



**A STUDY OF WAITERS' OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY AND ITS
EFFECT ON STAFF TURNOVER WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF
MICHELIN-STARRED RESTAURANTS IN LONDON**

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DEDICATION

This doctoral research is dedicated to my husband, Flavio Poli and my children Miguel Poli-Jerez and Delia Poli-Jerez, whose love and support for me has been paramount in being able to achieve my dream.

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PUBLICATIONS

Conferences

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, Maria Jerez, declare that the concepts, research work, analyses and conclusions stated in my PhD thesis 'A study of waiters' occupational identity and its effect on staff turnover within the context of Michelin-starred restaurants in London' are all completely my work, except where acknowledged otherwise. Furthermore, I confirm that this thesis includes no material that has been submitted before, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma, except, where indicated otherwise, this thesis is all my own work.

Signature _____

Date _____

ABSTRACT

This study aims to develop a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between waiters' occupational identity and its antecedents. The consequences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover are explored.

The development of occupational identity includes progressing, transforming, conserving, emphasising or evaluating existing identities; consequently, instead of considering the formation of identity as a simple procedure of accepting a work position, occupational identity is an interactive and problematic procedure. Occupational identity is not a rigid construct but is constantly shaped by engagement with the values of companies and occupational life. Traditionally, research has concentrated on the merely operational aspect of workers' jobs. In contrast, this research aims to concentrate on waiters' sense of self and their identity in the workplace. **Additionally, limited studies have focused on the relationship between occupational identity, its antecedents and consequences.**

This study applies a mixed-methodology, with predominion of quantitative approach, which is reinforced by understandings from an exploratory process which includes in-depth interviews and focus groups discussions. The conceptual model was created from the existing literature and qualitative study. In the second phase, the same conceptual model was adopted to assess waiters' perceptions in the context of Michelin-starred restaurnats in London. A sample of 398 participants permitted multivariate analysis of data to be undertaken. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed, Cronbach-alpha and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were also performed to guarantee that the scales developed and adapted were strong in terms of reliability and validity. Structural equation modelling (SEM) allowed the hypotheses between constructs to be scrutinised. The model established a good fit to the data, good convergent, discriminant and nomological validity and reliability.

Founded on the statistical outcomes and the qualitative study (in-depth interviews and focus groups and the related literature), this study has found that, apart from employer branding, other antecedent factors, such as passion and authenticity, influence favourably the occupational identity of waiters. Additionally, the relationship between occupational identity and the consequences were assessed; the outcomes of the hypotheses checking established that

occupational identity has a better effect on work engagement and turnover. Furthermore, the relationship between occupational identity, work engagement and turnover was confirmed. However, an unforeseen result was that the relationship between extroversion, education, interference and stereotype toward occupation identity were not significant. Overall, this thesis concludes that presenting occupational identity is a complex phenomenon.

This study is one of the pioneers in systematic research which has operationalised and conceptualised the meaning of occupational identity, its antecedents and its consequences. This evaluation is estimated to be valuable in progressing existing understanding by providing theoretic consideration to the literature. The level of measurement and conceptualisation of the theory generalisation and testing theory as a principal influence of this thesis was to present a comprehensive overview of the perspectives of waiters on their occupational identity. Additionally, it is expected that this research will provide a significant contribution to the managerial knowledge and consideration of the policy-makers and employers about the holistic correlation between a positive occupational identity, its antecedents and its principal consequences. A well-defined perception of the magnitudes of the principal meanings would assist employers to contemplate occupational identities which are more likely to develop a favourable occupational identity and consequently to reduce employee turnover.

This thesis has developed knowledge and understanding of the formation of occupational identity and its antecedents and consequences, although the outcomes are not without some limitations in the approach of sampling, analysis, and measurement. Recommendations are provided to stimulate further research to expand the innovative investigations of this study on occupational identity, its antecedents and consequences.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 starts by introducing the scope of the study as well as discussing the research background and identifying the gaps in the literature. Section 1.2 discusses the investigation setting. Section 1.3 presents the research problem, where the gaps in the literature are analysed. Section 1.4 identifies the objectives of the study. Section 1.5 discusses the research questions. Section 1.6 analyses the research design and analytical method. Section 1.7 highlights the research contribution of this thesis. The concept of the constructs is defined in Section 1.8. The study structure is established in the final Section 1.9.

1.2. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Occupational identity is frequently mentioned in the social sciences as career, vocational, or even professional identity (Holland et al., 1980; Schwartz et al., 2011; Sherwood and O'Donnell, 2018). Erikson (1980) defines it as a 'sense of self' that is perceived and derived from the function people apply to the work that they do. From one generation to another, occupational identity accumulates to create the essential aspects or core of a person's being and meaning (Jung, 2010). Occupational identity is the conscious understanding of oneself as an employee (Skorikov and Vondracek, 2011). For instance, an occupational identity is formed around the interactive relations that are currently significant in a person's environment (Skorikov and Vondracek, 2011). Even though these relations influence an occupational identity, it is the people who most influence the formation and deformation of occupational identity. A strong occupational identity is fundamental for waiters to work at a high standard, which benefits not only waiting professionals, but also customers and other hospitality workers.

Occupational commitment or choice are fundamental characteristics of identity and individuals are inclined to select their work and career to match the opinion they maintain of themselves (Kroger and Marcia, 2011; Parker et al., 2017; Skorikov and Vondracek, 2011). Conversely, occupational identity is not necessarily the most important feature of people's identity as a diversity of media image, socio-economic aspects and opportunities can have a considerable influence on occupational attraction. For example, based on this research, an occupational identity at the undergraduate level may vary and possibly degenerate when shaped by hospitality experience and the realisms of a waiter's career.

There are several potential findings of interest from this research. Although restaurants employ 1.5 million employees across the UK, accounting for 4.5% of the total UK employment (UKHospitality, 2017), this figure masks the relatively high degree of employee turnover (more than 32%) with an operating cost of 51.1%, the highest since 2007 (Bighospitality, 2017) and job dissatisfaction (Mullen, 2017). Both factors combine to influence business productivity (Britishdestinations, 2016). It cites lack of waiting staff skills and low wages as one of the reasons for this problem. The report also relates to lost sales and employee turnover. Besides the costs of recruitment and training, employers also face staff shortages resulting from waiters leaving their positions without notice. In their research to maintain success in the workplace, more and more organisations are managing a tactical framework, that includes both human resources and marketing (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Moroko and Uncles, 2008; Pride et al., 2015) so that an institution can appeal to maintain and incentivise those personnel; however, almost 1 in 5 (18%) of hospitality managers reported that recruitment is harder now than in April 2017 (Thedrinksbusiness, 2018). It seems that only a few organisations such as Marriot hotels, Google, Twitter, and Pizza Hut, have identified the benefits that a strong organisation-employee relationship can generate, not only in employee retention but also in promoting the organisation to others (Born and Kang, 2015). Therefore, this involves some knowledge of how the employment relationship may impact on a person's evaluation of her or his firm's employer branding. One area of the literature that focuses on this subject is occupational identity in relation to organisational identification.

Levels of employee turnover vary according to the type of restaurant. Fast food production, with its predominantly low pay scales, suffers the highest level of employee turnover (Ray, 2011), with a turnover of about 50% of employees at fast food restaurants, which costs the whole business about £5 billion in training and recruiting (Ray, 2011). This compares to a 44% employee turnover rate on average at casual dining restaurants (Ray, 2011). High-end food establishments, however, in general experience lower employee turnover (Ray, 2011). One of the contributing factors to high employee turnover is the negative image individuals have of working in restaurants (Kotera et al., 2018; Shantz and Booth, 2014; Wildes, 2005; 2007). From the psychological point of view, the notion that a waiter's job is just a stopover to something better further reinforces the negative view and accounts for the low level of staff retention in the hospitality sector (Crass et al., 1998; Janta et al., 2011).

1.3. STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

Traditionally, companies have focused on staff training and professional and financial rewards as a means of improving employee attitude towards their work. However, evidence from the front of house in restaurants (Bighospitality, 2017; 2018; Thecaterer, 2017; 2018; Ukandu and Ukpere, 2011; 2014), has clearly shown that waiting employees' attitude towards their job and performance has not improved. On the other hand, the hospitality sector has traditionally remained isolated in that it was not considered by academics to be an attractive field to research (Cooper, 2012). However, the restaurant sector has recently become more open to the public 'gaze'. This is in part due to the recent emergence of celebrity chefs and their 'open kitchens'; thus, previously, the professional kitchen exemplified the enigma of the 'backstage', as defined by Goffman (1959). Restaurant workers have traditionally experienced a high degree of privacy before the public eye, not only chefs, but also front-of-house waiters have, for a long time, inhabited the closed-off space of the kitchen, thus confirming Goffman's (1959) concept of a bifurcation between the public and private spheres.

In the last two decades, the enigma of the kitchen as a 'backstage' referred to by Goffman (1959) has received increased scrutiny from the media, bringing it more to the 'frontstage' (Cooper et al., 2017). There has been a tendency to research more chefs than waiters; this is possibly explained on the basis that food was of primary importance in establishing a reputable restaurant with less importance given to the service side of the sector. Wildes (2005) is an exception in the field; she draws attention to the stigma attached to the occupational identity of the waiter. The outcome of this research suggested that people who had previously worked in the foodservice industry at some point in their lives were able to cope better with any job thereafter. Alternatively, Fine (1996, p.16) focuses on a "dynamic self-conscious aesthetic" to define waiters' work identity". In managing research on restaurants and trade school cooking programmes, Fine (1996) reveals that teachers and staff are socialised into aesthetic obligation, creating a mutual emphasis on immaculate appearance in an effort to create 'aesthetically satisfying objects' demanded as a basic requirement of the hospitality sector.

Furthermore, there has been augmented media reporting of Michelin-starred restaurants as well as a burgeoning trend for chef biographies (Buford, 2012; Hennessy, 2000; Hopper and Humphries, 2017; Newkey-Burden, 2009; Ramsay, 2006; 2007; Simpson, 2006; White, 1990; 2006). This has transported restaurant workers into the public eye, including the waiting employees. Recently, restaurants have received attention from academics (Dahl, 2017; Mathe

et al., 2017; Petrovic and Markovic, 2012; Sehkaran and Sevcikova, 2011; Sukhu et al., 2017; Tibblas, 2007; Ukandu and Ukpere, 2011); however, these researchers have largely concentrated on the purely operational aspects of chefs' and waiters' jobs, for example, employees' performance or training. Little attention has been paid to waiters' sense of self or their occupational identity(ies) (Cooper et al., 2017). Shigihara (2014) suggests that the clear majority of ethnographical studies (Donovan, 1920; Erickson, 2009; Gatta, 2002; Kunwar, 2017; Low and Everett, 2014; Lugosi et al., 2009; Whyte, 1948) have focused on the occupational aspects of restaurant workers' culture, and on food (and drink) service employees overall, as opposed to the waiting sector as an individual group.

In summary, most studies have been inclined to focus on the restaurant industry in general, and tended not to consider waiting as a sub-sector in its own right (Shigihara, 2014). Furthermore, investigations have concentrated purely on the operational aspects of waiters' jobs, and have not looked at waiters' identities outside the workplace. It is, therefore necessary to shed scholarly light on this previously neglected aspect of the industry for the reason set out in the introduction: high employee turnover. Therefore, the purpose of this research is 'to develop a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between waiters' occupational identity and its influences, including employer branding, self-concept, work interaction, identity interference, authenticity, inter-groups and stereotype'. In addition, and based on the current literature, the consequences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover are explored. Saliency is used as a moderator of the relationship between antecedents and occupational identity to explain the influence of these independent variables on occupational identity. This research will investigate Michelin-starred restaurants in London. Due to their high-level of competence and experience, and the knowledge, training and passion that the group collectively shares, Michelin-starred waiters constitute the elite or 'crème de la crème' of the occupation (Cooper, 2017; Palmer et al., 2010). As such, this population is considered to be able to provide particularly informative cases for the study in order to answer the research questions posed.

1.4. OVERVIEW OF THE 'MICHELIN-STARRED' ACADEMIC LITERATURE

The Michelin-starred restaurant concept originated with the initial Michelin Guide, which was published by the Michelin Tyre Company in France in 1900 (Michelin, 2018). In Europe the Michelin Guide, also called Guide Rouge, is the maximum valued classification method for fine cuisine and gastronomy (Hegarty, 2016; Johnson et al., 2005; Lane, 2013; Maravic, 2016;

Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2007). The Michelin Guide is founded on unnamed independent reviews and inspections, including a range of the best restaurant and restaurant hotels across all price and comfort types. Michelin stars are endowed to restaurants on five specific standards, despite the quality of cuisine: mastering of flavours and cooking; the quality of products; consistency; value for money and personality of the cuisine. One star is awarded as a very superior restaurant in its classification, two stars indicate worth a detour and excellent cooking, while three stars reflects that the restaurant is worth a special journey and exceptional cuisine (Michelin, 2017).

The Michelin guide has a solid effect on the selection of fine dining enterprises. Losing a Michelin star can reduce a restaurant's profit by 50% (Johnson, et al., 2005; Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2007) and subsequently result in the closure of the establishment. Therefore, the risk implicated in keeping and implementing criteria is high.

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Occupational identity, based on the evidence obtained, is an important factor in employee turnover. Effective solutions have not been found which reduce employee turnover, nor have different approaches to occupational identity been sufficiently analysed. (Al-Tokhais, 2016; Gustafson, 2002). Therefore, research about this topic is worthwhile to enrich existing studies. In developing a comprehensive understanding of occupational identity, its antecedents and its influences on work engagement and turnover, this research aims to address the following list of more precise objectives:

- (1) To investigate what are the specific antecedents that influence the construction of occupational identity.
- (2) To study the relationship between occupational identity and its antecedents such as: employer branding, self-concept, work interaction, identity interference, authenticity, inter-groups and stereotype.
- (3) For consequences, study the relationships between occupational identity, work engagement, and turnover.
- (4) Develop the theoretical framework and operational model that incorporates the antecedents and outcomes of occupational identity.

Despite the growing popularity of employer branding and employee identity, empirical research on the topic is limited within the marketing literature (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004; Cable and

Turban, 2001; Davies, 2008; Priyadarshi, 2011; Tanwar and Prasad, 2016). This doctoral thesis will be one of the first empirical studies to investigate a specific understanding of the relationship between waiters' occupational identity, work engagement and employee turnover within restaurant organisations. Two overall research questions (RQ) are presented below, to further demonstrate how the research objectives are integrated into the current study. Exclusively, the aim of the study is to answer these questions:

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

RQ2: What are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?

This study proposes to examine and identify the influence of employer branding, self-concept, inter-groups, interaction, interference, authenticity and stereotype, which are key antecedents of occupational identity, seek to explain the impact of occupational identity on waiters' performance, and to provide practical insights to managers and academics.

1.6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study applies the two paradigms of idealism and positivism, which have had increased recognition in research in the last few decades. The complexity of the subject of 'occupational identity', interactions between people, and hospitality social environment factors, all encourage researchers to consider a pluralistic research or mixed methodology, with a quantitative foundation whilst applying some qualitative methods in the early phases of the study. Qualitative input from exploratory interviews and focus groups (Churchill, 1979; Palmer, 2011) enables identification of the personal perspectives and the gathering of waiters' experiences unencumbered by "what we expect to find or what have read in the literature" (Creswell, 2013, p.48; Wild et al., 2017). This is a domain that has received comparatively little attention (Faraj et al., 2018; Nelson and Irwin, 2014).

The first stage of this research starts with an idealism paradigm, focusing on a qualitative method, which aids the investigator in creating the topic from the participants' points of view and is fundamental for comprehending multifaceted social phenomena (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). This process was used to investigate the aspects that impact the occupational identity and whether or not this influences work engagement and turnover. It also acquired a preliminary understanding of research problems, creating a scale to measure occupational identity adapted

to the conceptual model proposed, which was useful afterwards to analyse theories and hypotheses (Foroudi, 2012; Soh, 2009).

Consequently, this study predominantly adopted a quantitative method, however during the initial phase it relied on a qualitative method (Churchill, 1979). Having reviewed the literature, semi-structured interviews were conducted with crucial participants, such as managers, lecturers, and waiters in the UK, which allowed the investigator to create a richer knowledge of the theme and collect behavioural and attitudinal data from the topic (Shiu et al., 2009). Although numbers were dependent on how many participants matched the profile inclusion criteria and saturation of data, 11 were identified.

In order to obtain information about waiters' feelings, attitudes, beliefs, reactions and experiences, focus group discussions were conducted using waiters as participants based in Michelin-starred restaurants in London. This is because of their high-level of competence and experience, and the knowledge, training and passion that the group collectively shares. Three focus groups were conducted with a total of 18 people to stimulate an adequate level of group communication that encourages debate (Krueger, 1994; O Nyumba et al., 2018; Ryan et al., 2013) and to assess more directly the notion of occupational identity. The contributors were groups of individuals from different social backgrounds that made the study more valuable (Smithson, 2000). Moreover, this contributed to the investigator collecting a large amount of data on the theme by drawing on a variety of responses (Kover, 1982).

The semi-structured interviews and focus groups helped to understand the waiters' sense of self and investigate how waiters construct their own reality on the basis of a personal framework influenced by its antecedents. It also enabled a complete and refined synthesis and interpretation of the material collected. NVivo software was used for data management as well as manual coding, theoretical coding and to obtain information from the interviews and focus groups (Welsh, 2002).

To avoid a research study being influenced by the researcher's qualitative perceptions, and to improve the reliability of the research and eliminate bias, the triangulation technique was utilised in qualitative studies. According to Creswell and Miller (2000) triangulation is "a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (Creswell and Miller, 2000,

p.126). Triangulation increased the reliability and validity of the research as well as the assessment of its outcomes. Triangulation, reliability and validity are significant research ideas, principally from a qualitative standpoint to contemplate the many ways of determining accuracy.

The second stage of this research uses a positivist paradigm to assess the study hypotheses and the planned conceptual model together with validation of the scales. For this purpose, a self-administered questionnaire was used to gauge each of the constructs of the research and was determined on the foundation of the literature reviewed and of the qualitative research, to quantify, complement and develop the first step (De Vellis, 2003; Kellens et al., 2013; Trizano-Hermosilla and Alvarado, 2016).

Purifying the measurement scales is one of the steps of Churchill's (1979) paradigm for better scale improvement. Considering purifying measures related to the measurement methods that were chosen (Churchill, 1979). This research managed two kinds of validity during the first stage and before managing the principal survey: content validity and face validity.

To assess the content validity of the items, used in the questionnaire, the first form was examined among 14 academic members and interviewees, who were familiar with the theme and the evaluation of the content validity by applying arbitrating procedures (Bearden et al., 1993; Chen and Raab, 2017; Zaichkowsky, 1985). After a pilot study, a self-administered questionnaire was distributed to measure waiters' perceptions of occupational identity and its impact on work engagement and employee turnover.

In order to effectively gauge the research constructs, all the questions used interval scales and were scored using a Likert-type scale (ranging from 1, strongly disagree, to 7, strongly agree). Parts of the questionnaire were extracted from valid questionnaires and other parts taken from the qualitative study. The survey was directed at waiters who work in the London restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred restaurant guide. 398 responses to the Michelin-starred restaurant questionnaire were collected.

Use of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 21 derived descriptive statistics for the entire sample. In following Churchill's (1979) recommendations, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a fundamental technique, and coefficient alpha was utilised in the early steps of this

study for scale validity (Aaker, 1997) to help reduce the number of observed research indicators (Hair et al., 2018). Structural equation modelling (SEM) using Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) 21.0, was implemented to test the measurement model and the hypotheses of the research. Structural equation modelling is a statistical technique used to build and test statistical models (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000). In this thesis, SEM was conducted to validate the conceptual model and test the relationships between latent factor and the observed variables.

Two different stages were performed (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Firstly, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to conduct a rigorous assessment of construct unidimensionality; the study of each subset item was internally consistent, and validated the constructs based on measurement models (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). Succeeding that stage, the structural model fit was examined through goodness-of-fit indices and simultaneously assessed the routes between the constructs to estimate the study hypotheses.

