employees' behaviors of "cooperation, helpfulness, suggestion, gestures of goodwill, altruism" (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983, p. 653). Organ (1988) identified conceptually distinct dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Altruism refers to "the behavior that has the effect of helping a specific another person with an organizationally relevant task or problem." Conscientiousness refers to "discretionary behaviors on the part of the employee that goes beyond the formal role requirements of the organization, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth." Sportsmanship refers to "the willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining" (Organ, 1988, p.

11). Courtesy refers to "discretionary behavior on the part of an individual aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring." Civic virtue refers to" the behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the company" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990, p. 115). Podsakoff et al. (1990) operationalized Organ's (1988) five dimensions. Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed an alternative two-dimensional conceptualization of OCB consisting of behaviors directed toward individuals (OCB-I) and those directed toward the organization (OCB-O). Anderson (1991) also reduced organ's five dimensions: OCB-I (altruism and courtesy) and OCB-O (conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). OCB-O benefits the organization directly whereas OCB-I contributes to the organization indirectly by benefiting other employees. This study only focuses on OCB-O that can directly affect the organization's operations. Therefore, OCB-I is excluded from the hypothesized model.

5.2.10 The effect of OI and ODI on OCB

OCB concerns performance that is beyond formal role requirements; thus, it cannot be forced. OCB is explained by employees' expectation that they will receive largesse from the organization rather than formal economic rewards (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Identification has been considered the basis for psychological attachment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). OCB requires more psychological attachment than simple compliance, which refers to employees' attitude and behaviors in performing for specific rewards rather than shared beliefs (Kelman, 1958).

The extent to which an employee identifies with an organization varies. Employees who strongly identify with their organization may not only work efficiently but also perform beyond

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formal role requirements discretionarily (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Employees who highly identify with their organization tend to feel proud to be a part of the organization and respect its values and accomplishments. They also tend to view their organization's success as their personal success (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) by internalizing the organization's performance with their own personal job performance. Then, employees with high OI may perform beyond their formal duties for personal or organizational successes. This practice is related to conscientiousness behaviors of OCB. Furthermore, such employees tend to actively involve themselves with the achievements of the organization that are associated with civic virtue behaviors (Nasurdin, Ahmad, & Ling, 2015). According to O'Reilly, Charles, and Chatman (1989), identification occurs when an employee desires to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship with the organization. Employees with high OI often tolerate less-than-ideal circumstances and undertake other employee's roles because they are related to their desired relationship (Kelman, 1958), which is related to sportsmanship.

Conversely, ODI is about self-perception by a psychological separation between one's identity and the organization's identity and building a negative relational categorization between oneself and the organization. Employees may perceive that their organization's undesirable public image can harm their personal reputation; thus, they may perceive values incongruent with the negative identity attribute to the organization. They may not perform their work roles efficiently, so expecting conscientious behaviors is difficult. Such employees may practice negative forms of OCB voluntarily, such as criticizing their organizations privately or publicly (Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001), indicating a low level of sportsmanship. Furthermore, employees with high ODI psychologically or physically dissociate themselves with the

organization (Tajfel, 2010); thus, they may decrease involvement levels with the organization, indicating a low level of civic virtue.

5.2.11 Hypotheses

Based on the theoretical relationships among study variables mentioned earlier, this research proposed the following hypotheses:

H1: Perceived organizational support is positively associated with organizational identification.

H2: Perceived brand authenticity is positively associated with organizational identification.

H3: Perceived unethical organization behavior is positively associated with organizational disidentification.

H4: Perceived organizational obstruction is positively associated with organizational disidentification.

H5: Organizational identification is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior.

H6: Organizational disidentification is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behavior.

H7: Organizational identification is positively associated with the intention to stay.

H8: Organizational disidentification is negatively associated with the intention to stay.

H9: Organizational identification is negatively associated with the intention to leave.

H10: Organizational disidentification is negatively associated with the intention to leave.

5.3. Methods

5.3.1 Sample and data collection

An online survey was conducted to test the theoretical framework. Mturk was used to collect data on May 2019. Reward (25 cents) is presented when a respondent completes the survey. The survey only included responses from current restaurant employees in the USA. To ensure that the respondents are at great attention throughout, one attention check question was included in the middle of the survey. The responses that had a wrong answer for the check question were excluded. To increase the validity, the name of the restaurant where the participant is currently working was asked followed by choosing the concept of the restaurant. If two answers do not match, they were removed from the sample. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS 22 and Mplus 7.4. Tests for multivariate outliers found 67 significant cases (Mahalanobis' D (79) > 342.963, p < .001) and they were removed from further analyses. A total of 567 responses remained after deleting outliers and the responses that answered wrong on an attention question.

5.3.2 Measures

The response format for all scales (except the demographic items) consisted of a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree and a midpoint of 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree). In addition, we included dispositional characteristics in the study, such as age, education, gender, ethnicity, organization tenure, industry tenure, and part- or full-time status.

Organizational identification (OI), organizational disidentification (ODI): Because this study assumed that OI and ODI entailed a different phenomenological experience, direct measures of each form were used. The questionnaire included questions about OI and ODI measurements

identified through the scale development process. The OI and ODI scales developed in Chapter four were used. Specifically, a list of 12 items was employed to assess OI and 10 items to assess ODI.

Perceived organizational support (POS), perceived organizational obstruction (POO): POS was measured by taking five items which were the most relevant items in the restaurant operation from the 36-item scales developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). A sample item for POS is "This organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work" and "This organization really cares about my well-being". To measure POO, a four-item scale by Gibney et al. (2009) was used. A sample item for POO is "This organization blocks from reaching my professional goals" and "This organization is an obstacle to my well-being".

Perceived Brand Authenticity(PBA): PBA was measured by taking 6 items that can apply in a restaurant brand from 14 items consumer-based brand authenticity measure developed by Napoli et al (2014). A sample item for PBA is "This organization has a strong connection to a historical period in time, culture and/or specific region."

Perceived Unethical Organization Behavior (PUOB): PUCB was measured by taking 5 items from 37 items of unethical behavior developed by Kaptein, M. (2008). Keptein's unethical behavior scale was consist of five subscales comprising primarily related to financiers, customers, employees, suppliers, and society. This study used 5 items which showed the highest frequency of observed unethical behavior toward employees. A sample item for PUOB is "This organization is discriminating against employees (based on age, race, gender, religious belief, sexual orientation, etc.)" and "This organization is violating employee wage, overtime, or benefits rules."

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): Organizational citizenship behavior was measured by three-dimensional OCB-O measures (conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship).

Conscientiousness was assessed by 4 items developed by Lo, and Ramayah, T. (2009). Civic virtue was assessed by 5 items developed by Lo, and Ramayah, T. (2009). Sportsmanship was measured by 4 items developed by Konovsky and Organ (1996).

Behavioral intention (intention to stay, intention to leave)*:* Intention to stay was assessed by 2 items developed by Gibney et al. (2009) and 1 item developed by Kim et al. "I would stay with this organization even if offered the same position with slightly higher pay at another company"; "It is likely for me to work for this company as long as this organization wants me"; and "I would be reluctant to leave this". Following Meyer et al., Intention to leave the was measured with three items developed by Labatmedienė, Endriulaitienė, & Gustainienė, (2007): "I frequently think about leaving the organization," "I am searching for a job in another organization" and "I will actually leave the organization within the next year". One item was generated to measure intention to leave. "I would not think twice leaving [name of the restaurant (brand)] if I have another opportunity."

5.4. Results

5.4.1 Sample characteristics

Table 5.1 shows the 567 valid respondents' profiles. All showed non-significant normality issues.

- Insert table 5.1 here -

5.4.2 Model test

A two-step approach was used in this study. A CFA performed to test relations between observed variables and to assess the reliability and construct validity (Brown, 2006). Also, an additional CFA model was conducted. An objective of this analysis was to establish whether OI

and ODI constructs can indeed be interpreted as distinct constructs (discriminant validity) which have separate antecedents. Thus, the hypothesized a twelve-factor CFA model tested compared to the fit of an eleven-factor CFA model that assumes all items measuring OI and ODI all loaded on one latent factor. The next, the structural model was used to assess the relationships among research variables.

5.4.4. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

A CFA was conducted and the constructs of the hypothesized model were examined via fitness modeling. The global fit indexes of the model was df = 1671, χ^2 = 5488.61, CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.89, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.05. Item-to-total correlation, correlation matrix for the latent variables and coefficient alpha were reviewed. The correlation between OCBCV factor and OI factor was .90. Civic virtue refers to" the behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the company" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990, p. 115) whereas OI refers to "perceive oneness with the organization" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 103). The definitions of 2 variables were similar and the high correlation between two variables may lead to cause misleading tests of theory, thus OCBCV factor was removed (Grewal & Baumgartner, 2004). Also, PBA1(r > 0.73) and PBA6 (r > 0.66) were strongly correlated with all POS items. Those items were removed because such items do not adequately discriminate among different factors. In addition, the correlations of OCBSPOR1(λ= 0.57) with other 3 items ranged from 0.21 to 0.38 and the correlations of OCBSPOR4 (λ= 0.50) with other 3 items range from 0.21 to 0.37. Those two items were removed.