1.7. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The results of this thesis contribute to the academic body of knowledge for scholars and restaurant managers, by analysing the role of work in identity construction with regards to waiters. However, this study has provided and assessed a research model that defines the relationship between the construct of occupational identity, and the factors that influence occupational identity and its consequences. In addition, the study has endeavoured to address the research gaps, specifically in the area of occupational identity construction as follows:

- (1) There is a lack of empirical studies into how occupational identity could be stated (Hofhuis, et al., 2016; Jung, 2010; Loncaric, 1991; Van der Zee et al., 2004; Walsh and Gordon, 2008);
- (2) There is a scarcity of knowledge about the relationship between occupational identity, its antecedents and consequences (Brown, 1996; Lave, 1991; Widen et al., 2014); Hospitality literature has no methodical research on the effect of the construction of occupational identity on waiters (Dutton and Ragins, 2007);
- (3) There is a lack of explanatory models and theory building research in the field of occupational identity (Brown, 1997; Wong and Fisher, 2015);
- (4) The statement of Zigarmi et al. (2009) that occupational identity influences work engagement and employee turnover has not been tested and validated yet;

- (5) As Wildes (2005) has argued, the issue of restaurant waiters' occupational identity is of vital significance to the way waiters identify themselves, and therefore, correlates with matters of satisfaction, work engagement and employee turnover; however, he has not analysed this relationship;
- (6) Several research studies in the hospitality sector have been conducted with the aim of decreasing employee turnover (Klein, 2002; Lee-Ross, 2008; Raub and Streit, 2006), but not in connection to work engagement.

The theoretical contribution of this research to current understandings enhances different perceptions of occupational identity. The establishment of an interdisciplinary paradigm for the occupational identity is the main contribution of this current study. The main achievement has been to build an interdisciplinary understanding of relationships, which could be interpreted into outcomes with operational significance to the research (Palmer and Bejou, 2006). This research is one of the first empirical studies to be investigated through a combination of employer branding, self-concept, work interaction, identity interferences, authenticity, inter-groups, and stereotype to explain the occupational identity with a more holistic approach (Alshathry et al., 2017; Benet-Martinez and Hong, 2014; Loy, 2017). Occupational identity refers to how various forces specific to the workplace combine to construct workers' identities (Dutton and Ragins, 2007; Gonzalez et al., 2018). Based on the literature review, the main elements influencing occupational identity are social and cultural (Phelan and Kinsella, 2009). The unexpected outcome of this current study has been reinforced by some authors (Barber, 2017; Van Oudenhoven and Benet-Martinez, 2015) who confirm that these antecedents are strategic keys to managing the awareness and perceptions of employees or potential employees with regards to their occupation. This current study continues past research by exploring the relationship between occupational identities and its antecedents and consequences, from the employee's perspective (Brown, 1996; Lave, 1991; Widen et al., 2014). At the same time, this research contributes to the literature on work engagement and employee turnover by the construction and analysis of the research model. The literature review shows that work engagement and employee turnover measurement scales are not well established (Oliveira and Rocha, 2017). In the projected research framework, the principal aspects affecting occupational identity construction were recognised, as were the principal consequences (work engagement and turnover) of a provided occupational identity in the eyes of employees. Consequently, the outcomes of this research, provide improvements in the restaurant context. Literature has confirmed the strong influence of occupational identity development to reduce employee

turnover (Agoi, 2015; Bothma and Roodt, 2013; Christensen et al., 2016). Therefore, the results will clarify the contribution to hospitality organisations.

Another series of concerns regarding the gaps in the literature on occupational identity surround the absence of explanatory models to analyse the common terms, and of operational managerial approaches (Wong and Fisher, 2015). This research has endeavoured to provide and theorise a common approach in the prevailing body of knowledge. It also offered an initial attempt to construct a comprehensive occupational identity construction and its relationship to work engagement and turnover (Christensen et al., 2016; Hom et al., 2017). This study poses a validated model by which to develop occupational identity in order to improve employee retention among waiters. Additionally, to address gaps in the current literature, this research has distinguished the principal factors influencing occupational identity. The framework applied for assessing and evaluating occupational identity has been developed in this research.

With regards to the managerial contributions, several potential managerial implications have been developed. One of the contributing factors to high employee turnover was the negative perception individuals have of working in restaurants in the UK (Wildes, 2005). From a psychological point of view, the perception of a waiter's job is that of a 'server', or of occupying a position of 'servitude' (Cumming, 2011). This opinion might lead to identity conflict or interference among waiters' multiple identities. The notion that a waiter's job is just a stopover to something better, further reinforces the negative view and accounts for the low level of employee retention in the hospitality brands sector (Crass et al., 1998). This thesis proposes that employers should recognise that occupational identity is a complex phenomenon since it is influenced by several factors including interference among multiple identities, passion, extroversion, and education. It suggests that managers should be careful about how to encourage and retain current and potential employees (Alshathry et al., 2017). Moreover, restaurant managers should create an agentic role in constructing occupational identities. The agentic role refers to people who designate themselves as ideal representatives who possess the right qualities of a social identity inter-group (Lyubomirova, 2013). Additionally, the manner in which waiters interrelate with colleagues and exchange their objectives with the customers where they permit an authentic identity by being themselves in the workplace (Yagil and Medler-Liraz, 2013), shows that waiters can assist to form a positive occupational identity. Consequently, they will contribute to transmission and demonstration of these emotions regarding their own occupation to the audience. If this interrelation works well, it will benefit

a low-status occupation to have social validity and develop work engagement (Hom et al., 2017).

The results of this thesis may be used to provide more proactive solutions for restaurant managers. The role of employer branding, one of the key antecedents, is to manage a tactical framework that includes both human resources and marketing (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Moroko and Uncles, 2008) so that an institution can appeal to, maintain, and incentivise those personnel. Alternatively, the research regarding agentic roles may form the basis of practical instruction regarding how restaurants may wish to recruit employees. For example, instead of hiring staff purely based on cost effectiveness (BigHospitality, 2017; 2018), restaurants may wish to appreciate the financial benefit of hiring employees who are able to overturn those stereotypes that may reduce work engagement and increase employee turnover. This research recognises the importance of the food and beverage service in the hospitality brands. Occupational identity is significant to many aspects of importance in the sector, such as the level of service offered, which is an area of immense competitive benefit in today's global market.

1.8. DEFINITIONS OF CONSTRUCTS

Occupational identity: is a set of perceptual components, such as: goals, abilities, occupational interests, and meanings connecting the individual's identity to their career perspectives as generated by previous experience (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009).

The **employer branding:** institutes the identity of the organisation as an employer, understanding the company's value, behaviour and policies, and encourages and retains the organisation's current and potential employees (Alshathry et al., 2017; Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Ashcraft, 2007; Sullivan, 2004; Wallace et al., 2014).

Self-concept: a person's feeling of self-worth, as well as a rich, multifaceted cognitive structure with aspects of the 'me' forming self-concept and identities being part of self-concepts (Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2000; Loy, 2017; McLean, 2005; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

Interaction: procedure of exposure to multiple employees adopting the norms and values of the occupation in his/her self-concept and behaviour, and the outcome of the formation of self-esteem as an employee (Blais et al., 2006; Cohen, 1981; Creasia and Parker, 2007; Hardy and Conway, 1988; Haynes et al., 2004; Haynes et al., 2017; Lai and Lim 2012; Leddy, 1998; Tappen et al., 1998).

Interference: the result of having multiple identities: the pressure of one identity hinders the performance of another identity, and may create a number of physical and negative psychological outcomes (Benet-Martinez and Hong, 2014; Coverman, 1989; Fried et al., 1998; Gerson, 1985; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; O’Driscoll, et al., 1992; Settles, 2004; Thoits, 1991).

Authenticity: individuals in particular look for an authentic identity: ‘being yourself’ or ‘becoming yourself’ in the workplace. On some occasions authenticity can position itself as a rebellion against social order (Aupers and Houtman, 2010; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Menard and Brunet, 2011; Roberts, 2007; Yagil and Medler-Liraz, 2013).

Inter-groups: when people from one group interrelate, individually or collectively, with another group or its components in relation to their group identification. Individuals often achieve a higher level of self-esteem by comparing their own group positively to others (Abrams and Hogg, 1999; Haslam, 2004; Lyubomirova, 2013; Sherif, 1966; Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Terry and Hogg, 2001).

Stereotype: the simplified essence of a group’s overall perception of a person or group by downplaying individual differences and exaggerating commonalities, as communicated between individuals and groups (Fiske, 1998; Hamilton and Sherman, 1994; Hilton and von Hippel, 1996; Horton et al., 2014; Nadler and Clark, 2011; Stedman, 2006; Von Hippel et al., 2011).

Salience: an appropriateness of a stimulus which permits it to be noticed and to stand out compared to others in their same context; according to the dichotic theory of salience, this stimulus will be in-salient when it is incongruent with a specific environment and re-salient when it is congruent in a specific environment (Alba et al., 1991; Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Guido, 1995; 1996; Hastie et al., 1984; Heckler and Childers, 1992; Mowen, 1993; Shepherd and Williams, 2018; Veer et al., 2010).

Work engagement: optimistic occupational emotional and incentivational status of mind with an honest disposition in one's work and managerial achievement. Typified by vigour, dedication, absorption and passion for work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Billett and Somerville, 2004; Britt, 2003; Brown, 1996; Brown and Leigh, 1996; Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Zigarmi et al., 2009).

Employee turnover: the movement, attrition, mobility, exits, migration or succession of employees between jobs, firms and occupations within the labour market, as well as the rotation between the states of unemployment and employment (Abassi et al., 2000; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Ivancevich and Glueck, 1989; Morrell et al., 2004; Woods, 1995).

1.9. ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This current research consists of seven chapters. More specifically, this thesis has the following structure:

Chapter 1 - Introduction: The first chapter covers with the topic, research problem, aims, and questions/objectives of the thesis.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review: This is founded on the relevant literature on occupational identity, which is applicable for this study, as well as an outline of the research framework of the thesis.

Chapter 3 - Conceptual model: In this chapter, the conceptual research model is evaluated, and the development of the hypotheses analysed.

Chapter 4 - Research Methodology: This chapter specifies the research method and the data analysis techniques chosen for the research.

Chapter 5 - Findings of the qualitative research: This chapter indicates the key findings and the analysis from the interviews and focus groups.

Chapter 6 - Data analysis: Reports the outcomes of the quantitative data.

Chapter 7 - Discussion: In this chapter, the results of the study are reported in more detail and the connection between the outcomes and literature are discussed.

Chapter 8 - Conclusion: The last chapter summarises the contribution of the research to the theory and practical dimensions. Limitations of this research are also considered. Recommendations for future research are provided.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Occupational identity can be understood to involve an ‘essence’, which is considerably moulded by organisational and social contexts. Aspiring identity claims a significant perception of a previous group of organisational academics (Gabriel, 2000; Hirschhorn and Gilmore, 1989; Kahn et al., 2018; Schwartz, 1987) who employed the notion of ‘organisational essence’ to define the ideal values, policies, or behaviour of organisations. These components can become part of the essence of employees’ identity, even before they belong to the organisation and thus it is a provisional part of their occupational identity. As a result, in this literature review the terms ‘identity’ and ‘occupational identity’, and how these related themes intersect with the restaurant organisations, in particular, the role of waiting employees is explored. Thus, in addition to exploring relevant fields of scholarly literature, this section will analyse different approaches to these terms.

This chapter reviews the literature of existing studies as follows: Section 2.2. reviews the supporting theories of this study, such as: dramaturgy, social identity and aesthetic labour theories. Section 2.3. commences by presenting the related theories on occupational identity development and moves to occupational identity definition as a major component in employee experience by emphasising the definitions of professionalism, professional and professionalisation. Section 2.4. focuses on the theoretical framework proposed with the diverse theories that elucidate occupational identity antecedents and its consequences.

2.2. BACKGROUND TO OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY THEORIES

Founding the term ‘waiters’ occupational identity’ in the literature review presents a stable epistemological basis from which the concept can be comprehended most effectively. As a result, waiters’ occupational identity can be described precisely. This involves dramaturgy (Goffman 1959), social identity (Tajfel and Turner, 2004), and aesthetic (Warhurst et al., 2000) theories. The construct classifications developed in this study were founded on these theories, and they are explained in the following sub-sections.

2.2.1. Dramaturgy theory on occupational identity formation

When approaching the topic of identity from an academic perspective it is fundamentally helpful to view it in the same way scholars of socially constructed identity have done so previously; as a non-prefigured and dynamically changing construct. This section will discuss the research which casts occupational identities as actors and audiences, thus placing the focus on how the two categories of identity mutually shape each other, as well as demonstrating that such identities are highly changeable depending on the spaces and situations in which they interact (Cermatori, 2018). This section will also note the importance of considering customers' expectations when studying waiters' sense of identity: thus, although the focus of this study leads away from customer service, it nevertheless understands the customers' role in shaping staff identity as a crucial shaping factor.

Goffman's (1959) theory - Dramaturgy is Goffman's (1959) theory established in role theory and figurative interactionism, which elucidates identity and social interaction as group performance or as an individual's role. Responsibilities and rights of the person and group supplement the performance of an established role. Consequently, dramaturgical theory has an emphasis on the roles assumed by the individual selecting an occupational identity. Identity, rather than a static attribute, is a flowing condition that is modified throughout social relationships (Harvey, 1990). Goffman (1959) is recognised for the theoretic convention of dramaturgy, established from his previous studies in figurative relationship (Preves and Stepheson, 2009). Social relationships and identity are understood as performance (Hibberd, 2005; Lock and Strong, 2010; Mahadevan and Mayer, 2017). Occupational performance of self-identity involves formation of labels and meaning in relation to roles and specific situations. Responsibilities and rights, both for the person and the group, supplement the role performance. Theatrical comparisons of waiters acting on a stage for their audience, as customers, are most frequently related to dramaturgy.

The dramaturgy metaphor is mainly helpful in clarifying social groups such as occupations, "where individuals come together to establish meaning through performing values, beliefs and ethics for the collective" (Lock and Strong, 2010, p.205). Goffman applied the philosophy of settings and resetting which "require a combination of shared definition and purpose" (Lock and Strong, 2010, p.207). Each setting, for instance one of teacher and student or doctor and patient, involves a mutual meaning and series of limitations to perform. Settings stipulate the method of adapting social behaviours and organising according to a particular situation.

Practices of everyday life specify contexts and the phase through which we perform our identities. Waiters' occupational identities, as such, keep a particular setting from which to analyse identity formation, with stress on the environment in which this identity is shaped and performed.

Madon et al. (2001) state that individuals are seldom so flexible that they just develop what others suppose them to be. Waiters are involved in occupational identity through building a sequence of social interfaces with social groups or customers existing outside of the workplace that guide them to familiarise the waiter role qualities as their own. Bartel and Dutton (2001) argue that staff-customer relations consist of a process of negotiation, casting staff as the actors and the customers the audience. Academics write that staff develop positive identities in such a scenario via two means: (1) they may 'claim', which means that staff members perform acts that they suppose define their own idea, or they may (2) be 'granted' an identity component, which occurs when others within the social background interconnect in assessment procedures that allow them to approve or disapprove the identity of a person (Cameron, 2001). The theory of Goffman (1962) explains a technique for role-playing in a restaurant setting, in an endeavour to examine the mediation of identity between the customers and the waiters. Actors will be waiters who provide the service and the audience will be the customers. The quality of service and the apparent glamour that customers require from a restaurant may increase a professional identity: in this condition, "waiting staff with a craft style orientation could be considered as 'quasi professional'" (Dennett et al., 2010, p.5).

Goffman's (1959) theory makes a clear distinction between the public and private sphere in society, describing the private sphere as 'backstage' and the public as 'frontstage' (Moran et al., 2013). Goffman (1959) proceeds to identify differences between the two spheres, and Sennett (1997) has extended these observations, which are based on a fundamental dichotomy. De Certeau (1985) not only problematises the concept of clearly distinguished spaces, but presents a different communication and attitude to identifying the types of public and private actions that happen within their corresponding regions (Smutny et al., 2017). The boundaries of Goffman's (1959) private and public spheres are both spatial and temporal in kind. These do not exist a priori however, as they are actively constructed by people to provide an integral performance for those situated outside of the space: "when a performance is given it is usually given in a highly bounded region, to which boundaries with respect to time are often added. So that any individual located in this space-time manifold will be in a position to observe the

performance and be guided by the definition of the situation which the performance fosters” (Goffman, 1959, p.106; Hogan, 2010). The spatiotemporal margins are created for the person whom the show is made for, in order to be enjoyed; that is to say, the space-time dimensions are created so that the audience will not be distracted and will be convinced by the integrity of the performance (Conway, 2015).

In contextualising the previous theory and concentrating on service in the United Kingdom, Cumming (2011) stated that there is a sensation of humiliation for the British. He suggests that British waiters feel embarrassed to be engaged in a profession where they might be perceived in an ‘old servant-master relationship’ (Cumming, 2011). In their workplace, they state to the guest that they are not lower-status, they are equal. Other countries such as France, Italy, and America seem not to have these prejudices for this field of work or to feel embarrassed by doing their job (Cumming, 2011).

Goffman’s (1959) idea in ‘The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life’ is to reflect the approach of the person in normal work circumstances who introduces himself as well as his occupation to other individuals. Recognised as an important characteristic of a person, Goffman states that with all actions taking place, the outcome for the people implicated is transmitted and assimilated (Goffman, 1990; Reveley and Down, 2009). When a person is interrelating with others, according to Goffman there are two reactions given: the one the person ‘gives’, and the one that they ‘give off’ (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013; Goffman, 1990). An effect is ‘given’ through speaking (Goffman, 1959). Conversely, an effect which is ‘given off’ is through communication of a non-verbal type, which is applied by the person to their audience to convey a required reflection of identity (Davis and Bauman, 2008; Goffman, 1990).

Goffman (1990) highlights how ‘actors’ make an impression on others (Brandon-Lai et al., 2016). Every person is trying to convince others of their features, and to achieve this they have to perform. This performing, according to Goffman, is “all the activity of an individual which occurs during a period ... before a set of observers and which has some influence on the observers” (Goffman, 1990, p.32). How a person transmits the information to others is called the ‘front’ by Goffman (1990). There are “different parts that make up the front and the one that Goffman calls ‘setting’ includes furniture, decor, physical layout” (Goffman, 1990, p.32). The physical objects are reinforcing the identity that the person desires to show.

The individuals themselves also have a 'personal front', which can be separated into manner and appearance (Baron, 2013), as expounded on earlier. A person's appearance transmits physical indications such as occupation or social status in society, whilst the person's manner is an indication of whether they are more passive or active in their interaction with society (Yang et al., 2016). To perform well, there has to be coherence among the person's manner, setting and appearance (Walker, 2008). In conclusion, the individual has to transmit to others what they expect from him, in order to be well considered.

Goffman (1962) states that the challenge of being well considered depends on the role an individual is playing, and the way in which others value his work. He gives the example of nurses, whose work is usually seen as opposed to doctors who, in general, work behind the scenes (Jacobsen, 2010). It is also common that an individual omits components that have aided them to generate their performance (Bozkurt and Tu, 2016); for instance, Goffman (1959) states that if any 'dirty work' has been done, this has been agreed between the person and others in order for the performance to be successful. Goffman's (1990) theory of the self is significantly performance generated: every element - mental, verbal, and physical - has been recognised in order to make the right impression on others (Morrall, 2017). This can look like a very personal procedure, but Goffman states that these performances can also be accomplished by groups: "within the walls of a social establishment we find a team of performers who co-operate to present to an audience a given definition of the situation" (Goffman, 1990, p.231; Stacey and Griffing, 2006). An example of this is a restaurant, where the whole team works together to achieve a single performance. Similar to a performance on the stage, the people included will not always be performing; Goffman separates the performance states (1990) as being either 'on' or 'off' (Jenkins, 2014). Wherever the performance is happening is called the 'front region' (Goffman, 1962). The 'back region' or 'backstage' (Goffman, 1962) is where every aspect of the performance is constructed (Lewin and Reeves, 2011). Goffman references examples of the variation people go through between certain areas, for example, within a hotel between the kitchen and the dining room.