The second CFA was conducted with the remaining items. The overall goodness-of-fit indices showed that the model *(df = 1378, χ^2 = 32734.106, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.10)* adequately accounted for the sample variances and covariance (Fan et., 1999; Marsh et al., 2004). The hypothesized measurement factor loadings were all statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and substantial in size, the AVEs were all higher than the recommended value of 0.50 and the construct reliabilities were large, providing evidence for the convergent validity of the constructs. The latent variable correlation between being less than 0.9 and AVE of each of the latent constructs is higher than the highest squared correlation with any other latent variable. (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Values of the Coefficient alpha ranged from .74 to .97, exceeding Nunnally's (1978) recommended minimum level of .70. Means, standard deviations, AVE, composite reliability and the correlation among latent variables are present in Table 5.2 and results of confirmatory factor analysis are present in table 5. 3

- Insert table 5.2 here –

- Insert table 5. 3 here –

Then, the hypothesized an eleven-factor model tested compared to the fit of a ten-factor model that assumes that all items measuring OI and ODI all loaded on one latent factor. A likelihood test was performed to compare two CFA models are compared. CFA demonstrates that twelve-factor model *(df = 1378, χ^2 = 32734.106, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.10)* was a significantly better fit than an eleven-factor model *(df = 1194, χ^2 = 6669.43, CFI = 0.81, TLI = 0.81, RMSEA = 0.09, SRMR = 0.09)*. These findings served as a good foundation for further hypothesis testing, implying that both OI and ODI could both be compared, about antecedents and their influence on outcome variables.

5.4.5 The structural model and test of hypotheses

The next step in the analysis was to estimate the hypothesized model shown in Figure 5.1. The hypothesized model was first examined via a fitness modelling test and the outcome was adequate (χ^2(1203) = 4096140, p < .0001, CFI = .91, TLI =.90 RMSEA = 0.07 SRMR = 0.10). In a competing model included additional 12 paths from for four antecedents of OI and ODI to behavioral intentions and OCB in the hypothesized model. In the competing model (χ^2(1191) = 3881.88, p < .0001, CFI = 0.91, TLI =0.91, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.09). Comparison of the hypothesized model against the competing model using a likelihood test showed that adding 12 paths provided a significant improvement in chi-square (χ^2(12) = 221.55, p <.05). Figure 5.1 illustrated the SEM results of the hypothesized model.

- Insert figure 5.1 here –

5.5.6. Main effects hypotheses

The results in Figure 1 confirmed most predictions of our basic research model. In accordance with H1 and H2, PBA (γ = 0.31, p<0.001) was positively associated with OI after controlling for the influence of POS and POS (γ = 0.58, p<0.001) were positively associated with OI after controlling for the influence of POS. These predictors explained 73 percent of the variance in OI. PUOB (γ = 0.07, p>0.05) was not significantly associated with ODI after controlling for the influence of POO whereas POO (γ = 0.74, p<0.001) was positively associated with ODI after controlling for the influence of PUOB, rejecting H3 and confirming H4. These predictors explained 61 percent of the variance in ODI. OI (β = 0.72, p<0.001) was positively

associated with OCB when controlling for the influence of ODI and ODI (β = -0.14, p<0.05)

was negatively associated with OCB when controlling for the influence of OI, confirming H5,

H6. These predictors explained 59 percent of the variance in OCB. OI was positively associated

with the intention to stay when controlling for the influence of ODI (β = 0.82, p<0.001), in

support of H7. Interestingly, ODI (β = 0.14, p<0.01) had a significant positive relationship with

intention to stay after controlling for the influence of OI, rejecting H8. These predictors

explained 61 percent of the variance in intention to stay. OI (β = -0.14, p<0.001) was negatively

associated with intention to leave after controlling for the influence of ODI whereas ODI (β =

0.82, p<0.001) was positively associated with intention to leave after controlling for the

influence of OI, confirming H9-H10. These predictors explained 57 percent of the variance in

intention to leave.

Contrary to what this study had hypothesized, ODI was also positively associated with

their intention to stay after controlling for the influence of OI. It may be subject to the influence

of multicollinearity. In confounding and mediational hypotheses, statistical adjustment for a third

variable can change the magnitude of the relationship between the independent and dependent

variables (MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000). To identify the individual roles of OI and

ODI on behavioral intentions and OCB, two additional partial models were tested. The first

partial model only examined the relationships among POS, PBA, OI, STAY and LEAVE. The

second partial model only examined the relationships among PUOB, POO, ODI, STAY and

LEAVE. In partial models, consistent with what this study had hypothesized, PUOB (β =0.11,

p<0.5) was positively related to ODI after controlling for POO and OID (β = -0.41, p<

0.001)was negatively linked to the intention to stay after controlling OI. Figure 5.2 and 5.3

summarized the results of the two partial models. These findings showed that both OI and ODI have significant roles in behavioral intentions and OCB not only individually but also concurrently. Also, OI and ODI should be treated respectively in terms of enhancing OI and decreasing ODI.

5.4.6. Mediational model

For more rigorous mediation analysis, the mediating role of OI and ODI in the relationships between drivers and outcomes were assessed. The percentile bootstrap confidence approach was used to evaluate the significance of the indirect/ mediated effect. The 95% percentile bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect/ mediated effect of 8 paths was significant because the 95% percentile bootstrap confidence interval did not include zero. The results of mediation analysis are summarized in table 5.4. "S" indicates there is a significant mediating effect of the path.

- Insert table 5.4 here –

5.4.8. Post-Hoc Analyses and results

As an extension of the current study, multi-group analysis (MGA) was conducted to compare SEM models across different levels of categorical groups, which is useful tests for discrete moderating variables (Eberl, 2010). This paper focuses on three main dispositional variables; restaurant type (limited service vs others), position (managerial vs non-managerial) and employment type (part-time, full-time).

First, employment type can affect employment type can play an important role in the relationship between employees and the organization. According to Bureau of Labor Statistics,

part-time employees constitute approximately 22% of the workforce and numbered more than 27 million employees in the U.S.A in 2017 and about 29 percent of employees in the service industry work part-time, which is higher than all other industries. Current Population Survey (CPS) defines "part-time workers" as those who usually work 0 to 34 hours a week. Having part-time provide benefits to organizations such as flexibility in scheduling, lowering employment cost by not providing insurance, sick leave, and vacations, meeting market demands more efficiently (Feldman, 1990). However, part-time employees may have less interest and familiarity with the organization and they often consider the current position as seasonal or temporary. Also, full-time employees tend to have a long-term perspective and receive treatment as an organizational investment than part-time employees (Shore et al, 1999). Moreover, part-time employees often feel that they are being treated unfairly by the organization although they perform similar or same work tasks with the full-time worker (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003). Thus, part-time and full-time employees may have different attitudes and behaviors toward their jobs or the organization (Barling & Gallagher, 1996).

Previously scholars used partial inclusion theory to explain these differences of the attitudes and work behaviors between two. Part-time employees spend relatively less time in their workplaces so less included in the organization and differ in psychological contract fulfillment which can lead to a reduced effect on work-related attitudes and behaviors Also, part-time employees may have relatively fewer chances to communicate and discontinuity of interaction than full-time employees within the organization (Conway & Briner, 2002). Also, part-time employees may have different career goals and working in the organization may not a priority in their life. Therefore, the mutual expectations between the organization and part-time or full-time employees can be different (Steffy & Jones, 1990).

However, research findings of the work attitudes or behaviors between full-time and part-time employees have been inconsistent. For example, Eberhardt and Shani (1984), O'Creevy (1995) found that part-time employees had higher job satisfaction but Hall and Gordon (1973) and Miller and Terborg (1979) found that full-time employees had higher job satisfaction. Krausz, Sagie, and Bidermann, (2000)'s study showed there was no significant difference in job satisfaction between part-time employees and full-time employees. To date, there has been little theoretical and empirical work on examining the relationship between organizational identification and employment type. This study determined whether employment type moderated the relationships between OI and its antecedents. Previous studies (e.g., Conway & Briner, 2002; Holtom, Lee, & Tidd, 2002) suggested that employment type may influence the nature of the exchange relationships in an organizational context. Gakovic and Tetrick, (2003) found that part-time employees had higher levels of POS compare to full-time employees while full-time employees had a higher commitment- sacrifice and greater relational and transactional obligations.

When employees perceive that the organizational identity is positive and salient, employees are more likely to identify with the organization (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998). Full-time employees could be more positively influenced by an organization's values and goals than part-time employees because they had more exposure to the organization's attempts (Lee & Johnson, 1991).

Second, employees may have different attitudes toward the organization based on their work position. According to Maslow's theory, when an individual is satisfied a need then moves on to another need. Managerial employees may pursue satisfying higher-order needs whereas non-managerial employees attempt to satisfy lower order needs such as pay (Savery, 1988).

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Therefore, the organization needs different strategies to motivate each group and those two groups may have different reasons to increase or decrease the level of OI or ODI. The roles of job position to work-related attitudes or behaviors are still not clear. Very few studies were conducted to examine the relationship work position with them. Hall, Schneider, & Nygren (1970) that found OI was significantly associate with tenures but not with the employee's position. In terms of job satisfaction, Savery's (1988) study found an insignificant relationship between managerial and non-managerial employees.

Third, the restaurant concept can be a significant moderator between the research variables. MIT technology review reported that the employee turnover rate in the fast-food restaurant industry was approximately 150 percent in 2017 which is the highest rate since 1995. The average age of a fast-food employee is 29 years old and approximately 60% are 24 or younger (cepr.net, 2013). According to National Employment Law Project (2013), non-managerial positions such as cooks, delivery people, cashier, and other line-work positions in fast food restaurants rank among the lowest-paying jobs in the U.S. economy despite the fact that the intensity of labor is considerable. In addition, only 2.2 percent of fast-food jobs are managerial, professional, or technical positions. Approximately 86 percent of employees in the fast-food concept are part-time. The wage of fast-food employees was approximately three and a half time less than the average national wage in 2018 (The Social Security Administration, 2018). Median payment of front-line employees in fast food restaurant is near the minimum wage and 87 percent of them do not receive health benefits by their organizations (Allegretto et al., 2013). Also, fast food organizations enable to use "a youth minimum" that is the wage of not less than $4.25 an hour to employees who are under 20 years of age during the first 90 consecutive calendar days after initial employment" (dol.gov, 2016, p.2).

Seymour's (2000) case study found that there were significant differences in kind or degree of emotional labor between fast food and traditional service work. Fast food restaurants provide relatively more standardized service than traditional outlets which can make both themselves and customers feel dehumanized. Also, Ghiselli, La Lopa and Bai's study (2001) found that managers who were working for limited menu, no table-service restaurants had the highest short term and long term intention to leave compared to managers in full service, cafeteria restaurants. Leidner's (1993) study also found that fast-food employees had negative emotional and social effects of engagement in intense emotional labor with customers.

Specifically, MGA examined how four independent variables influenced employees' behavioral intentions through OI and ODI across different levels of three categorical groupings. The first step of Multi-group SEM is dividing the data into two subsamples according to the moderating variable and estimates the same path model for each subsample. Then measurement invariance should be established. To identify whether there is a moderating effect by the grouping variable, two models are compared. In Model 1, path coefficients have freely estimated all parameters in each group and Model 2, path coefficients are constrained to be equal across the two groups. Then, the two models were compared using likelihood ratio tests. The fit of Model 2 (the common path model) for restaurant type ($\Delta\chi_2 = 38.10$, $\Delta df = 8$, p < .05), and position ($\Delta\chi_2 = 61.14$ $\Delta df = 8$, p < .05), were significantly worse than that of Model 1(the model with group-specific slopes) indicating the variables moderates some relation(s) among the variables However, there was an insignificant chi-square difference across groups for employment type ($\Delta\chi_2 = 14.04$ $\Delta df = 8$, p > .05).

Table 5.5 presents unstandardized path coefficients for each subgroup. The effect of PUOB on ODI was significant among the managerial group (B = 0.19, $p<.05$) after controlling

for POO but not significant among the non-managerial group. Also, ODI was a significant predictor of the intention to stay after controlling for OI among the managerial group (B = 0.15, p <.001) but not among the non-managerial group. Also, POS was significantly associated with OI after controlling for PBA among people who work for other service concepts (B = 0.69, p<.0001) but was not significantly associated among people who work for limited-service concepts. Also, ODI was a significant predictor of the intention to stay after controlling for OI among employees who work for limited-service concepts (B = 0.15, p <.001) but not among people who work for other concepts.

- Insert table 5.5 here –

5.5. Discussion

The results of this study showed that POS and PBA were positively associated with OI, whereas POO was positively associated with ODI but PUOB did not have a significant effect on ODI. As hypothesized, OI positively affected the respondents' intention to stay. However, Also, OI was positively associated with OCB but ODI was negatively associated with OCB. ODI was positively associated with intention to leave but OI was negatively associated with intention to leave. Contrary to what this study had hypothesized, ODI was also positively associated with their intention to stay after controlling for the influence of OI.

As an extended study, a post hoc study found that ODI played different roles on the intention to stay and OCB across categorical grouping such as restaurant type, position.

5.5.1 Theoretical implications

Theoretically, this research attempted to extend the literature with the following additions to existing studies. First, the current study demonstrated the usefulness of the social identity approach in the restaurant settings by providing empirical data on the topic. OI and ODI were associated with employees' behavioral intentions and their OCB.

Second, OI and ODI were examined using a dual-process model. The results suggested that OI and ODI were distinct constructs in terms of their antecedents. POO and PUOB were more strongly correlated with ODI compare to OI while POS and PBA were more strongly correlated with OI compare to ODI. For example, if ODI was merely the opposite pole of OI, the magnitudes of the correlation ($r = 0.75$) between POO and ODI should be similar to the correlation ($r = -0.47$) between POO and ODI in the negative direction. Also, findings of the hypothesized model and two partial models showed that both OI and ODI had significant roles on behavioral intentions and OCB not only respectively but also concurrently.

Third, this study can help shed light on the role of ODI in the organization. The roles of ODI in the organization are still not clear. Previous studies have focused on the negative side of ODI however, the findings from personal interviews and statistical analyses suggested that ODI entails complicating psychological mechanism. For example, employees may have high ODI when they just entered in a new organization so ODI can be decreased when they become accustomed to the organizational culture and when they receive proper training about their job duties. During personal interviews, many participants mentioned that they felt that they did not belong to the organization when they just entered the organization. Although they perceived the organization a good place to work, they felt that they did not belong to the organization because of different organization culture, differences with coworkers or their unskilled job performances.

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It is suggesting that ODI may be distinguished with other negative organizational study variables such as job dissatisfaction.

Fourth, this study examined how individual differences moderated the roles of OI and ODI among restaurant employees. MGA results showed that managerial group and limited concept employees will lower level of the intention to stay with the organization when they have OID while ODI was not a signification factor of their intention to stay among non-managerial group and employees of other concepts. Also, both PUOB and POO were significant predictors of ODI among the managerial group while Only POO was a significant predictor of ODI among the non-managerial group. Also, for other restaurant concepts, both OI and ODI were significantly associated with their intention to stay and leave while for limited-service concepts, OI did not have a significant relationship with their intention to leave. Depending on their position or type of restaurant, employees are not only influenced by different factors in shaping their attachment or detachment to the organization but also have a different impact on their behavioral intentions. These findings suggest that the organization requires to have different strategies to manage the level of OI and ODI based on their position or the type of restaurant.

5.5.2 Practical implications

Practically, this study found that OI and ODI were unique constructs in terms of antecedents. It is important for managers in the restaurant industry to manage employees' attitude and behaviors because it is suggesting that managers need respective strategies to enhance OI and to decrease ODI. Although OI and ODI are important factors for employees' retention, it is hard for restaurant operators to manage OI and ODI directly. Therefore, from a practical perspective, it is important to understand under what conditions employees increase OI

and decrease ODI. Restaurant managers should actively emphasize on OI to improve employee retention. POS and PBA may help to increase employees' intention to stay through enhancing employees' OI. This study measured employees' perception and not actual statuses. Hence, showing employees appreciation formally (e.g., recognition, prizes) and informally (e.g., compliments) for their hard work can make them feel that they are valued in the organization. Although the organization is authentic and provide substantial supports, if employees are unaware of the advantageous treatments or the organization's authenticity because adequate information is not available, then these treatments and authenticity may not help enhance employees' OI. Thus, organizations should continuously communicate with employees about positive organizational images and the available organizational supports or benefits. Such messages should be delivered during orientation training and in on-going training or team meetings. Nowadays, more organizations attempt to communicate with their employees through their website or social media. Communicating with employees not only efficiently also timely can help employees to build psychological attachment with the organization.

Also, the results show that ODI a negative predictor of OCB. From the perspective of organizations, this finding can be more problematic than high employee turnover in some cases. When employees with high ODI may stay with the organization because they have limited opportunities to leave the organization. However, they may not perform beyond their formal duties and try to just meet their minimum requirements. Furthermore, they may directly or indirectly oppose the organization's decisions, criticize the organization publicly, and internally influence coworkers in the organization. Therefore, decreasing ODI is as important as increasing OI in organization settings.

Also, POO was a significant predictor of ODI. When employees perceive that the organization does not care about their well-being and hinder their personal or professional goals, employees will detach themselves with the organization cognitively and emotionally. Therefore, the organization should emphasize that the organization and employees are the groups sharing a common goal. Organizations should provide self-development programs so employees perceive that they are growing in the organization. Also, the post hoc study found that PUOB had a significant association with ODI among the managerial group. People in managerial positions more likely to have higher ODI, when they perceive that the organizational values and goals are different from theirs. The lack of ethics of an organization can influence customers' and employees' intention. Employees may be concerned and negatively react to organizational unethical behaviors, such as making a profit by disregarding procedures and protocols although these unethical behaviors do not directly influence their' own status. Therefore, building and maintaining effective systems to monitor and prevent occurrence and recurrence of unethical behaviors in the organization is important.

In addition, ODI was a significant predictor of intention to stay and intention to leave among employees working in limited concepts while POS was a significant predictor of OI among employees in other concepts but not among employees in limited concept. It is suggesting that managing the level of ODI is very important for limited concept restaurants. Generally, employees working in limited concepts receive relatively shorter onboard training compared to other concepts because its operating procedures are relatively simple. It may provide fewer chances to accustomed to its organizational culture and to know about the brand. Also, the employees' expectations toward the organization of limited concept employees about training or supports from the organization may lower than those of other concepts. However, when they

perceive that the organization is blocking their goals or does not care about well-being, they may decrease their intention to stay with the organization.