Goffman (1959) suggests that every person builds a performance, employing physical backgrounds. This scholar suggests that: "when the individual presents himself before others, his performance will tend to incorporate and exemplify the officially accredited values of the society" (Goffman, 1990, p.45). It is this staging of the principles of society which can have a deep impact on the person. Goffman (1990) discusses that the person "may privately maintain

standards of behaviour which he does not personally believe in ... because of a lively belief that an unseen audience is present who will punish deviations from these standards” (Goffman, 1990, p.87). Goffman’s (1959) concept on the demonstration of self is a metaphorical appraisal of how people maintain and build a performance in society. Its objective is not to understand how people see themselves, but to understand how people interact face-to-face; the theory can be applied to understand any social interchange (Manning, 2013).

Goffman (1990) argues that certain procedures and standards are necessary to keep and maintain the performance as envisioned by the artists. These rules will be different depending on the types of performance: for example, different criteria apply to music concerts than to the workplace. While this zone requires a specific type of ‘front’, a face or mask suggestive of an achievement, the ‘backstage’ permits the actors to relax: he can leave his front, omit expressing his lines, and step from the role (Goffman, 1959; Williams, 2015).

Sennett’s (1997) theory - Sennett (1997) contests the exclusivity of Goffman’s (1959) two zones (‘front’ and ‘back’), suggesting that: “societies are moving from something like an other-directed condition to an inner-directed condition ... As a result, confusion has arisen between public and intimate life” (Holba, 2010, Sennett, 1997, p.5). It is evident that confusion and problems can occur should the ‘front stage’ public interfere with the ‘backstage’. To use Sennett’s expressions, confusion can happen when the audience merges with the private sphere. An example of confusion given by Sennett (1997) is when “(we) see society itself as ‘meaningful’ only by converting it into a grand psychic system” (p.4), when public individuals are interpreted using terms from the private sphere. Linking to the current study, waiters can be confused also when they try to interpret and understand their work life based on their inner thoughts.

De Certeau’s (1985) theory - De Certeau (1985) states that the private and public spheres are two sides of the same coin and depend on each other to function: “the dividing line no longer falls between work ‘public’ and leisure ‘private’. These two areas of activity flow together. They repeat and reinforce each other” (De Certeau 1985, p.29). Although there are efforts to create delimitations, as De Certeau (1985) emphasises, one area is never very far away from the other. In particular, De Certeau (1985) contests Goffman’s (1959) assertion of strong spatial boundaries, demonstrating instances of where spatial boundaries between private and public spheres are blurred: the two spheres “do not obey the law of the place, for they are not defined

or identified by it” (De Certeau 1985, p.29). As an example, from the hospitality industry, many restaurant kitchens are now open-plan, thus bringing the private sphere, the kitchen, and the public sphere, the restaurant, closer together. Regarding occupational identity, an individual enjoys the most complex and interesting moments during their movement from one zone to the other. In these moments, workers show their own flexibility and agency during the process of acting in their capability to move in areas that are neither ‘front’ nor ‘back’, public nor private, but ‘in-between’. He establishes within it a degree of plurality and creativity. By moving in this in-between space, “he draws unexpected results from his situation” (De Certeau, 1985, p.30). The workers symbolise the concept that there is not a clear difference between the zones. Their capability to move freely between public and private, ‘front’ and ‘back’ demonstrates that rigid classifications, such as those developed by Goffman, are unhelpful.

Goffman’s (1959) pioneering work in this field first mapped out the conceptual framework for thinking about identities as constructed around notions of work and leisure: it was the task of later scholars (De Certeau 1985; Hee, 2017; Sennett, 1997) to demonstrate exceptions to this basic framework, to the extent that one can talk about the formation of identities across the private-public boundary as a single yet complex performative sphere. Furthermore, later scholars, such as De Certeau (1985) and Sennett (1997), have highlighted the fluidity of these spheres, and have demonstrated that they may be continuously constructed, amended and dismantled by actors and audiences.

Having established the fluid nature of identity, the rest of this section goes on to explore a variety of factors that dynamically shape identities in the workplace. The general import of the research, that identity is not fixed but highly malleable, allows researchers to explore factors influencing workers’ identity and suggests practical ways for staff to improve their sense of self-worth, and therefore work engagement. It has been mentioned before that theatre has been used as a metaphor to understand guests’ and employees’ interactions, behaviour and activities. In this concept, individuals use symbols (body language, uniforms) and interact depending on the context in which they find themselves. The above discussion has demonstrated that individuals with qualifications and certain work experience are more comfortable in their role as hospitality workers. The following section elects to focus the discussion on theory relevant to this specific research context and problems. Social identity theory will be discussed due to its implications of forming the occupational identity influenced by society and the interaction with the waiters.

2.2.2. Social identity theory on occupational identity formation

From among the vast body of literature on self and identity (Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2016; Loy, 2017; McLean, 2005; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 2004), this study opts to build on a less-studied area within the field, namely active agency within social groups which has been criticised by many social theorists' work, arguing that it posits an abstract force or dynamic as shaping social groups and/or individual identities, without taking into account individual/collective agency as a mitigating factor. The tendency with Foucault, as with other academics (Bauman, 2007; Habermas, 2007; Luhmann, 1997), is to treat individuals and groups as passive recipients of social conditioning, without considering how agents may work to change their identities from within pre-defined groups. A common criticism of Foucault's (1975) study, for example, is that he attributes the conditioning of groups and individuals to the influence of power without accounting for the different ways in which agents may exert power.

Occupational groups may be validated or stigmatised by society at large, but in the event that they are stigmatised, individuals within such groups can work to overturn this. Broadly, the way society perceives a specific occupational group has an impact on how its members view the identity conferred by their occupation positively or negatively (Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011). To understand a particular occupational identity, it is therefore important to understand how society views such a group. Wildes (2005) is one of the few scholars (Sukhu et al., 2017; Tibbals, 2007; Ukandu and Ukpere, 2011) to research food service workers, and concludes that the shared consciousness of restaurant waiters is shaped by the way society stigmatises their particular occupation. Subsequently, waiters are more likely to leave the industry. It is easy to see why this stigma has arisen: despite the expectation for staff to be highly qualified, restaurant jobs are poorly paid, staff work long hours and are denied access to benefits (Wildes, 2005). The work is often fatiguing and undervalued, staff are expected to perform many different tasks, and both customers and colleagues expect them to perform highly in each of them (Wildes, 2005).

For the members of the occupational group, it may be difficult to construct positive occupational identities when belonging to a group with as many negatives attributes as those mentioned in the previous paragraph. Palmer et al. (2010) agree with this view, maintaining that if the occupation is stigmatised by society as low status, then this can impact on individuals' self-worth leading them to suffer from low self-esteem. To handle the pressures arising from a

lack of self-esteem, some members of devalued groups may decide to leave these groups and join a more positively considered group, considering themselves to have more qualities in common with this valued group than with the devalued one. So, they will see themselves as appropriate members of such groups (Ragins, 2009). For example, there are many temporary waiters that are doing this job while they are students, but who expect to acquire a future that fits with their studies.

Some authors (Palmer et al., 2010; Ragins, 2009; Wildes, 2005) merely conclude that individuals in stigmatised groups will migrate to 'in-groups', whereas others have argued that some individuals will remain in the stigmatised group and actively work to eradicate the stigma. Tajfel and Turner (1979) argue that once individuals have gained a membership within a certain group, they then attempt to positively improve their self-esteem through effective efforts of enhancing their in-group overall performance as opposed to comparable groups individuals do not belong to (Haslam, 2004). These individuals use cognitive strategies to re-assess their group's identity by establishing a new set of standards that will reform the group's identity. More specifically, individuals will succeed in doing so by drawing attention to the uniqueness of the group. For example, the man whose job it is to dive through rotting cadavers, toxic waste and human excrement to keep Mexico City's sewers clean is becoming so internationally well-known that he has affirmed the uniqueness of his role, thereby creating a positive occupational identity. Indeed, these people can change the significance of their marginalised jobs and re-evaluate their work to present the occupation as more appealing to both in-groups and out-groups (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016). In general, it can be concluded that these social-identity development strategies are examples of the process through which individuals maintain positive identity assessments and fight against identity devaluation.

This research therefore intends to identify individuals who have adopted agentic tactics to develop an identity as a waiter, and find out both how they have done so and what aspects of this new identity might provide answers for researchers as to how they have done so. The following section analyses the perception of aesthetic labour theory, which has been linked with waiters in previous studies (Warhurst et al., 2000; Wildes, 2005), when considering the occupational identity theory.

2.2.3. The theory of aesthetic labour on occupational identity formation

In the restaurant environment, a work employee is thought to perform ‘aesthetic labour’, understood as “a supply of ‘embodied capacities and attributes possessed by workers’” (Warhurst et al., 2000, p.4). More precisely, the term ‘aesthetic labour’ denotes “recruitment, selection, development, and deployment of physical and presentational attributes geared towards looking good and sounding right” (Warhurst and Nicholson, 2007, p.104).

Researchers (Korczynski and Macdonald, 2009; Valkonen, 2013) have mainly focused on the service job industry as this is one of the largest and fastest-growing sectors in the employment market. Workers in service jobs must respond to two different parties: their managers or employers, on one side, and their customers or clients on the other. Since income is made through effective customer-server relations, organisations develop multiple goals to manage the service encounter to obtain maximum productivity and efficiency (Leidner, 2006). In hospitality work, this goal has extended to employees’ behaviour over both their feelings and appearance. Companies achieve the latter by stressing what they call ‘aesthetic labour’. Warhurst et al. (2009) support this point: “with many front-line service workers now expected to embody the company image or required service, it is the commodification of workers’ corporeality, not just their feelings that is becoming the analytical focus” (Warhurst et al., 2009, p.104). ‘Aesthetic labour’ has similarity to soft skills and is a name applied by economic sociologists to denote attitude, personality and behaviour necessities within the service sector (Wilson, 1996). Sometimes identified as individuals’ skills, these characteristics are highly valued by organisations in the service sector. Academics (Parry and McCarthy, 2017; Williams and Connell, 2010; Zamudio and Lichter, 2008), however, have identified ‘soft skills’ as potentially discriminative. Thus, it follows that aesthetic labour can also lead to prejudice, as will be discussed.

The perception of aesthetic labour is comparable to ‘emotional labour’ that involves companies ratifying specific emotional conditions to control customers or clients. Both terms are focused on the personal skills of employees. Research studying the perception of aesthetic labour is inspired principally by the study of Bourdieu (1984), in contrast to studies of feeling or emotional labour, which are principally based on the study of Hochschild (1983). The demand of employees hired to do aesthetic labour is that they are not just ‘acting’ a role in a work environment but rather display traits that are innate to them. Namely, companies are seeking employees who already have a specific habitus.

Bourdieu (1984) explains the term habitus to mean behaviours that are developed in youth and that are hard to change later in life. He argues that people are limited by their specific place in a social hierarchy to act, think, and feel in certain ways. These characteristics appear to be second nature, but because they differ by social class, it is evident that they are defined by social positioning. Bourdieu states that essentially every one of these obtained gestures, preferences, and postures shows an individual's class education (Bourdieu 1984). In employing individuals with the correct aesthetic qualities, who 'look good and sound right', it may be that restaurants are extracting and exploiting the products of stratified class society and they will seek people who have social class advantages. Although the focus of employee aesthetics is nothing new, service employers are no longer committed to training and transforming the work force, aside from offering cursory instruction on store operations (Williams and Connell, 2010).

As part of a common progression of employment transformation, many companies today do not invest in their employees or think to keep them on a long-term basis. They opt to employ temporary, provisional, and replaceable workers (Smith and Neuwirth, 2008). This could be one of the reasons for the high employee turnover in the restaurant industry. Some companies are no longer interested in transforming and training employees. Leidner (2006) notes that workers are progressively hired on an 'as needed' basis, and independently improve their skills to remain employable. This means that companies look for workers who come ready-made with the right attitude for the position, while employees are actors in charge of their own behaviour (Williams and Connell, 2010). In the context of some type of restaurant companies, this new work trend thus entails restaurant companies opting for frontline employees who already look good and sound right for the position. Restaurateurs look for employees whose appearance already embodies the company's brand. Therefore, for further clarification, the concept of appearance will be outlined in the next subsection.

Personal appearance means the external look of any individual, unrelated to gender, with regard to characteristics or bodily condition, style of dress or manner or, style of personal grooming or manners, involving, but not reduced to, beards and hair style. However, it shall not be associated with the condition of uniforms, cleanliness, or suggested standards, when homogeneously used for admission to some public organisations; or when homogeneously used to a type of staff for a satisfactory business reason; or when such characteristics or bodily

conditions, manner of dress or style or personal grooming shows a danger to welfare, the health, or safety of any person (Cavico et al., 2012).

One of the purposes of developing this thesis is to investigate the variety of occupational identity practices in this sector. This section seeks to analyse individual practice of employment and work in these jobs, focusing on ‘aesthetics’ or employee appearance. Employees in the hospitality industry must represent particular styles of speaking, standing, and walking: “The front-line employees in the hospitality industry must strive to meet various aesthetic requirements and improve their personal aesthetic skills, which might create stress for employees and make them feel burdened” (Shengshiang and WeiHsin, 2013, p.351).

Anyone who has worked in this industry will remember the typical poster hanging on the wall in the canteen, on the notice board, or in their package induction saying: ‘Looking good’ and ‘feeling good’, which are principal requests for their jobs. In almost all cases, “the right aesthetic is middle class, conventionally gendered, and typically white” (Williams and Connell, 2010, p.350). How can such requirements impact on individual identities? As Entwistle and Wissinger (2006) have shown, the stress of self-determination of self or body for self-employed people is greater than for those working in corporate structures of employment. Although companies try to enforce their aesthetics upon workforces, corporate codes can be deliberately eluded, and questioned through unionisation, as Abbott and Tyler (1998) and Hochschild (1983) observe. Conversely, keeping separate one’s self-identity from occupational identity is more difficult for self-employed aesthetic employees, as observed by Entwistle and Wissinger (2006), because the product sold is one’s body/self, as is the case of models or actors who need to be constantly ready for self-promotion both within and outside the workplace. Self-employed labour implies little separation between one’s private and work ‘self’. However, the occupational identity required in the service businesses can be applied during an employee’s working day (Entwistle and Wissinger, 2006).

The aspiration to recruit staff that ‘look good and feel good’ may represent a dilemma for restaurants: How can they attract individuals who have the right aesthetic labour qualities with very low salaries? Does the law allow employers to distinguish in this way? Legal scholars Warhurst et al. (2009) state that UK labour law progressively identifies and protects workers from employers’ claims of aesthetic agreement to their ‘organisation image’. They also showed

the few cases of legal action nowadays taken by employees against employers attempting to impose appearance procedures in the work place.

Aesthetic work means that it is not only the impression of the employees that institutions try to dominate, but also their presentation and appearance. This novel tactic can be theoretically discriminatory (Postrel, 2003). As a result, employers in services seem to be deliberately discriminating in favour of employees recognised to be ‘good looking’ or having the ‘right look’ and reprimand employees who are recognised as less physically charming (Nickson et al., 2005). Even if there is a sign that casual or ad-hoc employment on the basis of appearance is not new, as services have become the leading innovative economies, there is an indication now that this tactic has become a premeditated approach on the part of managers and increases important empirical and conceptual questions for academics looking to comprehend new procedures of employment and work (Yeadon-Lee et al., 2011).

Several scholars at the University of Strathclyde established the perception of aesthetic work (Manihan, 2017; Warhurst et al., 2000), but there have been several studies around the world investigating aesthetic work across different economic sectors (Graham, 2015). Casual or ad-hoc employment on the foundation of appearance is not new but since services have become one of the main elements of the advanced economies, there is evidence that companies are using this as a deliberate strategy to recruit staff. For instance, how imperative are worker looks during employment? Is worker appearance really a skill? Can worker looks be instructed? Such queries in turn raise broader concerns about what establishes ‘employability’ and the possibility for employment discrimination, and which some trade unions worried about equal opportunities are now starting to deal with. New enquiries then arise. For instance, are some employees being denied employment because they have ‘skill deficit’ in terms of their appearance? Should ‘lookism’ be addressed and, if so, how? How do employees perceive the role of aesthetics? What do they think about the fact that most people who work in the service sector are young and attractive? Do they feel it trivialises their role? Such questions are related to Fine’s (1996) theory of ‘dynamic self-conscious aesthetic’ based on waiters’ occupational identity and are a good foundation for further development in the following chapters.

To conclude, this section has discussed that what is expected from workers is more extensive appreciation of the employment and work of these professions that combines aesthetic labour into their demands. Companies look for personal attributes and capacities from future workers and look to develop, mobilise, and commodify these attributes and capacities throughout the

workers' ongoing employment to aesthetically attract customers. Also, the concept of 'soft skills' not only includes worker behaviour but also appearance. The review of the literature on the understanding of identity as an origin of occupational identity and its relationships to professional identity with its multiple understandings of these terminologies, will be discussed in the following section.

2.3. DEFINING THE OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY CONCEPT

This study explores the terms 'identity' and 'occupational identity', and how these related themes intersect within the hospitality brands industry. More specifically, this research is situated in the field of restaurant studies and focuses on waiting employees. Thus, in addition to addressing relevant fields of scholarly literature (Archer, 2008; Clegg, 2008; Cooper et al., 2017; Fitzmaurice, 2011; Skelton, 2012), multiple interpretations of the terms 'identity' and 'occupational identity' will be analysed and developed.

2.3.1. Identity

Dutton et al. (2010) outline that work continues to be a key source of meaning in life and indicate that identities are frequently formed and transformed in work contexts. A central debate within social sciences regarding identity is whether a person has a fixed 'core' identity, or whether identity is wholly constructed and therefore open to interpretation and adaptation. In the early twentieth century, Sigmund Freud (1920) posited a model of identity, which was very much fixed, focusing on how erotic and violent desires managed in a person's early years, and in the context of the family, fixed a person's identity moving into adulthood. This is one of Freud's more famous theories, that of psychosexual development. Fundamentally, Freud (1920) postulated that children move through a series of stages centred on erogenous zones. Freud maintains that effective achievement of these steps leads to the growth of a healthy personality. However, stagnation at any stage precludes this achievement and consequently develops an unhealthy psyche, as an adult. Components of this theory are still applied in modern psychoanalytical/psychodynamic therapy.

In his studies, Freud (1920) argues that the human psyche could be grouped into three parts: Identification (Id), Ego and Superego. He explains this theory in the 1920 research paper 'Beyond the Pleasure Principle', and elaborates further in 'The Ego and the Id' (1923). It is the role of the Ego to find a balance between the self-critical Superego and the demanding Id. Freud explains that healthy people have a good balance between these two elements of the psyche,

but in those where one element is dominant the person struggles and develops problems in their personality. When the psyche is having difficulty maintaining this balance it uses different strategies to help intercede called 'Defence Mechanisms'. Freud's (1920) theories are still deemed fundamental in the fields of psychology, psychotherapy, and counselling. For example, the use of dream analysis, free association, transference and counter-transference, defence mechanisms, and the unconscious mind are all of great value to modern day psychoanalytical practice and psychodynamic therapy. Freud's study changed the way that individuals recognised the mind in the 1900s. Other academics since (Bauman, 2007; Gecas, 1982; Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010; Mannerstrom et al., 2017; Markus, 1977), have done much to overturn such an intransigent model, arguing that one's identity is constantly evolving.

Bauman (2004; 2007), as an example of overturning Freud's model, has taken a somewhat historicist approach, arguing that whereas identities in traditional societies, such as in New Guinea or the Amazon, are fixed through stable and longstanding traditions, identities in what he calls 'liquid modernity' are constantly in flux and open to endless revisions. Bauman (2004; 2007) studies how we have progressed from a 'heavy' and 'solid', hardware-focused modernity to a 'light' and 'liquid', software-based modernity. This change, he discusses, has had a profound impact on all characteristics of the human condition. The new inaccessible global systemic structure coupled with a less rigid, more fluid and fast changing way of life, is influencing the state of human togetherness and life-politics. With this in mind, Bauman (2004; 2007) calls for the reconsideration of cognitive frames and the concepts used to describe human individual understanding and their mutual history. This study follows on from the work of previous theorists (Dutton and Ragins, 2007; Gini, 1998; Rubin and Babbies, 2016), in positing that identity is constructed and open to revision, and chooses to explore this process with regard to its specific area of focus.

Gecas (1982) has provisionally defined identity as attributes, which people ascribe to themselves and others, and Markus and Nurius (1986) have gone further to argue that attributes cluster to form 'self-schemas', or sets of attributes, which specifically relate to each other. Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010), on the other hand, focus on how identity is formed not based on the individual's but the group's ideas, which in the context of this thesis would be fellow workers. They thus demonstrate how identity is formed socially through interaction. Additionally, this study recognises that individuals' identities are dynamic, multifaceted, and multiple (Sveningsson and Alvesson, 2003) and are associated with different types of feelings

and attitudes (Ashmore et al., 2004). It is therefore evident that self-understanding is a complex affair and that attributes can be ascribed by others too, as identity is very much a negotiation between self-perception and the perception of others.

If identity is multiple, then it is possible that certain identity formations within the same person may come to the fore in certain contexts more than others (Gergen, 1991). This study will focus on identity within the physical space of the restaurant as well as their relationships with others. For example, in an individual's leisure time his or her cultural, national, or ethnic identities might predominate (e.g. Tom is white, Spanish, middle-class, and an art lover); in work situations, occupational identities might take over (Gergen, 1991).

In this current research, the term 'occupation' is significant because it focuses on the characteristics of waiters' identities, participation in workplace activities as well as membership of work groups. Consequently, this thesis uses the term 'occupational identity' to refer to how various forces specific to the workplace combine to construct workers' identities. The next section examines several angles recognised in the literature review that broaden the occupational identity construction.

2.3.2. Occupational identity

The term occupational identity, as a research topic, has attracted much attention from researchers (Gabriel, 2000; Hirschhorn and Gilmore, 1989; Kahn et al., 2018; Schwartz, 1987) in the last few decades, mainly because 'work' as a life domain is fundamental to identity construction. Indeed, many individuals spend the majority of their time working, especially when they are adults. As "adults there is nothing that - preoccupies our lives more. From the approximate ages of 21 to 70 we will spend our lives working. We will not sleep as much, spend time with our families as much, eat as much, or recreate and rest as much as we work" (Gini, 1998, p.707; Rubin and Babbie, 2016). There is evidence that work pervades every aspect of our lives: it is common to see people eating their lunch in front of the computer; people take their work home to carry on working; social conversations often centre on jobs; and people often use their holidays to review their careers. Additionally, since researchers believe that identity is formed from relationships with others, everyday professional interactions are also central to the formation of individual occupational identities, and similarly, these occupational identities will spread into everyday life (Dutton and Ragins, 2007; Mahadevan and Mayer, 2017).

The contractedness of occupational identity is the first of these themes to which many academics have paid attention (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016; Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010; Rubin and Babbie, 2016; Snow and Anderson, 1987). The forming of the work identity involves developing, mending, preserving, reinforcing, or reviewing existing identities (Rubin and Babbie, 2016; Snow and Anderson, 1987). Hence, instead of seeing the construction of identity as a simple process of adopting a work position, work identity is a problematic and interactive process (Gonzalez et al., 2018; Pratt et al., 2006). Studies of occupational identity have concentrated on people's difficulties in forming work identities; for example, during a period of adjustment to occupational changes (Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010) people may miss the comfort and security of their previous jobs. Although identities may develop out of stigmatised job roles (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016), it is evident that certain jobs are more widely stigmatised while others have a great deal of social capital attached to them. Identities are constantly at risk of being undermined because of unappealing jobs, and the integrity of occupational identities may be violated (Pratt et al., 2006).

Sometimes employees attempt to retain what they believe to be a unique identity in opposition to the identities intended for them in their workplace. These individuals may have difficulty dealing with this situation, as will organisations and managers who face the challenge of trying to keep them under the same corporate umbrella (Dennett et al., 2010; Praetourius et al., 2018). For example, taken from the researcher's experience, on cruise ships where the employees are very multicultural, and this issue is exaggerated because employees live and work together for up to six months at a time. Employees have to adapt to a company standard identity and managers have the challenge of acknowledging the background identity of their employees while moving all of them in the same direction of the company purpose - a kind of cultural homogenisation.

Pratt et al. (2006) observe that instead of developing aspects of identity into a proper occupational identity, individuals are active in adapting their occupational identity to successfully gain a feeling of integrity. Within Disney World, another researcher example identifies that employees seem to be happy and offer great customer service (Disneyworld, 2018). Most of the employees work with feeling and successfully make customers believe that they are in a magical kingdom where their dreams become real. Some of these employees may not naturally possess good interpersonal skills, but they have adapted to their role to create an adequate occupational identity. However, occupational identity is not just what one presents to

the outside world, it also involves how we feel and how we react to difficult environments. Whilst Disney employees may emit a magic ‘buzz’ they may hate the falseness of their role. Another way of establishing an adequate occupational identity is to copy individuals in the public sphere that one identifies with on a more private or fundamental level; this is a theory developed by Ibarra (1999; Selenko et al., 2018). For example, young trainees might copy their elders whom they believe to be authentic. They do not try to develop their own identity but imitate others whom they identify as more ‘real’ (InterContinentalHotelGroup, 2018).

Ibarra (1999) states that people can keep an authentic identity during adaptation and experimentation within the organisation that employs them. However, other academics (Corlett et al., 2017; Costas and Fleming, 2009) have shown that when a job inhibits the ability to create an intelligible sense of self in the workplace, there is the chance that it can be harmful to one’s identity. Consequently, some employees who start a new job have a sense of not identifying with their work role. These people are caught between their existing identity and an occupational identity, which they regard as being unfamiliar (Costas and Fleming, 2009). This may happen to waiting employees in some cases: upon starting they may realise that it is not the right career for them; this could be another reason for the high turnover.

The second theme centres on the value placed on work roles, a subject to which academics have also paid significant attention. According to Ashforth and Kreiner (1999, p.417), occupational identity is “the set of central, distinctive components that are generated from one’s history of occupational participation”. Hirschi (2012, p.4) refers to it as “the clear perception of occupational interests, abilities, goals, and values, and the structure of the meaning that links these self-perceptions to career roles”.

The problem arises when people do not have clarity regarding all these concepts. It means that these domains (interest, abilities, goals, and values) do not match with the job expectation (Hirschi, 2012). To cope with this issue, academics (Bauman, 2004; Collinson, 2004; Delanty, 1995; Jenkins, 1996; Mannerstrom et al., 2017) have developed several concepts that contribute to the formation of occupational identity. Firstly, people tend to evaluate themselves and are evaluated by others, depending on the work they accomplish (Bauman, 2004; Delanty, 1995; Jenkins, 1996). This involves a relationship between their work role and the construction of their occupational identity. Therefore, this can be a motivation for the individual to find the right job. Secondly, job titles influence the abilities of the employees, and the manner in which

they are seen by sociologists (Collinson, 2004). The individuals involved and others who they interact with, define these roles and titles. If an individual has been given the chance to choose between increasing their salary or changing their job title, they may choose the second option, not only because of the perception of others but also to facilitate their career progression. For example, based on the researcher's experience, instead of being named Room Division Managers, some managers in hotels prefer to be called Assistant General Manager so, even if they have the same salary and responsibilities, it looks like they are not simply in charge of the accommodation sector. Thirdly, personal identity is influenced both by the occupational colleague group (Cooley, 1983) and by customers (Mead, 1934). Employees' dignity, respectability, and competence are always assessed in the place of work. Misunderstood body language from the manager an ambiguous comment from colleagues, or lack of interest from customers can destabilise the values of an employee with significant consequences. Camron and Spreitzer (2011) have summarised this theme by saying that the three main stages of analysing occupational identity are the individual, the workplace, and the societal level. The individual, because it is what an individual believes about their job; the workplace level is the context; and the social level is the relation between the individual, and the external (e.g. the customers) and the internal groups (e.g. work colleagues) (Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Cooper et al., 2017).

Whereas the first theme looks at how identities are formed from external circumstances, the third theme looks at theories of a more active identity formation process. Snow and Anderson (1987) describe occupational identity as "the range of activities individuals engage in to create, present, and sustain personal identities that are congruent with and supportive of the self-concept" (Snow and Anderson, 1987, p.1348). This implies that individuals not only react to external stimuli in developing positive identities, but are active agents in forming socially authenticated occupational identities that present features that they believe to be most important to their sense of self. Occupational identity comprises a series of agentic tactics that people utilise to positively generate the sense of their identity in each context. Ibarra (1999) argues that work identity is formed when individuals respond to threats or divergences to their identities. Waiting employees will need to respond to threats, such a stereotype, homogenisation and globalisation, or the desire for social validity.

Individuals are restricted by the inflexible rules and policies imposed on them by the hospitality industry. Therefore, it is important to understand how these are also responsible for shaping

identity. Industry management in most situations tend to omit the strategic integration of individual identities formed outside of the workplace. In its place, restaurant managers prefer to develop a one-standard organism, completely overlooking the agency and creative potential of the individual (Cameron, 2001). To summarise, waiters' occupational identity is not narrowly defined by the work that they do, but rather extends to incorporate less tangible categories, such as: values, agency, and the social and professional conditioning of identity. In the next section, the effect of multiple occupational identities is studied, in the current literature.

2.3.2.1. Multiple occupational identities

Adults have many different roles in life, for example they may be a parent, worker, friend, and son. Keeping all identities can benefit individuals by giving them different opportunities to develop skills, socialise, or even increase their economic status (Barnett and Baruch, 1985). The main aspect in this thesis is to extend and provide an understanding of the knowledge of occupational identity construction. This concept will be studied more deeply in the following section. Although all these different alternatives are available to individuals in multiple identities, sometimes all the identities are difficult to combine and often there are confrontations or overlap between them (Rahim, 2017). For example, gay waiters may feel that they have to hide their sexual orientation in order to fit in with the rest of their colleagues; they may believe that their gay identity cannot be shown when they are representing their waiter identity. This may link to the theory that identity interference, relates to some negative physical and psychological result (O'Driscoll et al., 1992).

The level of interference varies depending on the heterogeneous multiple identities of the individual or the other factors connected with these identities. Identity centrality is the level of importance that people give to their identities. This helps to understand some negativity or wellbeing in individuals (Branscombe et al., 1999; Rahim, 2017). Studies in the past have investigated the interference between family and work roles, and the outcome has been negative with lower work satisfaction as well as lower life satisfaction when both roles are being performed simultaneously; this has also been identified as leading to an increased risk of various physical illnesses (Boamah and Laschinger, 2016; Frone et al., 1997; Talukder and Vickers, 2014). Other research (Cooke and Rousseau, 1984; Coverman, 1989; Netemeyer et al., 1996) that has investigated this issue but with different examples (women and scientist identities) has shown the same type of negative outcome. One of the reasons that have been offered is: interference can create a sense of pressure, which makes the individual feel stressed, or demand

a lot of concentration (Fried et al., 1998; Rahim, 2017). For example, a mother who has the twin responsibilities of working as a waiter and looking after her children faces the pressure of doing both things well, and subsequently suffers stress. The interference between the two will impact on the enjoyment of either role. Feminist Anne Oakley (1976) has referred to this as the ‘dual burden’. In the next section, the impact of having different central identities will be discussed from a labour market perspective, to complement these outcomes.

2.3.2.2. Identity centrality

In general, scholars state that having several identities is constructive for the person, and central identities have many favourable purposes. For instance, Turner et al. (1994) stated that social identities help individuals to interpret the world and implement a pattern of how to behave (Thoits, 1987). However, central identities can have a negative impact on individuals if they already have difficulties in life. Thoits (1991) speculated that negative experiences or disorders associated with an important identity will be more endangering to the self than difficulties associated with an insignificant identity. Consequently, having more important identities will create more opportunities for interference among them.

Interference among different central identities can happen if the cultures related to them diverge. The meaning of the word ‘culture’ is a combination of ideologies and values that people link with a specific identity (House, 1981). Although culture has originally been defined as a group of people within a society or nation, in this research the word denotes a group of people within a specific subgroup of society (e.g. men) or with a position in society, such as the occupation of waiter (Wyer et al., 2001). These cultural dogmas offer a social framework to those people with the same identity (Thoits, 1991). Alternatively, the exchange between identity performances individually linked to different cultures (e.g. being a mother and restaurant manager) can result in enhanced emotional, cognitive, or psychological abilities even though there is more interference than the exchange among identities with similar cultures (e.g. being a mum and a wife) (Settles, 2004).

Another important aspect of central identity is that it can have both a positive and negative effect on the connection between psychological and interference results. Research is inconclusive as to whether the effect is positive or negative (Martire et al., 2000). Literature focusing on the connections between work and family responsibilities has discovered the protective properties of identity centrality. Luchetta (1995) states that parental centrality

prevents the negative impacts of family stress on psychological distress. Additionally, Martire et al. (2000) specified that maternal anxiety was not connected to depression for women with a greater central mother identity, but that for women with a low central mother identity, maternal anxiety was connected to higher levels of depression.

There are analogous results in the research on stigmatised groups and those with a lower social standing. Branscombe and colleagues (1999) state that group identification means the same as identity centrality, and diminishes the negative connection between negative psychological outcomes and discrimination for African Americans (Branscombe et al., 1999), people with body piercings (Jetten et al., 2001), and women (Schmitt et al., 2002). Similarly, Sellers et al. (1998) state that discrimination incidents were unconnected to the mental health of African Americans with highly central racial identities; but, for those with moderate levels of racial centrality, high levels of discrimination were connected to low mental health result. Thus, it will be interesting to find out in this study if waiters, a group that is similarly stereotyped, suffer identity conflict when they possess a stronger centralised identity as a waiter than when they do not.

Other research found that identity centrality can make individuals perform actions that are associated with negative identity. In the occupational domain, Frone et al. (1997) state that work stress was connected to alcohol consumption and to poorer physical health. However, this applied only to those people who highly valued their job. Correspondingly, the negative association between maternal psychological and stress problems was stronger for those people with a strong, central parent identity than those with a small, central parent identity (Simon, 1992). Stress created by playing the role of wife was connected to diminished life satisfaction for females with work stress, and a central wife identity was connected to augmented anxiety only for females with a central worker identity (Martire et al., 2000). Martire et al. (2000) explains that identity centrality both diminishes and intensifies wellbeing and speculated that this depended on social expectations surrounding specific identities. Specifically, when stress is predictable in an identity, e.g. the mother identity, then centrality prevents identity-related stress (Martire et al., 2000). However, when the stress is lower as well as worker or wife identity, centrality will increase stress. Building on this view, it can be said that when people expect not to be highly stressed but in fact feel high stress, they feel like they have failed to meet what is expected of them when performing a certain identity. This disappointment can lead to a decrease in their sense of wellbeing (Martire et al., 2000).

2.3.2.3. Identity conflict

Identity conflicts occur when there is an irregularity between two or more identities of our multiple identities (Ashforth et al., 2008). According to Brewer (1991) work identity is shaped by two conflicting influences: an individual's need for individuation (by developing uniqueness), and an individual's need for validation (by forming connections with others). Personal identity is defined as "a definition and evaluation of oneself in terms of idiosyncratic personal attributes or one's relationships with specific other people" (Hogg and Tindale, 2005, p.142). Social identity is "a definition and evaluation of oneself in terms of shared attributes that define membership of the specific group one belongs to" (Hogg and Tindale, 2005, p.142). Individual identity is less flexible than social identity and consequently represents a possible conflict with employers' identity needs (Sveningsson and Alvesson, 2003). Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003) maintain that people will always try to maintain stability between their multiple identities, however, people can learn to change between multiple and different identities by developing psychological routines designed for 'rapidly switching cognitive gears' (Ashforth and Johnson, 2001). Alternatively, people may develop an ambiguous identity, when they both identify and deidentify themselves from their organisation (Ashforth and Johnson, 2001).

Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) state that an employer can, at the same time, identify and deidentify with the same characteristics of the organisation. Conflicts between multiple characteristics of individuals' identities are an essential aspect of their work identity and can become discomfoting if this happens frequently (Ashforth et al., 2008). There are few studies focusing on this topic (Settles, 2006). A study has focused on the positive impact of identity for professionals from an organisational and individual perspective (Dutton et al., 2010) rather than the negative impact of identity conflict. However, other studies (Ashforth and Johnson, 2001; Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010; Shepherd and Williams, 2018) have proposed that identity conflict can be distressing as people strive to resolve their conflicted selves. This can give rise to a sense of isolation and stress (Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010). To prevent this scenario, specific strategies need to be in place.

What strategies exist for solving identity conflicts? A study of companies by Fiol et al. (2009) stresses that dual identities are likely to be adapted in the place of work without experiencing serious rational conflict. While Fiol et al. (2009) place emphasis on identity conflict between individuals within companies, Kreiner et al. (2006) have researched the process of determining

identity conflict within individuals. Various strategies have been identified, which people can use to solve conflict between their personal and professional identities, including: consciously splitting one's personal identity from one's work role, establishing restrictions on identity demands, consciously switching between identities, and intentionally creating an identity hierarchy with multiple occupational identities. What happens when a person needs to add multiple occupational identities? So far, this issue has received little attention from identity academics (Hambrick, 2007; Shepherd and Williams, 2018).

Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010) state that more information is needed about the process employed by individuals to construct, modify, and check their work identities, and the tactics used to complete this. They highlight the need to understand the occupational identity of individuals who turn away from highly socially scripted or institutionalised trajectories. This field of research is currently being neglected by scholars (Gulati, 2007; Hambrick, 2007; Vermeulen, 2007). For example, female identity and parental identity at the same time can appear in the same situation, because both have the same meaning of nurture and care. Consequently, the role of mother identity will facilitate the expression of parental identity. In general, multiple identities are structured within the self according to hierarchies of salience (McCall and Simmons, 1978; Stryker, 2000).

Stryker (2000) asserts that because individuals should use their different identities in life according to the situation, these identities must be structured in such a way that some stand out in certain situations more than others. Stryker (2000) thus defines individuals' role identities as structured according to what he conceptualises as salience hierarchy. The more salient identity is the one that will be used in a specific situation, and actions related to that identity, and which are in harmony with the performance expectations, will be performed in that situation. This is reminiscent of 'basic performativity' as noted by Goffman (1959) in his publication 'The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life'. This text clearly expresses the individual's 'choice' to ratify an identity across circumstances. As such, identity salience is considered as representing an agentic feature of identity in social action, and a behavioural indicator (Serpe and Stryker, 1994).

The different level of identity salience within a group of identities creates the identity salience hierarchy (Stryker, 2000). Based on this hierarchical theory, identities that have higher salience can actively look for opportunities to use that identity (Ramarajan, 2014). For instance, if a

woman is presenting at a workplace and the presentation is not about family problems, the individual may work into her presentation the fact that she has become a mum for the first time. Appealing to the mum identity within the context of the work identity determines that her mother identity is salient in her hierarchy of identities.

Identity salience is established on how dedicated one is to the identity. Contact with specific social networks shows one's engagement in the social structure. For instance, for a person who has a poor academic background, it is less likely to create solid social interactions with skilfully trained people (Shepherd and Williams, 2018; Stryker and Serpe, 1994). The individual is less likely to be involved in other public level activities that are most often open to those who are well-educated. Therefore, the better the assurance to an identity, the better the identity salience (Stryker and Serpe, 1994).

McCall and Simmons (1978) use the perception of a prominence hierarchy to denote the organisation of identities. An identity classification founded on prominence denotes the significance of the identity to the person. It symbolises their values and desires, and how they desire others to see them. The more protuberant an identity, the more it will remain in the forefront state. Several features affect where an identity appears in the protuberant hierarchy. People are more likely to have identities high in their prominence hierarchy when they have reassurance from others for the identity, when they are devoted to the identity, and when they get returns (both intrinsic and extrinsic) for the identity (Ramarajan, 2014).