Recognitions, promotions may help the organization to decrease employees' ODI. They may help employees to perceive themselves as a member of the organization. Moreover, providing not only training on job skills but also history, politics, terms, goals, and values of the organization can play an important role in employees' OI. Also, providing chances to know about their coworkers (e.g., social gathering, sharing social media network, company events) may help to decrease the level of employees' ODI.

5.5.3 Limitation and the suggestions for future studies

This study has several limitations. First, given that self-reported data were used for this study, using a single data source may cause some problems because of common method bias. Self-reports are commonly used in psychological studies to measure participant perception, although participants are often consciously or unconsciously influenced by "social desirability" (Van de Mortel, 2008). Therefore, the ODI level could be deflated by this issue. Multi-source data such as supervisors' evaluations, performance evaluations could be used to avoid the issue for future study. Second, this study only measured the participants' current perception and intention toward the organization and work, as a snapshot of their current status. To observe the trend and cause of changes, a follow-up longitudinal study can be conducted using the same sample. Third, the sample of this study comprised only restaurant employees in the US. Therefore, the generalizability of the current findings has to be tested.

Major social identification scholars have focused on the negative side of ODI. However, Kreiner and Ashforth (2001) suggested that disidentification may lead to the behaviors that

benefit the organization, such as whistle-blowing, innovation, and conscientious dissent. Future

research may consider the inclusion of such behaviors. Also, it is necessary to compare with

other negative organizational factors such as organizational dissatisfaction.

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Table 5. 1 Demographic Characteristic

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	264	46.5
	Female	301	53.0
Ethnicity	White	369	65.0
	Black, African American	68	12.0
	Hispanic Latino	44	7.7
	Asian	57	10.0
	American Indian	17	1.9
	Others	2	0.4
Education	No schooling completed	3	0.5
	Some high school, no diploma	10	1.8
	High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	72	12.7
	Some college credit, no degree	155	27.3
	Associate degree	74	13.0
	Bachelor's degree	215	37.9
	Master's degree	36	6.3
	Doctorate degree	3	0.5
Part time / Full time	part time	210	37.0
	full time	349	61.4
Age	18 - 24	98	16.6
	25 - 34	377	63.9
	35 - 44	80	13.6
	45 - 54	24	4.10
	55 - 64	10	1.7
	75 - 84	1	0.20
Restaurant Type	Fast food	163	28.7
	Fast-casual	65	11.4
	Casual	178	31.3
	Fine dining	57	10.0
	Pub, bar	45	7.9
	Café, beverage store	50	8.8
	Others	10	1.8
	Shorter ($\leq$ 2.2 years)	296	51.4
	Longer (> 2.2 years)	276	48.6
Industry Tenure	Shorter ($\leq$ 4.2 years)	291	51.2
	Longer (> 4.2years)	277	48.8
Position	Managerial	168	30.0
	Non-managerial	400	70.0

Table 5. 2 Intercorrelation between variable

	Mean	CR	OI	ODI	STAY	LEAVE	POO	PUOB	POS	PBA	CON	SPORT	OCB
OI	3.69	0.97	0.71										
ODI	2.32	0.97	-0.67	0.71									
STAY	3.12	0.83	0.75	-0.42	0.62								
LEAVE	2.90	0.90	-0.60	0.75	-0.59	0.70							
POO	2.33	0.95	-0.47	0.75	-0.35	0.76	0.84						
PUOB	1.92	0.95	-0.21	0.64	-0.02	0.56	0.79	0.79					
POS	3.66	0.95	0.83	-0.64	0.74	-0.66	-0.52	-0.26	0.79				
PBA	3.62	0.90	0.79	-0.57	0.63	-0.57	-0.46	-0.20	0.84	0.70			
OCBCON	3.96	0.89	0.62	-0.45	0.43	-0.35	-0.41	-0.25	0.58	0.59	0.67		
OCBSPOR	3.54	0.83	0.58	-0.42	0.41	-0.33	-0.38	-0.24	0.54	0.55	0.59	0.71	
OCB	3.82	0.74	0.78	-0.57	0.55	-0.44	-0.51	-0.32	0.73	0.74	0.79	0.74	0.59

**Notes: CR – Construct reliability, AVEs (average variance extracted) appear on the diagonal in italics. POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity, POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction, PUOB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior, OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizational disidentification, OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave, CONS – Organizational citizenship behavior: conscientiousness, SPORT – Organizational citizenship behavior: sportsmanship

Table 5. 3 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	Standardized loading	α
Perceived organizational support		
POS1	0.84	0.95
POS2	0.90	
POS3	0.89	
POS4	0.91	
POS5	0.89	
Perceived brand authenticity		
PBA2	0.88	0.90
PBA3	0.76	
PBA4	0.88	
PBA5	0.81	
Perceived organizational obstruction		
POO2	0.87	0.95
POO3	0.95	
POO4	0.93	
Perceived unethical organizational behavior		
PUOB1	0.88	0.95
PUOB2	0.90	
PUOB3	0.87	
PUOB4	0.93	
PUOB5	0.88	
Organizational identification		
OI1	0.81	0.97
OI2	0.86	
OI3	0.86	
OI4	0.81	
OI6	0.90	
OI7	0.84	
OI8	0.77	
OI10	0.86	
OI11	0.86	
OI12	0.90	
OI13	0.86	
Organizational disidentification		
ODI1	0.84	0.97
ODI3	0.61	
ODI4	0.87	
ODI5	0.89	
ODI6	0.89	
ODI7	0.83	

ODI12	0.88	
ODI14	0.83	
Intention to stay		
STAY1	0.76	0.83
STAY2	0.84	
STAY3	0.76	
Intention to leave		
LEAVE1	0.83	0.90
LEAVE2	0.88	
LEAVE3	0.87	
LEAVE4	0.75	
Organizational citizenship behavior	0.79	0.74
OCBCON	0.74	
OCBSPOR		
Organizational citizenship behavior: consciousness		
OCBCON1	0.86	0.89
OCBCON2	0.85	
OCBCON3	0.74	
OCBCON4	0.83	
Organizational citizenship behavior: sportsmanship		
OCBSPOR2	0.87	0.83
OCBSPOR3	0.82	

Notes: POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity,
POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction, PUOB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior,
OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizational disidentification,
OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave

Table 5. 4 Results of mediation analysis

Path	Mediating effect
POS - OI – OCB	"S"
POS – OI – STAY	"S"
POS – OI – LEAVE	"S"
PBA – OI- OCB	"S"
PBA – OI- STAY	"S"
PBA – OI – LEAVE	"S"
PUOB – ODI – OCB	
PUOB – ODI – STAY	
PUOB – ODI – LEAVE	
POO – ODI – OCB	
POO – ODI – STAY	"S"
POO – ODI – LEAVE	"S"

Notes: POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity,
POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction, PUOB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior,
OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizational disidentification,
OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave

Table 5. 5 Unstandardized factor loadings for each subgroup

	Overall (n=567)		Managerial (n=168)		Non-managerial (n=398)		Limited service (n=226)		Others (n=340)	
			Position				Restaurant type			
POS -> OI	0.63	***	0.74	***	0.57	***	**0.29**	**n.s**	**0.69**	***
PBA -> OI	0.29	***	0.31	*	0.33	***	0.62	***	0.24	***
PUOB -> ODI	0.06	n.s.	**0.19**	*	**-0.08**	**n.s**	-0.16	n.s	0.09	n.s.
POO -> ODI	0.66	***	0.75	***	0.66	***	0.90	***	0.55	***
OI -> LEAVE	-0.23	***	-0.18	*	-0.20	**	-0.09	n.s.	-0.39	***
ODI -> LEAVE	0.66	***	0.76	***	0.65	***	0.65	***	0.63	***
OI -> STAY	0.87	***	0.97	***	0.76	***	0.78	***	0.91	***
ODI -> STAY	0.14	**	**0.15**	**	**0.09**	**n.s.**	**0.15**	**	**0.10**	**n.s.**