The difference between centrality/prominence and salience is that salience focuses on behaviour, while centrality/prominence focuses on the internalised significance of an identity (Brenner et al., 2014). Stryker and Serpe (1994) focused on the connection between centrality/prominence and salience and examined whether these perceptions are equivalent, complementary, or overlying. In conclusion, some identities can be central and salient while other identities may be salient but not central, thus demonstrating their independence. These two ideas have been determined to be theoretically different, when perhaps both should be included in identity theory research (Brenner et al., 2014; Shepherd and Williams, 2018).

Stryker (2000) argues that identities are selected according to the situation, whilst McCall and Simmons (1978) claim that identity attributes that an individual perceives to be innate to him or herself persist long-term into different situations. This means that McCall and Simmons are

arguing for a more fixed model of self or identity. For McCall and Simmons, the salience hierarchy is “the person’s own preferences as to the subset of role identities he will enact in a given situation” (McCall and Simmons, 1978, p.84), whereas Stryker’s (2000) model emphasises how an identity hierarchy predicts a person’s behaviour in the short term. McCall and Simmons (1978) argue that more long-lasting attributes of identity are active across a longer period. These are what they describe as attributes of the perfect self, the reasonably continuing characteristics of the self that focus on what is significant to the self. More prominent identities govern which identities people select to perform in a particular situation. Additionally, McCall and Simmons (1978) note that these attributes of a core self are formed by both the individual and the people around him or her, and that people are aware of their prominence hierarchy. This means that individuals are self-aware of more relevant identities compared to less relevant identities. For Stryker, however, individuals may not understand how salient an identity is in their hierarchy, but their conduct would inform them as to its grade in their hierarchy (Stryker and Serpe, 1994). This thesis will follow both theories in its exploration of waiters’ identities.

Some research (Bird, 2005; Gillespie et al., 2002; Taylor, 2008) has developed strategies for solving conflicting occupational identities between individuals in companies, and for solving conflicting personal and occupational identities within people. However, there are not many studies researching what happens when people are asked to apply multiple work identities, by which is meant different identities within the work place to deal with various work situations. Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010) maintain that more studies are needed to research the procedure by which individuals construct, modify, and review their multiple work identities, and the strategies they apply to complete this. In the next section, the definition of professional identity is specified to present the proposed conceptual difference between occupational identity and professional identity.

2.3.3. Professional identity

Professional identity is a set of attitudes, understandings, and beliefs about people’s roles within the context of work (Lingard et al., 2002). Hickson and Thomas (1969) create a hierarchy of work sectors, ranging from more professional occupations, such as doctors and architects, to less professional occupations, such as nurses. Hickson and Thomas (1969) established a list of 19 components that characterise the degree to which an occupation is professionalised. In almost every component (e.g. skills based on competence testing, theoretical knowledge, code of conduct and/or ethics, specialised education, occupational title change) waiters rank low.

However, there are many interpretations of the concept of professionalism and what it means to be a 'professional' (Johnson et al., 2006). How an occupation is described varies according to who has the power to interpret and prescribe a specific occupation, so it is significant to contemplate the control of professionals when discussing identity formation.

Studies (Johnson et al., 2006; Liecht and Fennel, 2001; Okada, 2019) suggest that modifications in work institutions (not only in the hospitality occupation) have led to a change in what professional work implies and represents (Johnson et al., 2006). For example, professionals have been defined in several ways, ranging from social agents to specialists (Brint, 1994), from professional to management (Liecht and Fennel, 2001), and from professional business to business professional (Suddaby et al., 2007). Parding et al. (2012) argue that the professional's career trajectory bifurcates into a practitioner or into a specialist. Being a practitioner decreases the employee's status and being an expert improves the employee's status. In light of these findings, institutions should realise that professionals normally maintain a solid identification with occupation-specific principles and, for an adjustment to be applied successfully, negotiations between institutions and occupations are required, both at the level of institutional values as well as the level of principles.

The negotiation can be steered away from the institution's tendency to believe it is being victimised by the constraints of the occupations; a tactic that is normally unproductive for the customer, institution, and the professional, as well as following extensive training programs. Several other academics (Noordegraaf et al., 2014) also maintain that professionals may gain from acquiring new ideas and beliefs, even when management creates them. Within institutions and within occupations themselves employees constantly struggle in their attempts to shape professional identity. In the case of a waiting job, the competition for control over identity formation can be understood as resulting from the conflict of three levels of professional activity: that of the national or global company, the localised institution, and waiters' activities, including how they interact with customers. All three of these competing levels affect the way waiting staff create their identities, even though they imply different and opposing values, logics, expectations, and demands.

People working in all types of sectors are under the same pressure to meet the challenges of their occupational identity. These challenges can be experimented with from the beginning until the end of their career (Ibarra, 1999). Individuals from supposed low-status occupations, such

as waiters, chefs, and maids (Ehrenreich, 2001); medium-status occupations, such as human resources professionals, social workers, and nurses (Bowker and Star, 1999); and high-status occupations, such as doctors, lawyers, and executives, who have a good work reputation (Khurana, 2002), are all in the process of dynamically shaping their identities.

The process of forming identity is a difficult task for professionals in organisations for two different reasons: when professionals identify more with an occupation than with their work institution, this creates conflicts between the institution's staff expectations and the staff themselves. Furthermore, when professionals are more focused on their occupation than their work institution, this often leads to higher employee turnover and indifferent institutional behaviours. Therefore, this thesis seeks to analyse the occupational identification from various perspectives to determine how they affect institutions' performance (Koenig, 2017).

When the individual identifies with the institution, they tend to be more cooperative, put in more effort, and exhibit good/functional organisational behaviour (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Christensen, 2018). Knippenberg and Schie (2000) state that some people identify more with their work sector than with their organisation. Additionally, individuals can work in an organisation where its missions are linked to their professional goals or it can be that a company's mission is different from employees' professional goals (Wallace, 1995). In the first type of institution, "the majority of the members are professionals, the professional content of the work is central to the mission of the organisation, and the goals of the organisation are largely consistent with those of the professionals it employs" (Wallace, 1995, p.229). Typical cases of such professions include law firms, medical clinics, research institutes, and accounting firms. In contrast, the second type of institution includes those in which the profession normally characterises a minority of the workers, the professional aims of the work are not those of the company, and the targets of the company and the occupation are not essentially consistent: examples of such institutions include governmental agencies.

In the first of Wallace's (1995) two types of institutions (in this case, the restaurant organisation), the waiters' mission is to give a good service and to be efficient. For waiters in the second type of organisation (in this case, more general hospitality companies which do not solely employ waiters, for example state-owned companies such as People 1st, private companies such as BigHospitality, or academic institutions), the missions are not always clear. Non-waiters in these institutions monitor and develop strategies. They report on the quality of

restaurant services (e.g. problems around retaining in the sector and how this is influencing skill shortages gaps and skill gaps), the protection of waiters' jobs, they address issues connected to waiters, conduct management research, train, and do any other jobs separate to the different tasks of a waiting role.

To bring the various facets of this discussion together, since there is often a rift between occupation and institution in the hospitality industry, waiters working for a particular institution are often required to meet the goals of their particular institution and not necessarily the wider goals of their occupation. In the following section, the concepts of profession, professionalism, professional, and professionalisation will be discussed to clarify the difference between them.

2.3.3.1. Profession, professionalism, professional or professionalisation

The twentieth century has been characterised by the significant development of professions. In current terminology, the concept of profession means the most varied professional occupations (Sundin and Hedman, 2005). However, in the sociological field the concept of 'profession' has been characterised by its polysemy. Academics (Abbott, 2014; Johnson, 2016; Sundin and Hedman, 2005) have proliferated a variety of approaches, which demonstrates the challenge of defining the concept of professions.

Firstly, one needs to identify the specific features of professions, when an activity is considered a profession, and the characteristics that distinguish professional occupations from non-professional occupations. Secondly, the discussion of professions during the twentieth century will be analysed. The following section will discuss the issue of professionalism. Here the ideas are focused on the importance of professionalism within professions and how important this is for understanding professional identities. Lastly the difference between professions and work will be analysed and contextualised within the occupation of waiting.

Profession and work - Several authors (Fernandez, 2001; Freidson, 1986; Selander, 1990) acknowledge the concept of professions, which was formerly identified as work; this term has arisen with the emergence of industrial society and the division of labour. One of the main characteristics of the twentieth century was the development of professions (Evetts, 2012). Progress in different fields of knowledge and the increasing complexity of society helped its proliferation; the increasing advance in the service sector versus the industrial sector led to a

society of professions. Selander (1990) explains that the logic of profession has not always existed, but is rather a phenomenon of the development of the capitalist state.

The emphasis is now on specialised education, qualifications, and meritocracy. From this the 'ideal type' emerges: the expert or professional. Academic qualifications credit their holders with honour, prestige, lifestyle, and certain virtues of a prominent social and professional status, even more than the technical and cognitive skills acquired from working in a profession. Therefore, the phenomenon of the professionalisation of society means that credentials (diplomas), as opposed to experience, become the endorsement of advantageous professional status. Palazor and Tovar (2004) establish three different occupation categories: an elite professional minority that no one disputes, a large occupational group that seeks professional status and achieves it in certain circumstances, and the clear majority of routine manual or non-manual occupations. What then would be the traits that define different professions and occupations or jobs? Some authors' definitions have been considered as follows:

Larson (1977) states that the profession is derived from specifically historical procedures that create underlying relations between comparatively desirable high intensities of proper ensuing rewards, position, and education in the social sector of work. To Brante (2011), professions are not manual but rather full-time occupations, which presuppose longstanding expertise and also tend to a school education that provides a specific professional theoretical knowledge often demonstrated by examinations. For Kocka (1990), profession means a full-time, non-manual occupation whose exercise supposes an academic, specialised, systematic training. Entrance varies on passing specific tests to provide diplomas that denote a professional role within the division of labour (Palazor and Tovar, 2004).

Previous studies (Brante, 2011; Kocka, 1990; Palazor and Tovar, 2004) proposed two basic approaches to characterise the definition of profession: education and credentialism. The more education and credentials a person acquires, the more they move away from being a worker and the closer they move towards being a professional. The concept of profession is linked to the evolution and development of societies; thus, it is difficult to have only one definition. However, there are some features that can describe professions, such as: a high level of formative education, an organised structure, status, continued self-actualisation, structure of power, and autonomy. As identified, the theory of professions has evolved. The first attempts to address it systematically took place in the mid-twentieth century; since then different views

on the conceptualisation and analysis have emerged from sociology, which will be analysed in more depth in the following section.

The study of professions in modern society - Three approaches have been dominant in the contemporary debate about professions: functionalist, interactionist, and critical analysis (Scambler, 2018). Here are the main positions for each:

Functionalist - After the Second World War and for more than two decades, American theorists and their functionalistic approach influenced the analysis of professions. This includes works produced by Barber (1963), Goode (1960), Parsons (1939), and Wilensky, (1964) amongst others. The common element is the emphasis on the traits of professions, amongst which are the knowledge and expertise of professionals and their altruistic community orientation; characteristics that distinguish them from non-professional occupations. In short, the functionalist conceptions of the profession lead to a differentiation between professions and non-professions that are not based on formalised knowledge or the idealism of service. This includes many professional groups, who are determined to be recognised as such. In these cases, the emphasis is placed on legitimate knowledge, higher education, and a consolidated monopoly on society. This, therefore, excludes members of semi-professions, quasi-professions or pseudo-professions.

Interactionist - In the sixties, this idealistic, altruistic, and prestigious vision of the profession was hotly debated by a group of scholars (Anderson, 1923; Burgess and Bogue, 1964; Frazier, 1932) from the Chicago School; trying to explore areas of reality consigned by the functionalists, they focused their attention on small, arguably marginal groups. This methodology was influenced by the concept of symbolic interactionism, which focused on direct observation of modest or less prestigious activities, which until earlier had not been studied, and not been considered professions. Interactionists, rather than focusing on the features that distinguish the professions, are interested in the common ground; the daily interactions of workers and how they build their careers and maintain their positions (Rock, 2016). The interactionist approach to the study of professions opened a wide field of discussion to previously ignored issues and introduced the sociology of professions outside the scope of liberal and academic professions (Davies, 2016). In summary, the interactionist approach to professions places the emphasis on the circumstances in which the professions negotiate their special position in daily life, how people assume their role within a profession, and how they distinguish themselves.

Critical analysis – The alternative approaches of the Chicago School failed to provide a consistent alternative to the functionalist hegemony, because in an effort to explore the symbolic world that surrounded the exercise of different professions, they left aside the relationships established by professions with other members of society (Ritzer and Stepnisky, 2017). In the seventies, mainly in the US, a new change to the analysis of professions emerged, including a variety of perspectives that moved away from being a homogeneous body of work. However, in general they shared a common vision: the classic attributes of professions (knowledge, expertise, prestige, altruism), which are no longer interpreted as components of an ideal type, but now as a means used by the various occupations to increase their power regarding other groups (Evetts, 2012). Following this theory, several authors (Abbot, 1988; Burrage et al., 1990; Freidson, 2001; Larson, 1977) emerged with new analytical visions in connection with profession and the market, the state and the formation of the professional system, the power and status of professions, and professional autonomy. In conclusion, a critical analysis of the professions helps to understand the relations among professions and social structures, organisations, and politics. The main topics are power and privilege. The works have focused on the processes from which the professions acquire and maintain positions of power and privilege within society and the market. These academics have made a commendable effort in the analysis of professions, considering the nature of contemporary reality, such as technological advances, new trends, and changes in social mores, that can be disruptive to the daily life of the individual, social institutions, labour markets, and work itself. In light of an ever-changing world, a rethinking of analytical approaches and the questions that guide the study of professions is needed.

From the concept of profession to the consideration of professionalism - Profession, professional, and professionalism are closely linked concepts. Currently, in different work contexts, interest is focused on the professionalisation of its members, both professionals and non-professionals. It is very common to hear sentences like ‘have the job done by professionals’ or ‘join the professionals’ and the majority of workers aspire to be professionals (Evetts, 2014; Givati et al., 2018).

In the academic field this subject can be distinguished by two different analyses of the concept: one that aims to see professionalism as a normative value system and another that analyses professionalism as a special means of organising work control as ideology. The former focuses on the ideas of authors such as Durkheim (1992), Evetts (2013), and Kuhlmann (2006). Parsons

(1939) characterises professionalism as a method of ethical community founded on occupational affiliation, and Freidson (2001) as a strength skill of extending individuality to the requests of the society, emphasising service-orientation or altruism professionalism as a way of protecting representative procedures. For Parsons (1951) vocational training should encourage the right stability between collective interest and self, which supported by the interface with occupational community is vital to the social order (Aldridge and Evetts, 2003). Essentially from this position, professionalism means recognising the mutually trustful relationship between both parties: on the one hand users must have trust in the professionals, but also a professional's professionalism wins the trust of these users and is consequently compensated with greater prestige, status, and certain privileges.

In the 70s and 80s professionalism was treated as an occupational project within a closed market, which focused on the improvement of its members (Evetts, 2013). For example, Freidson's (2001) work is one of the most representative. Professionalism "is an ideal type where the organization of, and control over work is realized by the occupation instead of by the market or by a hierarchy" (Freidson, 2001, p.9). For example, in a hierarchical bureaucracy the boss has the final word in decision-making, while in the competitive arena of the free market the money-bearing customer is always right. In other words, the three principal theories for organising work can be distinguished thus: while the market emphasises economic gain, and bureaucracy aims for efficiency (Freidson, 2001), the objective of professionalism is to perform good quality work.

The two most general professionalism concepts are: "the belief that certain work is so specialized as to be inaccessible to those lacking the required training and experience, and the belief that it cannot be standardised, rationalised, or commodified" (Freidson 2001, p.17). Professionalism is the most useful method to organise work when there are problems to resolve or tasks to perform, when there is a lack of standardisation and 'discretionary specialisation' is employed, and where skills and special knowledge are needed (Ponnert and Svensson, 2016). This specific knowledge has a base in theoretical concepts. Procedures will be segments of these assignments, but professionals should be prepared to replace them in situations where unrestricted action and judgement are necessary (Reece and Stahl, 2015).

The professional's discretion is founded on trust, that the professional applies skills and knowledge for the benefit of the 'client', as well as being devoted and 'morally involved' (Evetts,

2009). Because one supposes failures are not the result of negligence, the number of policies for the professional are reduced (Krogt, 2007). Aili et al. (2016) understands monopoly as the main feature of the ideal typical profession, however, he also says that this monopoly is given to those occupations that represent values connected with the mighty elite: the state or the public. Krogt (2007) strongly emphasises that the market shelter and the monopoly of work are crucial characteristics of the ideal type. However, discretion is founded on the value of the 'service' given to the client and the indeterminacy or unpredictability (Traynor et al., 2010) of the 'best' method to solve the problem or offer the service. This indeterminacy calls for special skills and knowledge on abstract concepts and theories, and not for standardised solutions. In conclusion, it could be that legitimate discretion to decide how to work is the only crucial characteristic of the ideal type. Certainly, this is the case within limitations stipulated by the profession and supervised by colleagues.

To introduce the next section, the meaning and synonyms of occupation and professionalism have been sought in the Oxford English Dictionary. A new term under the name of 'craft' was identified with the following definition: An activity involving skill in making things by hand. At this stage of this study, based on the knowledge already acquired, it is appropriate to ask whether waiting is a profession.

Waiting as a profession

The most important criterion of a profession is to have a professional spirit (Bisman, 2014). An answer to the question of whether a waiter's occupation can be considered a profession can only be given through an ideal-typical approach to crafts or professions. This is because it is the only way these theories can be defined clearly on the foundation of empirical findings (De Jonge, 2014). There are two significant and reliable publications by notable sociologists about identity in the work environment: 'Professionalism' by Eliot Freidson (2001) and 'The Craftsman' by Richard Sennett (2008). In the foundation of these important works the main differences between the two groups of occupations can be found: the primary objective of crafts is founded on manipulating tangible materials, while that of professions is to understand abstract values. It can be confirmed then, that waiting understands and presents itself as a profession, rather than as a craft. The main significance of the identity of waiter as a profession is that it has a moral identity. Its main skill is (moral) decision-making or serving and it is challenged with occupational dilemmas: moral dilemmas that happen because of the moral

nature of the occupation (Minnameier, 2014). Classifying waiting as a craft would denote a renunciation of its moral identity, thus downgrading waiters to social engineers.

Crafts and professions – The definition of Professions by Freidson (2001) and crafts by Sennett (2008) include the nature of the skills of these occupations, the strong social interconnection between those who work in the occupation, and the discretion entailed when doing the work. In sharing these common characteristics, they differ from the two other principal theories for the organisation of labour: hierarchical bureaucracy and the free market (De Jonge, 2014). Bureaucracies are established on knowledge that is presented accurately in protocols and procedures, whereas markets constantly put their knowledge in products that are supposed to be ‘smart’ (Brock et al., 2012). This does not mean that crafts or professions can never make use of product-based or procedural knowledge. But it does mean that if it is likely to establish the knowledge essential for a specific type of work completely in products or procedures, the need for a profession or a craft will disappear.

Since the knowledge of crafts and professions cannot be decreased to products or procedures, and the work cannot consequently be diminished to routines, people are expected to be capable of determining what procedure is needed and to perform this accordingly. These two occupations are well organised into guilds and associations and they are founded on occupational standards which guarantee that new practitioners are trained correctly. They are well established in society by means of occupational responsibility and public trust (Durkheim, 1958; Freidson 2001; Sennett, 2008). In professions, good work is never done for its own benefit, but for the benefit of recognising a humanitarian value. While in crafts the emphasis is on doing things right. In professions, doing things right is always led by doing the right things. Sennett (2008) defines the attitude of the craftsman as more dedicated to the question of ‘how’ than that of ‘why’. According to Sennett (2008), a craftsman selects nature to be his reference rather than transcendent principles. Sennett (2008) highlights that difficulty is part of craftsmanship, but in crafts difficulty is the exemption, while in professions it is more of a daily occurrence. Moral occupations demand moral practitioners (a person actively engaged in an art or discipline (Steel, 2014). Professionals are practitioners with a moral identity. In ideal-typical terms, they are motivated by a laic vocation (Larson, 1977; Van der Boom, 2008); in other words, they are fundamentally moved by the work they do. Professionals frequently dedicate their lives to their occupation, much more than to the institute they work for (Evetts, 2014). Consequently, the professional approach is an essential part of the occupational identity of

professional workers, founded on qualities such as dedication and respect (Banks and Gallagher, 2009; Christensen, 2018).

Deciding whether waiting is a craft or a profession may seem to be a rather theoretical discussion of little significance to daily practice. However, the question is important to determine the waiter's place in society and the waiter's identity. If waiting is a craft, either by maintaining this implicitly, or explicitly reducing the tasks of the workers to doing things in the right way and focusing on the 'how', denotes a rejection that waiting is at its core a profession. Rejecting waiting as a profession is an indication of denial of its moral identity. This, sequentially, would downgrade professional waiters to social engineers, ready to dedicate their capability to any job they are asked to perform, whatever the consequences and regardless of the outcome.

The following section analyses concepts significant to this explicit study's context and challenges. Stereotype, authenticity, employer branding, work engagement, turnover, and salience perceptions will be considered due to their associations with occupational identity induced by society and the interface with waiters.

2.4. CONCEPTS OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework is established as a starting point for this study, developed from what has already been identified and is known from previous research. This framework offers constructs that may be significant in discouraging and fostering waiters' experience in the service context. Additionally, it showed the path to reduce employee turnover. Some of these constructs with their theories are explained further below:

2.4.1. Employer branding

Employer branding offers a strategic framework that includes both human resources and marketing (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Moroko and Uncles, 2008), so that an institution can appeal to, maintain, and incentivise those personnel who can enhance the value of the organisation and are able to contribute to the organisation's brand guarantee (Alshathry et al., 2017; Moroko and Uncles, 2008). Employer branding integrates theory from a variety of academic fields (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Moroko and Uncles, 2008), and has been explained as an important development regarding the purpose of corporate brand integrity (Mosley, 2007). However, it is not proven that current practice is really aiding organisations in achieving their

objectives.

Scholars (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004) concur that to accomplish all the objectives explained above, employer branding should meet three objectives: it should be harmonious with the veracities of the firm, diverse from those of competing employers, and appealing to members of the target audience. Since the first two measures are clear, scholars have concentrated their interest on identifying what makes employer branding appealing. For instance, there have been a number of academic reports on employer branding appeal (Berthon et al., 2005; Lievens and Highhouse, 2003) and the best employer studies are often published in the business press. Founded on the outcomes of these reports, many firms are now attempting to adapt to an 'ideal blueprint of employment' (Mosley, 2007), evaluating their own performance against those of organisations that have previously been well known as best employers. Martin et al. (2005) state that evaluation is now sound as a 'central human resources and business imperative'. However, this approach is difficult for two reasons; Firstly, an employer branding that adapts to an 'ideal blueprint' cannot show the unique identity of a specific firm, and as a consequence, it presents no clear source for associating the employees' behaviour with the corporate brand's values. Secondly, the study on which the Martin et al. (2005) 'blueprint' is founded, has focused almost exclusively on the characteristics sought by potential employees. Since the corporate branding's objectives can only be recognised through existing employees' behaviour, marketers must also analyse what makes an employer branding appeal to individuals in this group; Critically, however, this question is frequently ignored (Maxwell and Knox, 2009).

To understand what makes an employer branding appeal to existing employees, it is fundamental to address further investigations that account for the exclusive opinion and observation of individuals in this group. As a consequence, this involves some knowledge of how employment relationships may impact people's evaluation of their firm's employer branding. One part of the literature that focuses on this subject is the occupational identity in relation to organisation identification (Grubenman and Meckel, 2014; Miscenko and Day, 2016). This study suggests emphasising the importance of this factor to continue research in order to offer a concrete understanding of this relationship.

The idea of how staff develop a relationship with their organisation is an interesting topic of debate amongst organisational theorists. Giddens (1991) argues that the level of instability and

the increasing complexities in terms of social security in a globalised world, demand individuals to construct an emotional relationship with the firm. According to Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003), occupational identity construction is important for meaning, loyalty, inter-group relations, stability, commitment, and organisational collaboration.

2.4.2. Authenticity

According to Walls (2007) the capacity to ‘be yourself’ in the workplace should be a fundamental component of companies’ output. In global companies, this can create a confrontation between company managers and staff since they are subjected to company policy, budget, and standards. Cameron’s (2001) research reveals that within hotel departments, specifically in kitchens, there are often conflicts occurring between chefs and organisations, namely because hoteliers wish to maintain control over all operations, and because a main priority is to save money. However, chefs see their profession as an ‘art’, and therefore perceive such policies and regulations as imposing many limitations on developing their ‘self-identity’ (Cameron 2001). Cameron’s (2001) study emphasises that management programmes, which seek ‘radical change’, often shape chefs’ identities. Although management normally attempts to implement such changes due to crucial considerations of cost reduction and change, such management practices are a threat to “the autonomy, status, and self-perceived professionalism of chefs” (Cameron, 2001, p.105).

It is worth noting at this point that although the above research on chefs’ experiences is undoubtedly informative, this study focuses on a different occupational group working in the same industry. Chefs usually gain qualifications prior to taking up positions whereas most waiters do not; this study will therefore attempt to question whether waiters possess the same degree of entitlement to put into practice their own professional judgements, as chefs have demonstrated in their practice.

Authenticity, in the work context, has been defined as the individual experience of association between one’s inner experiences and outer expressions (Roberts, 2007). Furthermore, it is defined as a person’s general feeling of having communicated and operated upon their genuine inner experiences in the place of work (Lyubovnikova et al., 2017). Consequently, people can reflect and evaluate the similarity between their experiences and expressions.

One's inner self manifests itself differently according to the situation in which one finds oneself (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Lyubovnikova et al., 2017). For example, a waiter does not present himself or herself in the same way with guests as he does with his or her colleagues. To achieve a sense of authenticity, however, it is crucial that the waiters show the preferences, feelings, thoughts, and values believed to be fundamental to their inner self in every circumstance. The notion that one's self changes according to external circumstances is further supported by Chu (2002), who generalises emotional-labour theory as the notion that individuals control their behaviour to apply the appropriate emotions in order to achieve authenticity.

In contrast of what is discussed above, Roberts (2005) argues that we do not make a priori assumptions regarding the specific character strengths, virtues, or skills that represent the 'authentic self'. However, we do assume that people are active agents who, under certain conditions, will attempt to 'become more authentic' by increasing the alignment between their internal experiences and external expressions. Roberts and Dutton (2009) go even further to deny any previous suppositions about the explicit aspect of strengths, skills, or virtues that characterise the 'authentic self'. They do not expect that individuals are active agents, which in specific circumstances, will try to 'become more authentic' by intensifying the association between the inner experiences and outward expression.

An extensive body of literature has studied the efficiency and emotional costs of inauthenticity for people, work groups, and companies (Roberts, 2007). Other studies underline the stress that people often suffer to meet the expectations and views that they consider to be maintained by the majority (Hackman, 1992). As a result, people often contain their thoughts and views when they see that others in their context have different points of view (Van Dyne et al., 2003). In these situations, authenticity is reduced because internal experiences are not aligned with external expressions (e.g. verbal statements). When organisational members suppress their divergent ideas, values, and beliefs, they may limit creativity, innovation, and group learning (Milliken et al., 2003). Moreover, when companies' members do not express their different opinions, values, and ideas, this can reduce imagination, originality, and group learning (Milliken et al., 2003).

Inauthenticity can impose psychological stress on organisational members. People who feel that they must behave inauthentically (e.g. suppressing behaviour, ideas, values, or preferences) to follow social expectations, may experience identity feelings or conflict of distress and

dissonance (Bell and Nkomo, 2001; Lyubovnikova et al., 2018). This suggests that inauthenticity is psychologically costly. Inauthenticity may create psychological pressure on members of the institute. Individuals who think they should behave inauthentically to meet social expectations may experience identity conflict (Settles, 2006). It has been discussed how authenticity is fundamental to construct positive identities in institutions and all this demonstrates that inauthenticity is harmful for people and institutions.

It is worth noting here that although standardisation of company policies and staff autonomy do not readily appear to be compatible with each other, the researcher in this study has already noted that the inculcation of rules can in fact encourage a greater degree of self-autonomy. This is primarily implemented through investing in a greater degree of responsibility for individual members of staff to solve problems. Therefore, when a customer approaches a member of staff with a query, the member of staff does not directly refer it to their superior, but rather attempts to deal with it her or himself. This, of course, requires a high degree of familiarity with company policy, thus one can see how it is possible to closely adhere to ‘the rules’ while also feeling valued for what one perceives one’s ‘authentic’ self to be.

The importance of the research on authenticity is that people do expect a degree of continuity between how they realise their conceptions of their inner selves both outside and inside the workplace. Therefore, this study will attempt to find out from participants to what extent they feel that they can be themselves at work and whether they regard the ability to do so as a help or hindrance to employee turnover.

2.4.3. Stereotype

Bordalo et al. (2016) defines a stereotype as a “widely held but fixed and over-simplified image or idea of a particular type of person or thing” (Bordalo et al., 2016, p.1). Most individuals would agree that stereotyping has a damaging influence on identities, which are inherently complex and dynamic. The negative stereotype of the waiter has an especially strong influence on staff working in the hospitality industry, and creates particularly strong power relations. This study will attempt to acknowledge the large body of research on stereotypes and their damaging effects (Cardwell, 1996; Herring et al., 2004; Katz and Braly, 1933; Klonoff and Landrine, 2000; Landor et al., 2013; Shih et al., 1999; Steele, 1995).

However, there is also some research on the topic, which in fact demonstrates how a greater sense of self-worth can arise out of stereotypes, rather than in spite of them (Bargh et al., 1996;

Hoyt et al., 2010; Kray et al., 2001; Logel et al., 2009; Schaap et al., 2017). This area of research is focused on in particular within this study, to find out how waiters can work with the circumstances in which they find themselves, to improve levels of job satisfaction. This section will demonstrate that negative stereotypes are often built around notions of nationality and occupation, and will highlight examples arising in the hospitality industry. It also aims to show that stereotypes are not endlessly damaging, but that within the stereotype itself new identities are formed. Such newly formed identities often form the basis of less damaging stereotypes.

2.4.3.1. Thoughtful stereotyping

Stereotypes have been defined as significant decisions by perceivers who are not committed to thinking hard about the target evidence (Wegener et al., 2006). When a guest has time to observe employees, it affects the stereotype that they are designating to that employee. For instance, if a customer is waiting to be served by a waiter they may already be making judgments based on that waiters activity and appearance whilst waiting. Darley and Gross (1983) stated, “expectancy confirmation, then, does not always result from an automatic inference process. Instead, it occurs as the product of an active process in which perceivers examine the labelled individual’s behaviour for evidence relevant to their hypothesis” (p.28). This means that for a guest to have a noticed prejudice of a waiter they need to have some type of proof from a previous experience. This experience could be with a similar waiter for instance, in order to have built that stereotype for a specific kind of waiter. Every encounter that a guest has with a waiter has an impact on the kind of judgement the guest attributes to that specific kind of waiter. Whether it is a waiter from a coffee shop, hotel restaurant, or Michelin-starred restaurant, the guest will classify these waiters differently. Each different type has a specific stereotype attributed to them. Biased processing could involve several mental functions that occur at the same time to affect the conclusive judgment (Darley and Gross, 1983; Fiske, 2018). Several different kinds of encounters and experiences with these waiters make one kind of judgement from previously collected data. A guest observes the current waiter that they have, has time to analyse their previous waiters, and creates a hypothesis about the conduct of the current waiter. Without even talking to the waiter or knowing them at all, they have already constructed a biased point of view.

2.4.3.2. Non-thoughtful stereotyping

A second form of stereotyping happens when a guest does not think about it. Stereotyping should occur most when motivation or ability to think about the target is relatively low. This

prediction is supported by many empirical investigations demonstrating augmented use of stereotypes when individuals are under time difficulty (Freund et al., 1985; Kruglanski and Freund, 1983). In other words, a guest can stereotype a waiter as soon as they meet them because it is not thoughtful. For instance, they may automatically assume that this is not a real job, meaning it does not require skills or education, doing this without even having interacted with them. They might be able to make this hypothesis based on previous experience or it could be that a previous encounter with a previous waiter resulted in a bad experience. This means that the guest can stereotype without thinking, and just by looking at the waiter. One of the most prominent and consistent understandings has been that there is often greater influence of stereotypes on judgments at lower levels of evidence processing (Wegener et al., 2006). Guests can have a clearer stereotypic opinion of waiters when they do not have time to think or analyse the waiter. Their prejudices can sometimes be greater than if they had time to analyse the waiter and define them with a different prejudice. Stereotypes can happen everywhere at a subconscious level and appear automatically. Customers who stereotype elude the effort of thinking (Fiske, 2004). The less time a guest invests in thinking about how their encounter with the waiter is going to be, the stronger the conclusion is of the waiter. But, in both unthoughtful and thoughtful stereotypes the idea is that customers are still drawing conclusions on waiters based on either no time or only a small amount of time to react and make judgments. In conclusion, waiters are not receiving the treatment that they deserve.

There are different ways in which humans stereotype. Some ways are subconscious and occur intuitively without thinking. This occurs, for instance, when a customer meets a waiter or sees him for a minute and immediately engages in analysing the different stereotypes in relation to that specific waiter. Other stereotypes develop from previous encounters with the same type of waiters that they might have had. A previous encounter is the next step for future waiters of a similar class. Whether this was negative or positive it still impacts the relation between the two parties involved.

Stereotypes can also occur when there is thought involved (Wegener et al., 2006), such as when a guest has time to analyse specific stereotypes related to the kind of waiter they are about to encounter. Opinions of the self may also influence how a customer sees a waiter. If a guest feels he identifies with a waiter for a specific reason, such as gender, marital status, or culture, he can feel more comfortable, which can then be reflected in the interaction between them. These different aspects of stereotyping waiters positively or negatively influence the rapport between

the employee and the guest (Fiske, 2004). However, at the same time, all these ideologies growing out of the stereotype help to develop a better social relationship between staff and their peers and/or customers and by creating a difference between in-groups and out-groups. There are also other factors that can influence an individual's identity. One issue that has been little considered in the research on global places of work interaction is the negotiation status (Schaap et al., 2017).

2.4.3.3. The impact of stereotype on employees' productivity

The effects of stereotyping do impact employees in the workplace, and one could see how this would in turn impact the organisations themselves. People tend to use stereotypes because it helps them to make sense of potentially confusing situations. According to Stedman Graham (2006) in his book 'Diversity Leaders Not Labels', a stereotype can be an excessive opinion of groups or an individual, permitting for slight, individual, or no social variation differences, frequently passed along by peers or family members, or the media. Psychologists (Cardwell, 1996; Katz and Braly, 1933; Shih et al., 1999, Steele 1999) and sociologists (Herring, 2004; Klonoff and Landrine, 2000; Landor et al., 2013) understand the most about stereotypes, different aspects of stereotyping, and its effects. Sackett's (2003) study demonstrates that perceived stereotypes impact on employees and productivity (Sackett, 2003). Workers who suffered from negative stereotypes build psychological tactics to deal with the prejudice and bias that the stereotype generates. These conventions often become self-fulfilling due to the phenomenon identified as stereotype threat. Nadler and Clark (2011) defined it as a diminution in performance provoked by a concern of approving a pre-existing, culturally known, negative stereotype. According to this theory, groups act in this way when stereotype threat is activated.

Stereotypes can however demonstrate a positive impact on employees' performance. Sometimes even those who are not in the stereotyped group may increase performance. For example, scholars (Hoyt et al., 2010; Kray et al., 2001; Raphael, 2017; Walton and Cohen, 2003) have observed several ways in which stereotyping can improve performance. The two most popular concepts link to lift. Stereotype lift happens (Walton and Cohen, 2003) when stereotype threat is activated; the group that has not been stereotyped yields better when it goes through a comparison with the group affected. Therefore, negative stereotypes can lead to an improvement in an individual's performance when it makes them stand out from those who have not been affected by the stereotype. Another form in which people improve performance when challenged with a negative stereotype occurs when stereotype threat is deliberately

provoked, and stereotyped people are in the current environment in the minority group (Hoyt et al., 2010; Kray et al., 2001). In these circumstances, people react with ‘stereotype reactance’, where they work harder to demonstrate the opposite of the stereotype (Bargh et al., 1996; Logel et al., 2009).

2.4.3.4. The effect of stereotype on human relationships

In describing the variances between stereotypes and other manners of behaviour and thinking, Fiske (1998) states that stereotyping is a cognitive procedure that shows our expectations and beliefs about the members of groups. Prejudice effectually signifies our emotional responses to such reasoning; discrimination is the behavioural action and presentation the individual adopts in response to their prejudices. The different effects of stereotyping on employees have been analysed. One way of stereotyping individuals can be based on social interactions (Gilmore and Harris, 2008). This section will analyse how stereotyping affects human relationships. There are several studies, which focus on specific stereotyping activities, one of which is classism (Fiske, 1998; Lott, 2002). Classism includes prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination founded on socioeconomic significance. Classist stereotypes would implicate views attributed to people given their relationship in a socioeconomic significant group (Fiske, 1998; Lott, 2002). Classism occurs when individuals create social divisions between diverse individual categories by stereotyping people (Gilmore and Harris, 2008).

Once individuals are allocated into a specific group, it is simpler to create specific differences among them. In restaurants, this theory can influence the social relationship between staff and their peers and/or customers; so, in the situation of staff and guest, once the waiter/tress catalogues the customer founded on class it will be simpler to stereotype that customer. For instance, a waiter may assume that a customer is middle class founded on the type of clothes that they wear. The waiter has now categorised the customer in a class; this now starts to create a stereotype that matches that specific class. A case could be that the waiter may contemplate that he is going to obtain a big tip. Waiters may give a better service to those customers who he/she is expecting to give a good tip (Harris, 1995). This could be a typical case of how stereotyping a customer directs to variations in the type of service obtained. However, the stereotype that the waiter gives to their customers might not always be authentic. Individuals remember keeping their stereotypes of specific groups even after there is significant indication that disconfirms the actual stereotype that they are using (Fiske, 1998; Hamilton and Sherman, 1994; Hilton and von Hippel, 1996; Proverbio et al., 2018; Von Hippel et al., 1995). As a result,

even though there are indications that not all upper-class individuals give big tips, a waiter may still believe in the same stereotype and does not learn from the experience.

Literature (Cardwell, 1996; Katz and Braly, 1933; Klonoff and Landrine, 2000; Herring et al., 2004; Landor et al., 2013; Shih et al., 1999) has demonstrated that stereotypes tending toward lesser socioeconomic prestige groups were usually more adverse than those credited to higher prestige groups (Gilmore and Harris, 2008). Stereotypes are used in the restaurant sector both positively and negatively. Stereotypes can be assigned to everybody (Cardwell, 1996). They influence waiters in the hospitality sector in both positive and negative ways. Individuals will continue to stereotype each other based on their understanding of social class (Fiske, 2004). Some customers will appreciate the service given by the waiter, while others will treat them with indifference. Individuals generally allocate other individuals into in-groups and out-groups, so that stereotyping is a common behaviour (Tajfel, 1969; 1970; 1981). For this reason, it seems normal for a guest to stereotype a waiter; it can be seen as a part of human behaviour for a customer to look at a waiter and assume certain characteristics that they think are negative or positive, thus allocating them into different groups.

Another way of stereotyping others is the valuation of one's self. Thoughts that stimulate stereotypes about other people may also come from the self-perception of the person creating the stereotype. How one sees oneself can have an impact on how one sees others that they consider to be in a similar position to themselves (Gerber, 2009). The self-perception can decrease or add to the opinion that they have of others.