Notes: POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity, POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction, PUOB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior, OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizational disidentification, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001
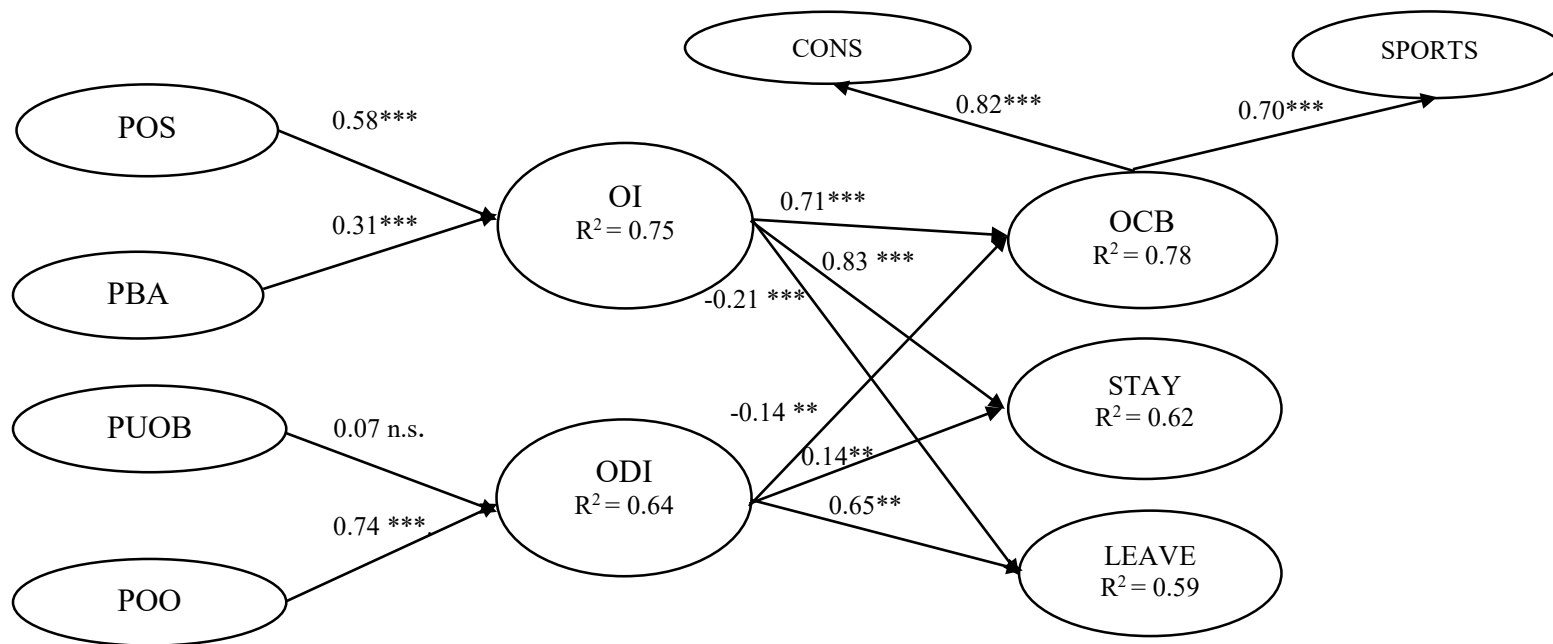
Figure 5. 1 Model
($\chi^2(1203) = 4061.12$, p < .0001, CFI = .91, TLI =.90 RMSEA = 0.07 SRMR = 0.10)
**Notes: POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity, POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction,
PUCB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior, OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizational disidentification,
OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave,
CONS – conscientiousness, SPORTS – sportsmanship
*** <.001, **<.01 *<.05
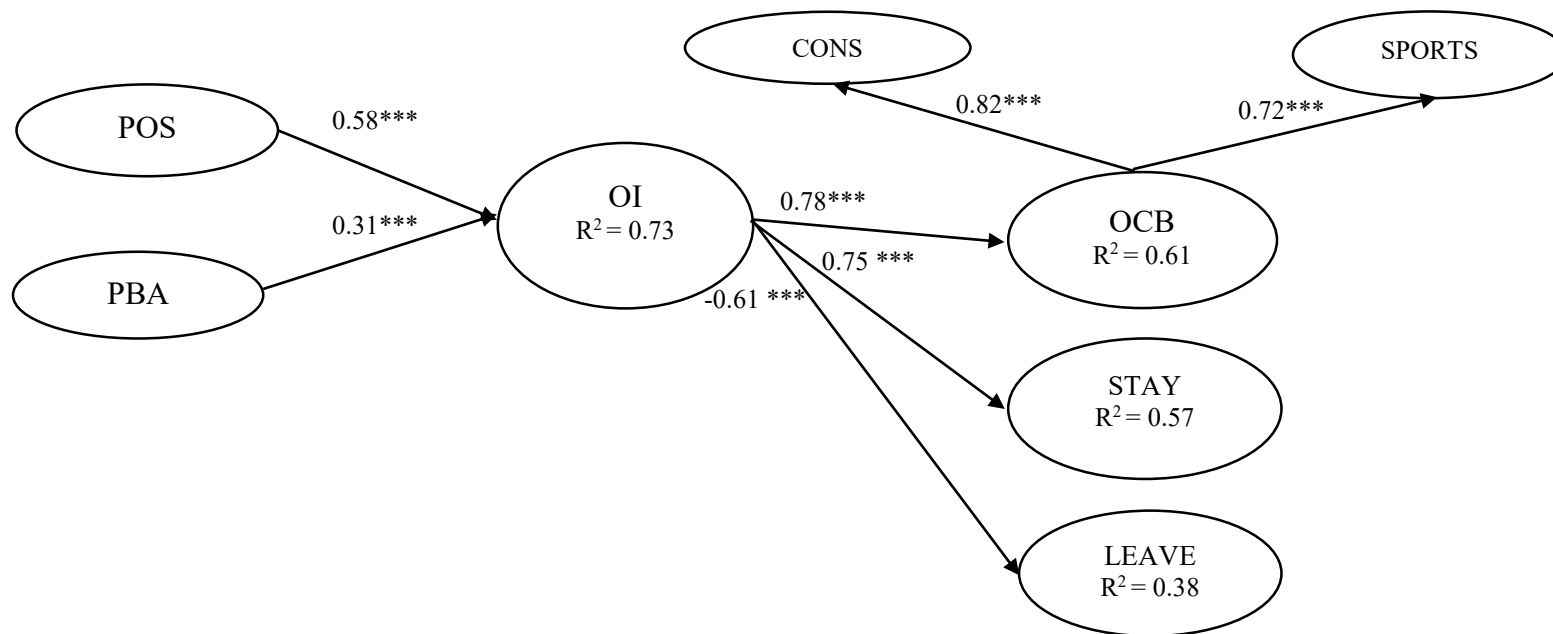
Figure 5. 2 Partial model 1
($\chi^2(484)$) = 1455.60, p < .0001, CFI = .94, TLI =.94 RMSEA = 0.06 SRMR = 0.04)
**Notes: POS – Perceived Organizational Support, PBA- Perceived Brand Authenticity, OI – Organizational Identification, ODI – Organizat
disidentification, OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave,
CONS – conscientiousness, SPORTS – sportsmanship
*** <.001, **<.01 *<.05

Figure 5. 3 Partial model 2
$(\chi^2(423) = 1571.76, p < .0001, CFI = .93, TLI = .93, RMSEA = 0.07, SRMR = 0.06)$
**Notes: POO – Perceived Organizational Obstruction, PUOB – Perceived Unethical Organizational Behavior, ODI – Organizational disider
OCB – Organizational Citizenship behavior, STAY – Intention to Stay, LEAVE – Intention to leave, CONS – conscientiousness,
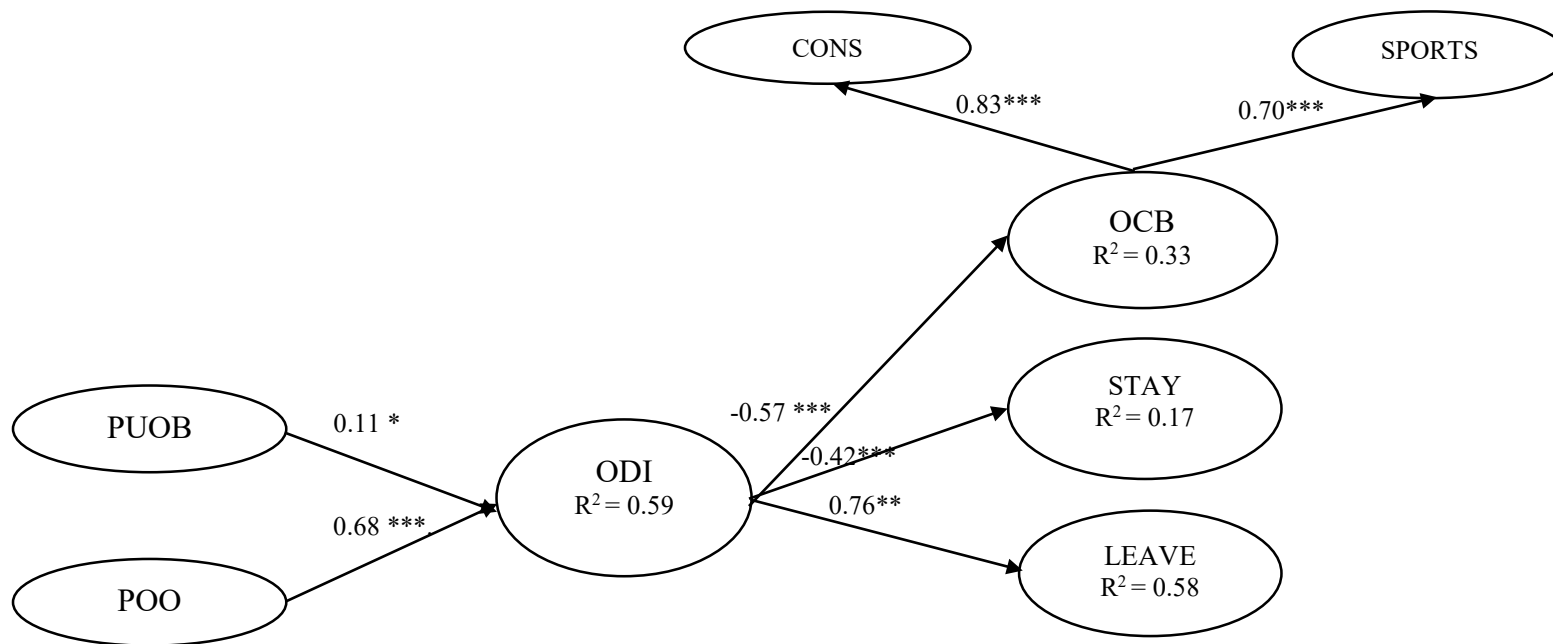SPORTS – sportsmanship
*** <.001, **<.01 *<.05

CHAPTER VI.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The voluntary quit ratio of accommodations and food-services industries is considerably higher than the industry average. Due to its impact on the business, both scholars and practitioners have been strived to identify the reasons for voluntary employee turnovers. Recently some scholars focus on employees' psychological attachment to explain employee turnover intention.

Although social identity theory (SIT) was frequently used to predict both one's work-related intention and attitudes (Rikettaa & Van Dick, 2004), there was an inconsistent understanding of the conceptualizations, and measurements of the variables involved (Boroş, 2008). Especially, there has been surprisingly little academic and empirical research on the structure, measurement, correlates, and consequences of ODI (Becker, J. C., & Tausch, N. 2014). Also, the appropriateness of SIT measures in the hospitality industry, particularly a restaurant sector, has rarely been examined. Therefore, organizational research requires more empirical studies about the nature of social identity variables and adequate scales to assess identification and disidentification with the organization in the restaurant settings. (Richins, 1997).

This study uses dual-factor theory to identify roles of OI and ODI on OCB and employees' behavioral intentions. Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) proposed that OI and ODI are individually distinct psychological states that have their respective salient antecedents (Kreiner and Ashforth, B. E. 2004). It is important to examine if OI and ODI are unique constructs because ODI entails different phenomenological states compared with low-level identification

(Ashforth et al., 2013, p. 2428). If OI and ODI are unique constructs, then they need manage respectively.

The purposes of this study were to develop a reliable and valid multi-item scale that measures restaurant employees' OI and ODI, to identify the respective antecedents of OI and ODI and to examine the relationships among OI, ODI, OCB, intention to stay and intention to leave. In addition, the moderating roles of individual's dispositional characteristics among those relationships. First, Study 1 developed reliable and valid scales of OI and ODI using a mixed methodology. Study 2 used those measures to test the relationships with their antecedents and outcome variables. Major findings included the following: POS and PBA were significant predictors of employees' OI and POO was a significant predictor of ODI. OI and ODI had a significant positive relationship with the intention to stay. OI was positively linked to OCB but negatively linked to the intention to leave. ODI was positively linked to the intention to leave while negatively linked to OCB. Also, the moderating roles of employment type, position, and restaurant type was tested on the relationships between the research variables and position and restaurant type had significant moderating roles. Major findings, including the research procedures, are present in the next section.

6.1 Major Findings

6.1.1 Scale Development (Study 1)

The scale development procedures were followed by guidelines of Churchill's (1979), Anderson and Gerbing's (1988), and Gerbing and Anderson (1988). The first step to develop the measures was specifying the domain of the construct and a literature review as suggested by (Churchill, 1979). A preliminary list of OI and ODI measurement scales (approximately 111 OI

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items and 83 ODI respectively) were generated based on previous measures and information from the interviews. Semi-structured personal interviews were conducted to generate a broad range of items. Interviewees consisted of restaurant, managers, and employees and they asked to describe in an open-ended format. Many of the items were redundant so lists of items were down to fifty-four OI items and forty-eight ODI. An expert group consisting of a faculty member, restaurant employees, Ph.D. students with restaurant working experiences reviewed the items and redundant, irrelevant and ambiguous items were removed or modified. 14 OI items and 15 ODI items retained through the expert group meeting. The remained 29 items were included in the questionnaire. Among 21 items, 3 OI items and 6 ODI items were generated by personal interviews. To identify clusters of variables from the expert meeting, an online survey was conducted. An online survey was distributed to 500 restaurant employees in the USA through MTurk. A total of 500 responses remained after deleting the responses that answered wrong on attention question. Tests for multivariate outliers found 20 significant cases (Mahalanobis' D (29) > 116.916, p < .001) and they were removed from further analyses. A total of 455 responses remained after deleting outliers and the responses that answered wrong on an attention question. For item refinement, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) assessed coefficient alpha and item-total correlation.

For item refinement, the collected data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis, item-to-total correlation, and coefficient alpha and identified/excluded ineffective items that may lead to confusion (Churchill, 1979). From OI1 to OI14 loaded to one factor and from ODI1 to ODI14 loaded to another factor. Descriptive statistics, factor loadings correlation matrix of three EFAs were examined and unnecessary and/or redundant items, as well as noises induced by sampling/measurement errors, were excluded (Mastsunaga, 2010). The second EFA was

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conducted with the remaining 21 items to determine scale dimensions underlying the construct. To assess the suitability of the respondent data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy/Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was used. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis of 21 items. KMO measure was 0.96 ('marvelous' according to Hutchenson and Sofroniou, 1999) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (p<.05). A principal axis factor analysis was conducted on the 21 items with oblique rotation (Promax rotation). Two factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 explained 74.5 % of the variance. The first factor (11 OI items) explained 39.1% of the variance and the second factor (10 ODI items) explained 35.5 % of the variance. The Cronbach's □ of the OI factor was 0.97 and that of the ODI factor was 0.97 (Nunnally, 1978).

Another online survey using MTurk was conducted to assess validity and reliability (Churchill, 1979). The survey was distributed electronically to 250 restaurant employees in the USA. A total of 218 responses remained after deleting outliers and the responses that answered wrong on an attention question. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to verify empirically whether the number of dimensions conceptualized correctly (Churchill, 1979) and directly tests unidimensionality of constructs (Gerbing & Anderson,1988). Consistent with the results of the first survey, the single dimensions were found in the new data. Fourteen OI items were loaded to one latent variable and fifteen ODI items were loaded to another latent variable in the hypothesized model. Unidimensionality of the model was assessed. The values of goodness-of-fit indices were acceptable. (df = 188, χ^2 = 419.65, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94 RMSEA = 0.08 SRMR = 0.05). The composite reliabilities were large (CR_{OI} = 0.99, CR_{ODI} = 0.99), providing evidence for the convergent validity of the constructs. The latent variable correlation to be less than 0.8 and AVE of each of the latent constructs exceeded the minimum criterion of .50 (AVE_{OI}

= 0.71 AVE$_{ODI}$ = 0.71). Also, the hypothesized two-factor CFA model (M0) was compared to the fit of a one-factor model that assumes that all 21 items measuring OI and ODI all loaded to one latent factor (M1). To compare these models, likelihood ratio test was used. CFA demonstrates that two-factor model (df = 188, χ^2 = 419.65, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94 RMSEA = 0.08 SRMR = 0.05) was a significantly better fit than a one-factor model (df = 189, χ^2 = 1516.50, CFI = 0.72, TLI = 0.70, RMSEA = 0.17, SRMR = 0.11). These findings served as a good foundation for further hypothesis testing, implying that both OI and ODI could both be compared, in relation to antecedents and their influence on outcome variables.

6.1.2 Relationships Among Study Constructs (Study 2)

In study two, ten hypotheses were tested. The OI and ODI scales were used to examine the relationships with their respective antecedents and consequences. A two-step approach was used in this study. Before the structural model, a measurement model was estimated to test the internal and external consistency of the measures, and then the structural model was used to assess the relationships among research variables. Tests for multivariate outliers found 67 significant cases (Mahalanobis' D (79) > 342.963, p < .001) and they were removed from further analyses. A total of 567 responses remained after deleting outliers and the responses that answered wrong on an attention question.

An objective of this analysis was to establish whether OI and ODI constructs can indeed be interpreted as distinct constructs (discriminant validity) which have separate antecedents. Then, the hypothesized a twelve-factor CFA model tested compared to the fit of an eleven-factor CFA model that assumes all items measuring OI and ODI all loaded on one latent factor. A CFA was conducted. First, the constructs of the hypothesized model were examined via fitness modeling.

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CFA demonstrates that twelve-factor model *(df* = 1378, χ^2 = 32734.106, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.10) was a significantly better fit than an eleven-factor model *(df* = 1194, χ^2 = 6669.43, CFI = 0.81, TLI = 0.81, RMSEA = 0.09, SRMR = 0.09). These findings served as a good foundation for further hypothesis testing, implying that both OI and ODI could both be compared, in relation to antecedents and their influence on outcome variables.

The next step in the analysis was to estimate the hypothesized model. The hypothesized model was first examined via a fitness modelling test and the outcome was adequate ($\chi2(1203)$ = 4061.12, p < .0001, CFI = .91, TLI =.90 RMSEA = 0.07 SRMR = 0.10). In a competing model included additional 12 paths from for four antecedents of OI and ODI to behavioral intentions and OCB in the hypothesized model. In the competing model ($\chi2(1191)$ = 3839.57, p < .0001, CFI = 0.91, TLI =0.91, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.09). Comparison of the hypothesized model against the competing model using a likelihood test showed that adding 12 paths provided a significant improvement in chi-square ($\chi2(4)$ = 221.55, p >.05). The summary of the results presented below. The letter "S" indicates the hypothesis was supported.