According to Wyer and Lambert (1994), significant confirmation has demonstrated that people, self-interpretations, and the interpretations of them made by others are principally reliant on the social interest of their accredited personality characters. A waiter of a restaurant can have his/her own self-perception founded on valuations made by other individuals and then made by him/her. What he/she thinks of him/her self may influence what he/she thinks of the peers he/she is interrelating with. If a waiter thinks the co-worker he/she is interacting with is like him/her in some respects this may affect what kind of stereotype he/she applies to the person. This way of thinking can also impact on his/her relationship with colleagues based on either a negative or positive perception of them. To conclude this discussion, a waiter can have a better relationship with a colleague that he/she thinks is on the same level as him/her, founded on a

sense of trust. This is unfair to other colleagues as he/she is not being neutral with all the members of staff.

2.4.3.5. Occupational stereotype in global organisations

The following section will consider why people in global institutions make culture-based assumptions of their peers that prevent effectual intercultural working relations. In social groups possessing a high degree of diversity, people are more likely to notice such differences and associate themselves with people who possess the same characteristics as them (Dragojevic et al., 2017; Hogg and Reid, 2006). In the globalised workplace, individuals adjust their conduct in the context of work groups containing people of many nationalities, not only because they harbour stereotypes of others, but also because the existence of a person from a different cultural background requires them to use cultural stereotypes to assess their own capacities (Goff et al., 2008). For example, the perception is widespread in the Spanish-speaking world that Argentinian Spanish is inferior to that spoken in Spain and Peru. Argentinians coming to Spain or Peru for work are therefore likely to be burdened with such a negative perception of the way they speak, and will subsequently attempt to change how they speak in order to align themselves with a more positive stereotype. This means they may attempt to sound more like a native of Spain or Peru, and will adopt a different lexicon: for example, they might use the term ‘ordenador’ instead of ‘computer’, to denote computer, or they might switch from using ‘ustedes’ to ‘vosotros’ to indicate ‘you’.

The literature (Cardwell, 1996; Katz and Braly, 1933; Klonoff and Landrine, 2000; Herring, 2004; Landor et al., 2013; Shih et al., 1999; Steele, 1999) is divided regarding whether stereotypes based on occupation or stereotypes based on cultural differences are responsible for constructing identities in the workplace. In institutions, there are many stereotypes about certain occupations (Cory, 1992). Occupational stereotypes are frequently used in circumstances where individuals with multiple occupations work together on a common task (Loosemore and Tan, 2000). They can also be used when group participants have different national cultures. Not much is known about the character of occupational stereotyping in institutions, particularly in circumstances where co-workers cooperating in the same occupation are from dissimilar national cultures. Cheney and Ashcraft (2007) state that the character of occupational identities in the workplace suggest that occupational standing frequently reduces other cultural associations because of the situation related to certain types of work. The related research has even started to demonstrate that when members share an occupational culture, institutional co-

workers will often try to create status differences by adding to it other cultural relationships, such as national culture (Gelfand et al., 2007). At the same time, it may be expected that in the case of interactions in the globalised workplace, people use specific occupational stereotyping techniques to explain their own style of work and styles of others, instead of culture-based stereotypes (Dragojevic, 2017; Leonardi and Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013).

Another consideration is the extent to which work-related activities influence the formation of stereotypes. Smith et al. (2006) demonstrate that when people do not often participate in types of informal social conversations and relations that cause friendship and enjoyment, but instead engage in reiterated, formal, task-based relations, individuation decreases and stereotyping is more likely to occur. This is because in most institutions, global workplace interactions occur through media that make diffusion of social clues and unofficial interaction difficult (Cramton, 2001; Dragojevic, 2017). The interactions consist mostly of tasks (Gelfand et al., 2007) and are often quite formal (Gudykunst and Ting-Tommey, 1988). However, it can be expected that staff would rely on culture-based occupational stereotypes in such interactions in order to make sense of the uncertainty and to control behaviour. The existing literature demonstrates that stereotypes determine opinions of self and others in worldwide interactions and that people may confuse occupational and national identities in stereotypes when interacting with individuals from other nations. This disposition of the groups and the approaches utilised to support person identity and a group identity is part of Tajfel and Turner's (1979) Social Identity Theory.

2.4.3.6. Stereotype theory

Tajfel and Turner's (2004) as well as Fiske and Taylor's (1991) greatest contribution to psychology was stereotype theory (Bonache et al., 2016; Wells, 2014). Tajfel (1979) stated that stereotyping is based on a common cognitive development: the habit of putting things together leads to exaggerate the similarities and differences in the same or different group(s). People are categorised in the same way. They see the group to which they belong (the in-group) as being diverse from others (the out-groups), and fellows of the same group as being more comparable than they are. Social classification is one explanation for biased attitudes (e.g. 'us' and 'them' mentality), which relates to out-groups and in-groups; for example, locals or tourists and customers or employees (McLeod, 2008).

Tajfel and Turner (1979) define that there are three conceptual procedures in assessing others as 'them' or 'us' ('out-group' and 'in-group'). The first is categorisation. Individuals categorise

things in order to identify and understand them. In a very similar procedure individuals categorise themselves in order to analyse the social environment (Cikara et al., 2014). Categories are used, such as locals or tourists, employees or employers, because they are useful. If individuals can assign others and themselves to a category, then that explains characteristics about those people: for example, in the context of the restaurant. Likewise, individuals discover qualities about themselves by understanding what categories they belong to. Applicable conduct is demarcated by orientation to the standards of groups that people belong to. A person can belong to many distinctive groups (Hogg, 2016).

In the second process, social identification, individuals adopt the identity of the group they have classified themselves as belonging to (Costa-Font and Cowell, 2014). For instance, if an individual has been categorised as an employee, it is most likely that he will accept the identity of an employee and start to perform in the ways he believes employees act (and adapt to the rules of the group). There will be an expressive implication to his identification with a group, and his self-esteem will become related to the group relationship.

The final process is social comparison. Once individuals have categorised themselves as a member of a group and have become recognised as part of that group, they then tend to bias that group with respect to other groups. If their self-esteem is to be upheld, the group must compare positively with other groups (Fiske et al., 2007). This is fundamental to understanding bias; once two groups accept themselves as competitors they are forced to compete in order for the fellows to keep their self-esteem. Hostility and competition between groups is consequently not only a question of competing for resources such as occupations, but also the outcome of competing identities (Ceglarek and Ward, 2016). The group membership is not something artificial or foreign that is ascribed to the person: it is a true, real, and vital part of the individual. It is fundamental to consider in-groups as groups that people identify with, and out-groups as groups that people do not identify with, and can categorise against.

Not all stereotypes of out-groups are negative. A simple way to comprehend these diverse thoughts, across a range of groups, results from the 'stereotype content model': this theory demonstrates that social groups are perceived according to their evaluated competence and warmth (Fiske et al., 2007). When individuals identify a new group, they want to know if the intentions of the members in this group are good or bad. If the other group has good supportive intentions, they see them as trustworthy and warm and often treat them as part of 'our side' but

if the other group is competitive and full of abusers, they often see them as a risk and treat them accordingly (Bosmans et al., 2016). After understanding the group's intentions, they also want to know whether they are capable enough to work with them (if they are incapable or incompetent, their intentions matter less). These two simple magnitudes, competence and warmth, together represent how groups correlate with each other in society (Tausch et al., 2015). There are mutual stereotypes of individuals from all types of occupations and categories, which are catalogued according to these two magnitudes. For example, a stereotypical 'child-minder' would be interpreted as lower in competence but higher in warmth. This is not to indicate that child-minders are not competent, of course, but that they are not generally admired for their competence in the same way as professors, entrepreneurs or doctors. At the other end of the scale are people such as thieves and alcoholics, stereotyped as having bad intentions and as being incompetent (unable) to do anything beneficial. These groups are supposedly more repellent to society than any other groups (Bosmans et al., 2016).

Some groups' stereotypes are varied: low on one factor and high on the other. Groups stereotyped as knowledgeable but not welcoming, for example, include wealthy individuals and non-members good at business. These groups that are defined as 'capable but distant' make individuals feel some jealousy, declaring that these others may have some ability but resenting them for not being 'individuals like us'. The 'prototypical minority' stereotype cited earlier comprises individuals with this great competence but lack of interpersonal skills (Woods et al., 2005). The other varied combination is low competence but high warmth. Groups who suit this combination include disabled people and old people. Others report pitying them, but only so long as they keep their distance (Boardman, 2012). In a determination to combat this negative stereotype, elderly-rights and disability activists attempt to replace sympathy with respect (Carstensen and Hartel, 2006). Overall, these four types of stereotypes explained above and their related emotional biases (pride, envy, disgust, pity) occur everywhere for each of society's groups. These maps of the group terrain anticipate specific kinds of discrimination for specific types of groups, highlighting how bias is not equal opportunity (Dutton et al., 2010).

As the world becomes more global, with increased relations between countries, interconnecting among different groups has become easier and quicker and more people are encountering diversity during their life (Ramos and Schleicher, 2017). Asking individuals about their original background is a question that would be unreasonable if only people from their own same group surrounded them. Grouping is becoming more and more volatile, unclear, uncertain, and

complex (Bodenhausen and Peery, 2009). Individual identities are intersecting, and multifaceted across class, gender, region, race, age, and more. Identities are not so simple; due to this fact, maybe in the near future individuals will recognise each other by their personality instead of their ethnographic features.

2.4.4. Work engagement

Considering the extensive significance of engagement at work, there is no well-defined consensus on what the concept of work engagement implies and how to best measure and define it (Albrecht, 2010; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). A discrepancy seems to exist in how workers and researchers describe engagement. Nevertheless, some authors (Albrecht, 2010; Christian et al., 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010; Simpson, 2009) define the concept of work engagement as an optimistic occupational, emotional, and incentivational status of mind that involves an honest disposition to make effort in one's work and towards managerial achievement. It is typified by vigour, dedication, absorption, and passion for work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Harter et al., 2002). When engaged in work, employees are committed to and personally responsible for their occupational performance and that job performance 'counts' to them (Britt, 2003). Additionally, in being a state of mind, work engagement is also a managerial and social meaning-making procedure. This is because employees engage in negotiating the significance of practices and norms, and express and employ their salience identities in behaviours and tasks that encourage relationships with work and with others, individual presence (cognitive, physical and emotional), and dynamic, full role working (Billett and Somerville, 2004; Kahn, 1990).

Several academics (Brown, 1996; Brown and Leigh, 1996; May et al., 2004) state that work engagement is created by organisation context, for example emotional feeling, or perceptions of firm climate by single employees. When employees perceive the firm environment as meaningful and safe, their job effort and engagement improve and augment performance (Brown, 1996; Brown and Leigh, 1996; 2018; May et al., 2004). Firm sources that influence work engagement comprise group support from co-workers, feedback from managers, and aptitude variety that are intrinsic and extrinsic motivators and encourage employees' motivation to offer their work to the labour tasks (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004).

Work engagement is also created by job descriptions. For example, Britt (2003) suggests that important foundations of work engagement are clarity of procedures for accomplishment of

tasks, the amount of supervision that individuals feel they have over the execution of the activity, and the relevance of performance to the individual's work identity. Fundamental situations of work engagement involve employee autonomy, training, and technology, as well as disposal of resources, when employees deal with obstacles encountered, work demands, and stressful situations (Salanova et al., 2005).

The influences that increase the work engagement impassively received by the employees and disposal of resources and training does not instinctively influence increased work engagement. Employees perform a dynamic role in how they engage in organisational performance and frequently they do it selectively, depending on what knowledge they think is more interesting, what their career progress needs are, and how much they want to invest (Billett, 2004; Billett and Somerville, 2004; Renkema, 2006). From this standpoint, engagement does not spontaneously augment when labour is significant, as Kahn (1990) proposes, but rather helps to build the meaning by individuals. The following section discusses the work engagement in organisations, which consequently leads to the interest among restaurants in reducing employee turnover.

2.4.4.1. The key effects of work engagement

Studies have demonstrated that a high level of work engagement helps to improve work performance in terms of positive emotions, the ability to mobilise resources, and enhanced self-efficacy, and helps to avoid 'workaholism' (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Shaufeli and Bakker's (2004) multi-sample analysis indicates that work engagement arbitrates the correlation between available job resources and employees' loyalty. Employee loyalty is recognised as sharing the same approach and commitment to the quality of work that leads to higher performance (Salanova et al., 2005).

The thrust behind the popularity of employee loyalty is that it has favourable consequences for firms. As explained earlier, there is an overall consensus of a relationship between employee loyalty and business results (Guillon and Cezanne, 2014). However, the concept of loyalty also includes a strong willingness to remain a member of a firm (Turkyilmaz et al., 2011), aligning and living with the values and visions of the firm (Durking, 2007), making a lot of effort for the firm (Becker et al., 1995, Turkyilmaz et al., 2011), and even a desire to work late (Guillon and Cezanne, 2014). In this sense, there is reason to expect employee loyalty to be associated with individuals' intentions, attitudes, and behaviours.

Organisations know that loyal employees produce profitable and solid business. To the contrary, happy but dissatisfied or disloyal individuals have the opposite result (Durkin, 2007). Employee loyalty has been shown to generate new values for firms (Guillon and Cezanne, 2014) throughout high contribution and effort demonstrated, better service, better product quality, increased organisational reputation, increased profits, and greater shareholder value, amongst others (Duboff and Heaton, 1999; Durkin, 2007; Guillon and Cezanne, 2014; Ibrahim and Al Falasi, 2014; Rice et al., 2017; Silvestro, 2002). Conversely, the lack of loyalty can obviously be harmful and cause loss of trust, incompetent work, higher absenteeism, and higher employee turnover (Rice et al., 2017). In the next section, salience will be explained by considering how social literature has used this term as an umbrella perception, covering different types of constructs.

2.4.5. The influence of salience as a moderator in the antecedent constructs of the study

Conventionally, the perception of salience has been principally used in the sector of social psychology. Guido (1996) stated that the basis of the terminology (saliency) is timed back to Krech and Crutchfield (1948), although related views had been established since the end of the 19th century under different names (Calkins, 1894; Von Restorff, 1933). Only two decades ago, this theory found its present definition in the study of Taylor and Fiske in the field of individual perception (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). By stressing its inherent nature of standing, Fiske and Taylor (1991) described salience as the magnitude to which specific stimuli are noticeable to others in their context, and organised as the cause of social salience related to the environment in which a stimulus happens.

The dichotic theory of salience by Guido (1995, 1996) proposes that a stimulus is in-salient when it is incongruent in a specific environment, or it is re-salient when it is congruent in a specific environment; consequently, in-salience and re-salience are two opposite characteristics of the same construct. This theory has been applied in marketing studies and more specifically in consumer literature; however, this study will adapt this concept to the field of employees by analysing the different antecedents and the grade of intensity (high or low), which can influence the construction of occupation identity in the workplace. The dichotic theory of salience (Guido 1995, 1996; Shepherd and Williams, 2018) provides a helpful model for this study as it offers a common base to all the salience examples studied in literature, and therefore an understandable framework for exploring waiters' processing of the complex labour relationship

market. The lack of literature on this topic and application of its use as a moderator previously, results in salience as a novelty within theoretical models. In the next section, the effects of globalisation and homogenisation on occupational identity are studied.

2.5. CHALLENGES FOR OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY: GLOBALISATION AND HOMOGENISATION

Ritzer (1993) has supported the concept of homogenisation where globalisation is thought to create a homogenous culture (termed ‘McDonaldization’ by Ritzer). Similarly, Robertson (1992) has argued that globalisation has led to a compression of the world’s consciousness; although Robertson believes that the process of globalisation is complicated, he has generally argued that it is chiefly Western culture that has come to predominate.

To understand the social standing of occupational groups, it is impossible to ignore the most influential tendency in society, especially in the hospitality industry, namely, globalisation (Ivanova, 2017; Niewiadomski, 2013). Whereas companies may achieve standardisation on a national level in theory, the reality is that the most successful and predominating companies, e.g. McDonalds, Starbucks, Walmart, Pizza Hut, and so on, are international companies that seek to implement standardised policies in stores or franchises based in many countries (Beere, 2017). This section will review the definition of globalisation and cultural homogenisation, acknowledging its negative effects, but also identifying the possible positive effects of such a development.

The word ‘homogenisation’ denotes a typical procedure of social engineering created by social behavioural and movement variations, resulting in individuals becoming culturally and ethnically consistent (Conversi, 2008). Globalised businesses have resorted to ‘homogenisation’, in which they systematise their actions to tolerate global competition. In response to cultural homogenisation and globalisation, the hospitality sector has undergone modification, to manage with the cumulative competitive advantage (Knowles et al., 2001). Some nations create branded hospitality services aimed at mass consumption on a state level (Lashley and Morrison, 2004). With reference to Needle (2004), globalisation guides cultural homogenisation. There is a solid complementary argument suggesting that cultural heterogeneity is obtaining strength (Minkov, 2009). Bearing in mind the new tendency towards greater individualism and cultural fragmentation, the development of knowledge-based ‘post-modernity’ (the economic or cultural state or condition of society) supports an anti-global

concept of consumption. Considering that the consumer is more flexible, thoughtful, experienced, less predictable, and educated, mass consumption is increasingly resisted by quality-aware individual consumers (Knowles et al., 2001).

In response to a growing dissatisfaction with globalisation (Friedberg, 2018), companies are attempting to strengthen the extent to which their brands are unique. They are doing so in response to the tendency for customers to identify ‘pseudo-events’: in other words, customers respond negatively to what they perceive as inauthentic hospitality practices (Faulkner et al., 2005). However, brands only serve to impoverish the diversity of identities adopted by individual members of staff working for such companies. Cameron (2001) has noted that chefs in particular are frustrated that strong brands, such as the Intercontinental Hotel Group, are preventing them from realising their own individual tastes or aspirations (as professionals).

Might it be possible that some members of staff enjoy working to a high degree of standardisation? One can easily imagine the sense of safety or security that would come from abiding by a set of rules: doing so evidently reduces the risk of creating conflict with other employees and seniors, of incurring damages to one’s professional reputation and earnings, and, of course, losing one’s job (Buckman, 2014). Granted, standardisation may prevent staff from excelling in ways in which they deem fit: yet at the same time, it is arguably important to have a strong model to adhere to as a platform from which one may excel.

Standardisation need not be purely prescriptive, but can incorporate principles which grant agency (the originators of purposeful deliberate action) to workers: for example, a company might train its staff to follow a method of problem-solving (Torres and Kline, 2013), in which they rely on the company’s usual procedures but use their own initiative with regard to when and how to use such procedures (Milliken et al., 2003). These are potentially positive aspects of globalisation, which this study wishes to explore.

The identity that the hospitality sector’s employees have changed from being synonymous with localised company units, to the global company, is being extended without geographical or national limitations. On cruise ships the diverse ethnicity of the staff is part of the general experience of working in this sector, but at the same time, for managers and companies it is a challenge to deal with such diverse aggregations of workers, which also brings individuals with different work attitudes (Grosbois, 2016). Therefore, it can mean that for the staff, working

conditions are not as important as socialisation, in terms of what they want to get out of their job. Employers will also have to recognise how occupations from different backgrounds and adopted organisational cultures influence each other to maintain efficiency and effectiveness (Lee-Ross, 2008). With globalisation, the occupational understanding of hospitality work would require new worker behaviours and attitudes in the twenty-first century. This poses the following question: Is there a need for a collective identity and mutually held considerations between employees in the same place of work?

Sociological studies (Ehn, 1981; Fine, 1996; Ostreng, 2001) of organisations and workplaces have agreed that for an institution to operate competently, workers need to feel that they belong to that institution and have a say in its issues (Ostreng, 2001). Shared understandings can moderate hostility and stereotypes among individuals of different nationalities in one place of work. Ehn (1981) has shown through his work on multicultural manufacturing works in Sweden that a shared work situation minimised boundaries and tension among employees across cultural, national, and ethnic differences. As other academics, such as Fine (1996), have previously stated, bonds can develop among staff despite their diversity. In Fine's (1996) analysis of the diversity of kitchen workers, there are many different ethnic and personal backgrounds of employees, as can be found in restaurants in cosmopolitan cities such as London. However, this integrated social atmosphere does not appear to be present among sailors on ships, according to Ostreng's (2001) research.