H1: Perceived organizational support is positively associated with organizational identification. (S)

H2: Perceived brand authenticity is positively associated with organizational identification. (S)

H3: Perceived unethical organization behavior is positively associated with organizational disidentification.

H4: Perceived organizational obstruction is positively associated with organizational disidentification. (S)

H5: Organizational identification is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior. (S)

H6: Organizational disidentification is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behavior. (S)

H7: Organizational identification is positively associated with intention to stay. (S)

H8: Organizational disidentification is negatively associated with the intention to stay.

H9: Organizational identification is negatively associated with the intention to leave. (S)

H10: Organizational disidentification is negatively associated with the intention to leave. (S)

Also, multi-group analysis (MGA) was conducted to compare SEM models across different levels of a categorical grouping, which is useful tests for discrete moderating variables (Eberl, 2010). This paper focuses on three main dispositional variables; restaurant type (limited service concepts vs others), position (managerial vs non-managerial) and employment type (part-time vs full-time). The effect of PUOB on ODI was significant among the managerial group (B = 0.19, p<.05) but not significant among the non-managerial group. Also, ODI was a significant predictor of the intention to stay among the managerial group (B = 0.15, p <.001) but not among the non-managerial group. Also, POS was significantly associated with OI among people who work for other service concepts (B = 0.69, p<.0001) but was not significantly associated among people who work for limited-service concept restaurants. Also, ODI was a significant predictor of the intention to stay among employees who work for limited-service concept restaurants (B = 0.15, p <.001) but not among people who work for other concepts.

6.2 Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study represents the first attempt to develop a reliable and valid OI and ODI measures that assess employees' psychological attachment and detachment with the organization in the restaurant industry. These measurements can possibly be used to predict employees' attitudes, behaviors in the organization such as organizational citizenship behavior, behavioral intention, commitment, etc. of restaurant employees. Also, this study enables accurate assessment of more complex restaurant employees' psychological experiences by uncovering the dimensions of OI and ODI. The results of EFA and CFA suggested that a single dimension was adequate to capture the range in both employees' OI and ODI in the restaurant industry. Also, the roles of ODI in organizational settings require further investigation. These measures may help shed light on the role of ODI in the organization.

Practically, inducing OI and decrease ODI may help to achieve a competitive advantage in the hospitality industry. Especially, the present study generated eight new measures of OI and ODI through personal interviews with current restaurant employees. The uncovered OI and ODI measures may enable restaurant operators to understand employees' psychological experiences more precisely in the organization and to develop more sophisticated employee training and operation systems that lead to employees' more favorable attitudes or behaviors.

Study 2 attempted to extend the literature with the following additions to existing studies. First, the current study demonstrated the usefulness of the social identity approach in the organizational setting by providing empirical data on the topic. OI and ODI were significant predictors of OCB and behavioral intentions. Second, OI and ODI were examined using a dual-process model. The results found that OI and ODI were distinct constructs that differ in their salient antecedents. Third, this study confirmed how individual differences moderated the roles

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of OI and ODI among restaurant employees. From a managerial perspective, the research findings suggest that restaurant managers should actively emphasize on OI to improve employee retention. Organizations should continuously communicate with employees about a positive organizational image and the available organizational support or benefits. Such messages should be delivered during orientation training and in on-going training or team meetings not only efficiently but also timely. The results show that ODI was a significant predictor of employees' intention to stay. However, from the perspective of organizations, this finding can be more problematic than high employee turnover in some cases. If employees with high ODI stay with the organization because they have limited opportunities to leave the organization, then they may directly or indirectly oppose the organization's decisions, criticize the organization publicly, and internally influence coworkers in the organization. Therefore, decreasing ODI is as important as increasing OI.

6.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Study

This study has several limitations. First, Web-based surveys were conducted to collect data on only current restaurant employees in the USA. Employees' emotional experiences and perceptions of the organization can differ based on the type of industries or locations. Therefore, caution should be taken in interpreting and generalizing the findings across other types of industries.

Second, given that self-reported data were used for this study, using a single data source may cause some problems because of common method bias. Self-reports are commonly used in psychological studies to measure participant perception, although participants are often consciously or unconsciously influenced by "social desirability" (Van de Mortel, 2008). Therefore, the ODI level could be deflated by this issue. Multi-source data could be used to

avoid the issue for future study such as supervisors' evaluation or performance evaluation to measure employees' actual behaviors.

Third, the main purpose of this study was to identify the concurrent roles of OI and ODI to find out if the variables should be treated differently. Results showed that OI and ODI were unique constructs. However, ODI had a significant positive relationship with intention to stay in the hypothesized model although the correlation matrix showed a negative relationship between two variables. In confounding and mediational hypotheses, statistical adjustment for a third variable can change the magnitude of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000). To identify the individual roles on behavioral intentions and OCB, two additional partial models were tested. In two partial models, PUOB was positively related to ODI and OID was negatively linked to the intention to stay as hypothesized.

Major social identification scholars have focused on the negative side of ODI. However, Kreiner and Ashforth (2001) suggested that disidentification may lead to the behaviors that benefit the organization, such as whistle-blowing, innovation, and conscientious dissent. Future research may consider the inclusion of such behaviors. Also, it is necessary to compare with other negative organizational factors such as organizational dissatisfaction. Thus, further investigation of ODI could offer a substantially comprehensive explanation of the roles of ODI.

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APPENDIX A - MEASURES

Organizational identification

[the name of the restaurant (brand)]'s successes are my successes.

Being a part of [Name of restaurant (brand)] is important to me.

I am interested in [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s growth.

When I see positive (online) guest comments, I am proud of being part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I feel a strong attachment to [Name of restaurant (brand)].

I feel a strong sense of belonging to [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I find that my values and the values of [name of the restaurant (brand)] are very similar.

I have a lot in common with others in [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I really want to contribute to the success of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I see myself as an important part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I would describe [name of the restaurant (brand)] as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] means a lot to me.

When someone praises [name of the restaurant (brand)], it feels like a personal compliment.

I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes [name of the restaurant (brand)].

Organizational disidentification

I do not consider [name of the restaurant (brand)] to be important.

I'm completely different from other employees of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I don't care about [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s goals

I am not aligned well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I feel like that I do not fit at [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I feel uncomfortable being perceived as an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

It is hard to find something common between myself and others in [name of the restaurant (brand)]

I felt so lost sometimes in [name of the restaurant (brand)]

I have the tendency to distance myself from [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I have tried to keep [name of the restaurant (brand)] I work for a secret from people I meet.

It is good if people say something bad about [name of the restaurant (brand)].

Organization's success or failure is not my interest

Overall, being an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)] has very little to do with how I feel about myself.

I regret that I belong to [name of the restaurant (brand)].

My personality does not match well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

Intention to stay

I would stay with [name of the restaurant (brand)] even if offered the same position with slightly higher pay at another company.

It is likely for me to work for [name of the restaurant (brand)] as long as this organization wants me.

I would be reluctant to leave [name of the restaurant (brand)].

Intention to leave

I frequently think about leaving [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I am searching for a job in another organization.

I will actually leave [name of the restaurant (brand)] within the next year.

I would not think twice leaving [name of the restaurant (brand)], if I have another opportunity.

Perceive organizational obstruction

[name of the restaurant (brand)] blocks from reaching my professional goals.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] gets in the way of my performance.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] is an obstacle to my well-being.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] blocks my personal goals.

Perceive organizational support

[name of the restaurant (brand)] strongly considers my goals and values.

Help is available from [name of the restaurant (brand)] when I have a problem.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] really cares about my well-being.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] cares about my general satisfaction at work.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Perceive unethical organizational behavior

[name of the restaurant (brand)] is discriminating against employees (on the basis of age, race, gender, religious belief, sexual orientation, etc.).

[name of the restaurant (brand)] is engaging in (sexual) harassment or creating a hostile work environment (e.g., intimidation, racism, pestering, verbal abuse, and physical violence).

[name of the restaurant (brand)] is violating employee wage, overtime, or benefits rules.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] is breaching employee privacy.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] is fabricating or manipulating product quality or safety test results.

Perceived brand authenticity

The service of [name of the restaurant (brand)] is significantly distinct in quality.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] carries a sense of tradition.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] refuses to compromise the values upon which it was founded.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] builds on traditions that began with its founder.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] has a strong connection to an historical period in time, culture and/or specific region.

[name of the restaurant (brand)] sticks to its values rather than run after short-term market trends.

Organizational citizenship behavior: Civic Virtue

I am eager to tell outsiders good things about [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I am willing to stand up to protect the reputation of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I actively attend organization meetings.

I do not mind taking on a new challenging task.

I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of [name of the restaurant (brand)].

Organizational citizenship behavior: Conscientiousness

I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues.

I take my job seriously and rarely makes mistakes.

I often arrive early and starts to work immediately.

I comply with company rules and procedures even when nobody watched and no evidence can be traced.

Organizational citizenship behavior: Sportsmanship

I avoid consuming a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.

I do not try to find faults with what the organization is doing.

I do not express resentment with changes introduced by management.

I think about coworkers' problems.

Job Embeddedness: Fit

My job utilizes my skills and talents well.

I feel like I am a good match for this organization.

I feel personally valued by [name of the restaurant (brand)].

I like my work schedule (e.g., flextime, shift).

I fit with [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s culture.

I like the authority and responsibility I have at [name of the restaurant (brand)].

Job Embeddedness: Sacrifice

I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.

I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job.

My promotional opportunities are excellent here.

I am well compensated for my level of performance.

The benefits are good at this job.

APPENDIX B - SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Question ** required **
Are you currently working in a restaurant?
1) Yes
2) No

Question** required **
Which type of restaurant are you working at?
1) Fast food restaurant (e.g., McDonald, Burger King, etc. or similar privately owned restaurant(s))
2) Fast-casual restaurant (e.g., Chipotle Mexican Grill, Panera Bread, etc. or similar privately owned restaurant(s))
3) Casual dining (e.g., TGI Fridays, Chili's, etc or similar privately owned restaurant(s))
4) Fine dining (e.g., Fogo de Chao, Fleming's Prime Steakhouse, etc. or similar privately owned restaurant(s))
others [   ]

Question
What is the name of the restaurant at which you are working?
[   ]

Question** required **
Does the restaurant (brand) have more than one location in the United States?
1) Yes
2) No

Question** required **
If you answered yes, what is the approximate total number of employees (e.g., McDonald) has at all the locations in the United States?
1) 1 – 49
2) 50 – 999
3) 1,000 - 4,999
4) 5,000 or more
5) Other

Question ** required **
 How long have you been working in this restaurant?
[   ] Year(s) [   ] Month(s)

Question ** required **
How long have you been working in the restaurant industry?
[   ] Year(s) [   ] Month(s)

Based on your experiences, please indicate your general perception toward the restaurant (for single-unit restaurant) or the restaurant brand (e.g., McDonald) that you are currently working ("this organization" in this survey).

Question ** required **
Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.
1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

I see myself as an important part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
Being a part of [Name of the restaurant (brand)] is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am interested in [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s growth.	1	2	3	4	5
When I see positive (online) guest comments, I am proud of being part of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I feel a strong attachment to [Name of restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I feel a strong sense of belonging to [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I find that my values and the values of [name of the restaurant (brand)] are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a lot in common with others in [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I really want to contribute to the success of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
[the name of the restaurant (brand)]'s successes are my successes.	1	2	3	4	5
I would describe [name of the restaurant (brand)] as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging.	1	2	3	4	5
I would describe [name of the restaurant (brand)] as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging.	1	2	3	4	5
[name of the restaurant (brand)] means a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5
When someone praises [name of the restaurant (brand)], it feels like a personal compliment.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel embarrassed when someone criticizes [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5

Question ** required **
Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.
1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

I do not consider [name of the restaurant (brand)] to be important.	1	2	3	4	5
I'm completely different from other employees of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I don't care about [name of the restaurant (brand)]'s goals	1	2	3	4	5
I am not aligned well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5

I would stay with [Name of the restaurant (brand)] even if offered the same position with slightly higher pay at another organization.	1	2	3	4	5
It is likely for me to work for [Name of the restaurant (brand)] as long as [Name of the restaurant (brand)] wants me	1	2	3	4	5
I would be reluctant to leave [Name of the restaurant (brand)]	1	2	3	4	5
I frequently think about leaving [Name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I am searching for a job in another organization	1	2	3	4	5
I will actually leave [Name of the restaurant (brand)] within the next year.	1	2	3	4	5
I would not think twice leaving [name of the restaurant (brand)], if I have another opportunity.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not aligned well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I feel like that I do not fit at [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I feel uncomfortable being perceived as an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
It is hard to find something common between myself and others in [name of the restaurant (brand)]	1	2	3	4	5
I felt so lost sometimes in [name of the restaurant (brand)]	1	2	3	4	5
I have the tendency to distance myself from [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I have tried to keep [name of the restaurant (brand)] I work for a secret from people I meet.	1	2	3	4	5
It is good if people say something bad about [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
Organization's success or failure is not my interest.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, being an employee of [name of the restaurant (brand)] has very little to do with how I feel about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I regret that I belong to [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
My personality does not match well with the organizational culture of [name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5

Question ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

[Name of the restaurant (brand)] blocks from reaching my professional goals	1	2	3	4	5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] gets in the way of my performance	1	2	3	4	5

[Name of the restaurant (brand)] is an obstacle to my well-being   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] blocks my personal goals   1   2   3   4   5

Question ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

[Name of the restaurant (brand)] strongly considers my goals and
values   1   2   3   4   5
Help is available from [Name of the restaurant (brand)] when I have
a problem   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] really cares about my well-being   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] cares about my general satisfaction
at work   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] takes pride in my accomplishments
at work   1   2   3   4   5

Question ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

[Name of the restaurant (brand)] is discriminating against employees
(on the basis of age, race, gender, religious belief, sexual orientation,
etc.)   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] is engaging in (sexual) harassment
or creating a hostile work environment (e.g., intimidation, racism,
pestering, verbal abuse, and physical violence)   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] is violating employee wage,
overtime, or benefits rules   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] is breaching employee privacy   1   2   3   4   5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] is fabricating or manipulating
product quality or safety test results   1   2   3   4   5

Question ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agre

The service of the organization is significantly distinct in quality	1	2	3	4	5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] carries a sense of tradition	1	2	3	4	5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] refuses to compromise the values upon which it was founded	1	2	3	4	5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] builds on traditions that began with its founder	1	2	3	4	5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] has a strong connection to an historical period in time, culture and/or specific region	1	2	3	4	5
[Name of the restaurant (brand)] sticks to its values rather than run after short-term market trends					

Question ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

I am eager to tell outsiders good things about [Name of the restaurant (brand)]	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to stand up to protect the reputation of [Name of the restaurant (brand)]	1	2	3	4	5
I actively attends company meetings	1	2	3	4	5
I do not mind taking on a new challenging task.	1	2	3	4	5
I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of [Name of the restaurant (brand)]	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
I take my job seriously and rarely makes mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
I often arrive early and starts to work immediately	1	2	3	4	5
I comply with company rules and procedures even when nobody watched and no evidence can be traced	1	2	3	4	5
I avoid consuming a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not try to find faults with what [Name of the restaurant (brand)] is doing	1	2	3	4	5
I do not express resentment with any changes introduced by management	1	2	3	4	5
I think about coworkers' problems as well.	1	2	3	4	5

Question ** required **
Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.
1 – Strongly disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 – Strongly agree

My job utilizes my skills and talents well.

I feel like I am a good match for [Name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I feel personally valued by [name of the organization].	1	2	3	4	5
I like my work schedule (e.g., flextime, shift).	1	2	3	4	5
I fit with [Name of the restaurant (brand)] 's culture.	1	2	3	4	5
I like the authority and responsibility I have at [Name of the restaurant (brand)].	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.	1	2	3	4	5
I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job.	1	2	3	4	5
My promotional opportunities are excellent here.	1	2	3	4	5
I am well compensated for my level of performance.	1	2	3	4	5
The benefits are good at this job.	1	2	3	4	5

Question
What is your age? _____

Question
What is your position in the restaurant?
1) Manager
2) Cook, chef
3) Owner
4) Server
5) Supervisor
6) Busser/runner
7) Others _____

Question
What is your gender?
1) Male
2) Female

Question
Please specify your ethnicity.
1) White
2) Black or African American
3) Hispanic or Latino
4) Asian
5) Native American or American Indian
6) Other _____

Question
Are you a part-time employee or full-time employee?
1) Part-time (work 0 to 34 hours a week)
2) Full-time (work 35 or more hours a week)

Question
Which categories describe your household income level, before taxes?
1) Under $24,999
2) $25,000-$39,999
3) $40,000-$54,999
4) $55,000-$69,999
5) $70,000-$84,999
6) $85,000-$99,999
7) Over $100,000

APPENDIX C – IRB APPROVAL

UNIVERSITY of
HOUSTON
DIVISION OF RESEARCH
Institutional Review Boards

APPROVAL OF SUBMISSION

April 19, 2019
So Hee Park
spark9@uh.edu
Dear So Hee Park:

On April 19, 2019, the IRB reviewed the following submission:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title of Study:	The roles of organizational identification and organizational disidentification on behavioral intentions
Investigator:	So Hee Park
IRB ID:	STUDY00001609
Funding/ Proposed Funding:	Name: Unfunded
Award ID:	
Award Title:	
IND, IDE, or HDE:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• Protocol 04172019.pdf, Category: IRB Protocol; • Recruitment Script 04062019.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Consent form_Survey 04122019.pdf, Category: Other; • Sample interview question 04062019.pdf, Category: Other; • Consent document Interview 04172019.pdf, Category: Other; • Dissertation_survey questions 04122019.pdf, Category: Other;
Review Category:	Exempt
Committee Name:	Not Applicable
IRB Coordinator:	Sandra Arntz

The IRB approved the study on April 19, 2019; recruitment and procedures detailed within the approved protocol may now be initiated.