Studies of the ship as a multi-ethnic place of work conceive of a segregated social atmosphere, with almost no social interaction and contact between sailors from diverse cultural, national, and ethnic groups. Even though these employees are working in the same determined social system, the interethnic relations are minimum. Their workday interactions are prompted by commands and orders, but during their break they eat separately and they do not share the same social interests during their days off. Other academics (Spencer-Rodgers and McGovern, 2002; Tran and Vu, 2018) have also highlighted problems of inter-group hostility and communication. Relatively, this can be a result of variances in the way they understand their work identities. Adapting this theory to the topic of this thesis, it might also be that waiters with different occupational identities could be considered as both a consequence and a determinant of the segregated working atmosphere between British and foreign waiters. Their different understandings of work might lead to tensions and inter-group stereotypes.

2.6. SUMMARY

In this chapter, the explanation is provided for the definition of occupational identity as being the key in controlling staff perception. This perception can be affected by different factors (Schmidt, 1995). Occupational identity can be summarised. Firstly, by stating that occupational identity is a complex concept (Bodenhausen and Peery, 2009). It has been diversely used and defined reciprocally with interrelated theories in different areas. Secondly, occupational identity can be impacted by different influences, both outside and inside organisations. Overlying factors have been uncovered in diverse research sectors (for example, cruise ships and theme parks), demonstrating that significant fundamental considerations are converging. Similarly, the consequences of occupational identity, although separate, can be limited to the result of the issue of this study. Practically all consequences stated in past studies are positive, or at least neutral. Nevertheless, there has not been clear understanding of the procedures causing these relationships.

The review of literature in this session has concentrated on waiting as an occupation. This may seem to be a rather theoretical discussion of little significance to daily practice, however, the question is important to determine the waiter's place in society and the waiter's identity. Assuming that waiting is a low-status occupation, could negatively impact workers' performance, and represents a rejection that waiting is in its core an occupation. Rejecting waiting as an occupation is an indication of the denial of its moral identity or of recognising the obligation of public service and public interest. This, sequentially, would downgrade professional waiters to amoral social engineers, ready to dedicate their capability to any job they are asked to perform, whatever the consequences and regardless of the outcome. This is something that should not be allowed to happen. In the next section, the thesis continues by presenting the conceptual model of the study and a description based on the research hypotheses. The hypotheses will be elaborated upon, with supporting theories. The relationships between the construct of occupational identity, the factors that influence occupational identity, and its consequences will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The research literature for this study has been developed by the formation of a theoretical model that defines the relationship between the construct of occupational identity, the factors that influence occupational identity and its consequences. Eleven main constructs are examined in this study: employer branding, self-concept, interaction, interference, authenticity, inter-group, stereotype, salience, occupational identity, work engagement, and employee turnover.

The structure of this chapter is as follows: Section 3.2 is an evaluation of the relationships between occupational identity, its antecedents, and the influence of occupational identity (waiters' performance). In section 3.3 hypotheses will be proposed after the analysis of each relationship of the antecedent constructs of the framework with occupational identity. In section 3.4 hypotheses for the construct of the consequences of occupational identity will be discussed. In section 3.5 a summary of the chapter will be presented.

3.2. STUDY FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES' DEVELOPMENT

The constructs are indicators of the sense of occupational identity of waiters, and represent the more implicit theories from which occupational identity seems to be composed. Consequently, it is essential to identify how these ideas relate to each other. These constructs have been studied individually and in different orders in several works (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Lee and Koo et al., 2015). However, this research differs from previous studies, in that it constructs a conceptual framework from the waiter's occupational identity perspective. It endeavours to explain the different relationships between the variables and the situation of several forces influencing employee perceptions, and consequently to theoretically explain the ambiguities that exist in the studies on occupational identity. The following section presents the research theoretical framework purposes and the different hypotheses that will be further tested and investigated.

This study presents specified research of theoretical viewpoints across the individual, group, interactional, and institutional orders (waiter, waiting groups, or restaurant) to identify how waiters come to acquire the structures and concepts that develop their occupational identities.

The development hypothesis shows several relationships between the investigation constructs in the integrative framework presented.

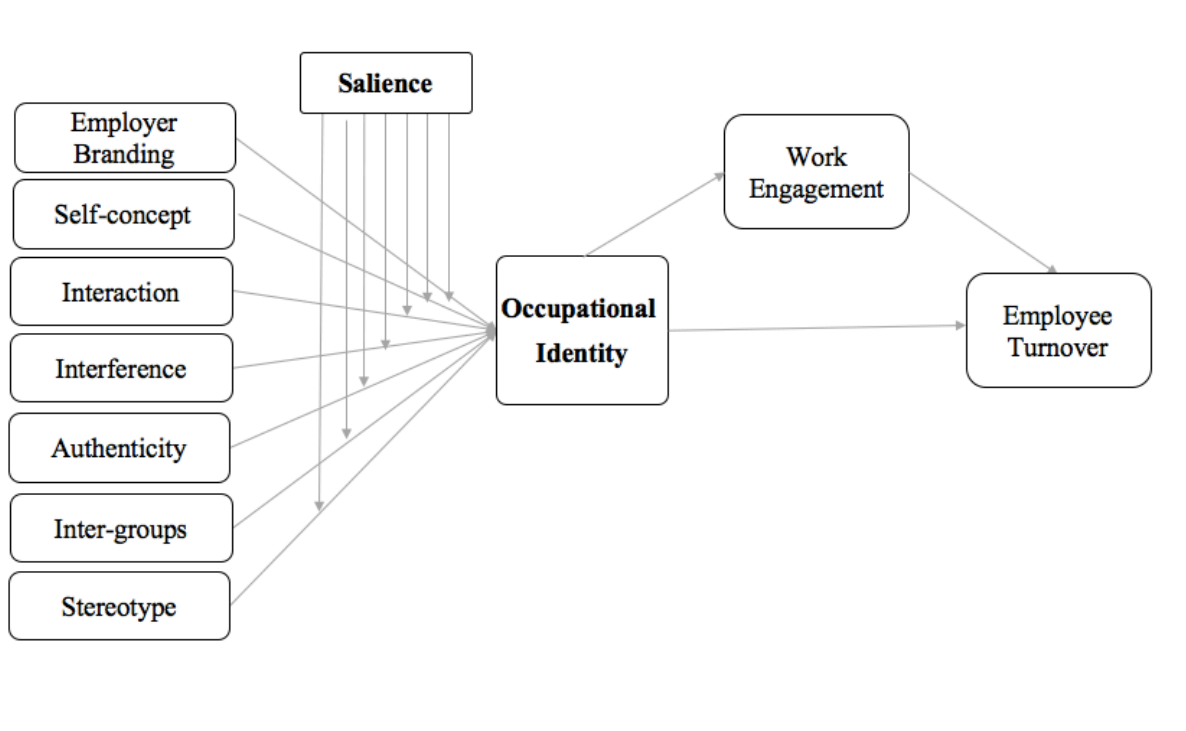
After identifying the research gaps in the literature review, a description of the objectives of this study is provided as well as presenting the research questions. This study has developed a conceptual framework and proposed an occupational identity model by using main constructs from the theories considered in the previous chapter. All occupations are related to an occupational identity, which combines ‘who are we’ and ‘what do we do’? (Ashcraft, 2013; Barley, 1989; Pratt et al., 2006). In addition, the methodologies classically applied in occupational identity, such as interviews (Walford, 2007) and observations (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002), have a number of disadvantages. The complexity of the subject ‘occupational identity’, interactions between people, and restaurant social environment factors, make researchers think about pluralistic research. This is where qualitative methods are used in conjunction with quantitative methods to seek identification of personal perspectives and to gather waiters’ experiences unencumbered by “what we expect to find or what we have read in the literature” (Creswell, 2013, p.48). This is an area that has received comparatively little attention (Nelson and Irwin, 2014).

One potential methodology to achieve this aim was to gauge variables recognised in previous studies as per the literature review; that is, by using a mixed-method methodology. However, this research differs from previous studies in that it constructs a conceptual framework from the waiter’s occupational identity perspective and endeavours to explain the different relationships between the constructs and the situation of several forces influencing employee perceptions. Consequently, it attempts to theoretically explain ambiguities that exist in the studies of occupational identity.

The conceptual model was the start of a mixed-method study with the predominance of quantitative methodology, but complemented and supplemented by the qualitative study. In representing the research framework, qualitative research was more appropriate where it was necessary to clarify which backgrounds support the phenomenon of this study (Carson et al., 2001). Conversely, in quantitative research, many authors (Colman et al., 1995; Foo, 2003; Hagtvedt, 2011; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Henderson et al., 2004) measured experience through a well-validated questionnaire (Ellis et al., 2017; Privette and Bundrick, 1987), therefore employing qualitative research in the operationalisation of the paradigm to gain and

explore understandings into the studied phenomenon (Zikmund, 2003). This was very helpful for the researcher to understand the subjective aspect of the staffing knowledge. Future study could then be planned to empirically test the study model in diverse situations. To conduct this research, the research model and identification of the main constructs, were considered (Figure 3.1). Based on the literature review, a series of antecedents were hypothesised to be associated with occupational identity, and occupational identity was hypothesised to be associated with employee turnover.

Figure 3.1: The initial proposed conceptual framework developed from the literature review.



Source: Developed by the researcher

3.3. ANTECEDENTS TO OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY

The antecedents to occupational identity are those factors that weaken, foster, or predict perceived occupational identity throughout work performance. The analysis of this literature review discloses many influences that contribute to the construction of occupational identity. The outcomes indicated that these influences intensely affect occupational identity, in other words, to decrease or increase the likelihood of perceiving an outstanding occupational identity. The development of these factors will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.3.1. Employer branding and occupational identity

The concept of ‘employer branding’ refers to the influence that the company has on others, especially as an employer (Wallace et al., 2014). However, it can be said that ‘employer branding’ is encouraged to have a link with an organisation’s corporate image to describe involvement with the occupational identity of the employee. Aaker’s (1997) brand personality study maintains that people have a wish to show their relationship with others externally, via groups or brands. Brands can have important figurative relations that people may use to describe their ‘who am I’ enquiry to others.

Traditionally, ‘employer branding’ is defined as a “package of functional, economic, and psychological benefits by the employment” (Ambler and Barrow, 1996, p.3). Ashcraft (2007) explains that the concept of employer branding is a broader perception in which the construction of occupational identity is principally included within the essence of the employer. According to Ashcraft (2007), the discussion of the employer branding in which employees’ occupational identities are created, has an impact on potential employees, which enforces an attitude, either non-favourable or favourable, on the employer.

Highhouse et al. (2007) state that some of the organisation theorists support the view that an organisation with a negative external image will lead employees to endure embarrassing and stressful situations. Therefore, negative reputational situations could impact on an organisation’s retention and recruitment activities. This might be solved by an improvement of the organisation’s corporate reputation (Miscenko and Day, 2016; Van Riel and Fomburn, 2007). This suggests that employees prefer to form a lucid, distinct, and consistent occupational identity through which they can relate to their employer. Fomburn et al. (2007) state that employees desire to be linked with a positive external brand reputation to achieve positive consideration from others. This line of thinking indicates that, in a positive external employer branding, personnel feel encouraged to be aligned with the organisation’s values; the identity of the organisation as an employer becomes fundamental and motivates employees to form a positive occupational identity. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1: There is a positive relationship between employer branding and occupational identity.

3.3.2. Self-concept and occupational identity

In concepts of occupational identity development, it is frequently supposed that a career aspiration is a representation of individuality or self-concept. This thought is established in previous studies (Holland, 1973; Wikkerink, 2016) which suggest that career choice is an enlargement of self-concept, and that individuals develop themselves and their interpretations of work in their occupations. Super (1951) stated that: “in choosing an occupation one is, in effect, choosing a means of implementing a self-concept” (p.92).

Super (1957) further explains occupational development as “an orderly and patterned process, ongoing, continuous, generally irreversible and dynamic, involving interaction of the behavioural repertoire, vocational developmental task, and other factors” (p.45) in other words, it could be argued that this academic understands occupational identity as being a key concept in one’s lifespan and career development. Noting the ‘exploratory, behaviour’ feature of occupational development, Jordaan (1963) specifies that “Super’s formulation is more concerned with the outcomes of exploration and with what he calls facilitating attitudes and attributes, than with the process or dynamics of exploration” (Jordaan, 1963, p.51; McHugh, 2017). This selection of emphasis, when combined with the dominant individuals that supporters (Holland, 1973; McHugh, 2017; Wikkerink, 2016) of the occupational/self-concept selected theory have considered, intensifies the query regarding generalisability formulated earlier.

A review of the literature suggests that numerous analyses contribute to confirming Super’s concept (Blocher and Schutz, 1961; Englander, 1960; Kibrick and Tiedman, 1961; McHugh, 2017; Oppenheimer, 1966; Pallone and Hosinki, 1967). It is noteworthy to state that the analyses include individuals with a stated occupational intention, such as nurses and teachers as well as other significant professions. As Osipow (1968) indicates “such groups may be more concerned with implementing self-concepts than might a group of railroad engineers, mechanics, salesmen or assembly line workers” (p.142). Osipow’s (1968) opinion proposes the issue of level of occupation chosen, which both Super (1957) and Holland (1973) ignore. Holland (1973) seems to disregard status hierarchy altogether. Super (1957) however, appears to understand work principally as a process, or as an impartial entity that one utilises to implement the self.

There is a significant area of research which focuses on the importance that the level of occupational aspiration has in profession selections relating to expected/ideal self and occupational stereotypes. In their research of the relationship between career salience self-esteem and the selection of the perfect occupation, Greenhaus and Simon (1976) and Riley et al. (2002) state the possibility of a 'vicious cycle'. This worrisome comment is the outcome of numerous investigations including those experienced by university students. One of the likely effects of these conclusions is that students with high self-esteem and with a high level of professional prominence will have their impressions of self-worth and competence intensified by their occupations. However, subjects with low career prominence and low self-esteem, who are less likely to select an occupation they find satisfactory, may find themselves in a less satisfactory career condition and have a low level of self-esteem (Greenhaus and Simon, 1976; Srinivasan, et al., 2013).

Burgoyne (1979), selecting a group of 88 female and 97 male high school students, researched the hypothesis that relationship of occupational identity and ideal self are significant in defining the occupational preferences of students, while relationships between occupational identities and expected self are significant in defining their occupational expectations. The research concluded that the ideal self is fundamental in deciding vocational preferences for both females and males. However, the perfect self is more strongly related than the expected self to occupational expectancies for females, but not for males (Loncaric, 1991). Burgoyne (1979) stated that "Holland's and Super's vocational choice theories require some redefinition to take account of the notion that in making career choices people have several self-concepts available to them" (p.142).

Walsh and Taylor (1982) and Nurullah (2010) further researched this notion of several self-concepts. They researched occupational indicators and factors of self-concept through several different occupations covering the status hierarchy. Amongst Walsh and Taylor's (1982) more notable outcomes is the claim that "when self-concept is conceptualised as a multidimensional variable, the diversity of findings on different dimensions, cautions against glib generalisations regarding the prestige/esteem relationship" (p.265). It is also argued that "workers whose jobs do not offer intrinsic challenges which would encourage satisfaction or a sense of accomplishment, frequently find support from other dimensions of their work or from off-the-job investments of self" (Walsh and Taylor, 1982, p.265). In summary, one way of

understanding the self is through occupation. The direction of this relationship will help to construct and understand occupational identity. Thus, the following suggestion is articulated:

H2: There is a positive relationship between self-concept and occupational identity

3.3.3. Interaction and occupational identity

Interaction in the workplace is the procedure by which an employee learns to implement, develop and demonstrate the role and actions and behaviours typical of and unique to an occupation (Fung, 2017; Isbell, 2008). In order to explore the antecedents that impact the occupational identity development of waiters, the purposes of this section are to analyse the interpersonal interactions and activities that help construct occupational identity. Multiple factors of occupational identity are dialectically interconnected, for example occupational knowledge and acquired years of education and training form employees' tasks and work roles and permit them to profitably perform at work. This profitable performance involves employees in establishing their occupational skills within explicit work environments through interaction with other employees and customers (Darr and Scarselletta, 2002; Popova-Nowak, 2010).

From the occupational perception, 'being a waiter' is more than just a list of skills and business activities; it means that it is a part of the procedure of 'interaction' (Mannan et al., 2017; Nasrabadi et al., 2003) which includes development and internalisation of occupational identity. It can certainly be related to having some experience that occurs during interaction. Developing as a waiter is a sense of being, including individual internalisation and commitment of principles during the procedure of professional interaction. Occupational identity involves the method in which a person understands him/herself as a waiter, who can complete waiting responsibly and function skilfully (Wolf, 2007). From Wolf's (2007) viewpoint, professional interaction is the procedure of gaining skills and essential knowledge to reach an occupational role with professional and valued rules. This arises through professional education (Beck, 2009) and the experience in the work atmosphere (Nesler et al., 2001; Rohatinsky et al., 2017). Clearly, professional interaction is essential in involving waiters in professional practices (Chitty and Black, 2011). Therefore, the argument here is that the positive interactions with diverse peers will be a key factor in influencing a positive change in the perception of the experience, the value perceived, and the feelings; this will show in the waiter's identity development.

H3: There is a positive relationship between interaction and occupational identity

3.3.4. Interference and occupational identity

Holding multiple identities can offer chances for “social interaction, economic mobility, and the accumulation of skills and abilities”; combining identities is not without its difficulties (Settles, 2004, p.487). When two or more identities are perceived to be in conflict, identity interference can occur (Hirsh and Kang, 2016; Van Sell et al., 1981). An obvious example of this process can be witnessed in the workplace, as new parents attempt to grapple with the often-conflicting roles of mother/father and employee (Settles, 2004).

The interference between the multiple identities principle is linked to the point that any identity is not held in isolation; in fact, each identity is one of many possessed identities that must be included in an individual’s whole self-conception. Studies on the relationship of multiple identities usually propose that people desire to maintain harmony among their several identities (Amiot et al., 2007; Roccas and Brewer, 2002). Adults have many different roles in life, such as that of parent, worker, friend or son. Retaining all the multiple identities can benefit individuals by giving them different opportunities to develop skills, socialise, or even increase their economic status (Settle, 2004). The main aspect of this study will help to understand and extend the knowledge of occupational identity construction. Although different alternatives are available to individuals through multiple identities, sometimes these identities are difficult to combine and often there are confrontations or interference among them (Ramarajan, 2014). This may lead to the concept that identity interference relates to some negative physical and psychological results (O’Driscoll et al., 1992; Olawale et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, the level of interference varies depending on the heterogeneous multiple identities of the individual or the other factors connected with these identities. This helps to understand some negativity or wellbeing in individuals (Brook et al., 2008). For this thesis, it is vital to understand if the centrality of two identities (waiter’s occupational identity and man/woman identity) will mediate the stressful relationship between them (interference between men/women and waiter). Even though previous studies (Bowman and Felix, 2017; Perkins, 2018; Settles, 2004) identified identity centrality as a mediator of the relationship between single identity wellbeing and stress, contrary outcomes have been found (Settles, 2004) and it is expected that waiter’s occupational identity centrality and man/woman identity centrality will protect wellbeing from identity interference for different causes. Being a waiter can be

considered a stigmatised identity and stress can be expected. While no study has researched the centrality of two identities (woman/man and waiter's occupational), earlier outcomes and developed concepts propose that it is multiple identities as man-waiter's occupational identity or woman-waitress's occupational identity, which made a stereotyped group with a potential stress that identity centrality would be anticipated as protection between wellbeing and negative identity connected to actions (Settles, 2004). For the waiting group, having central identities - as men and women and as waiters and waitresses - can provide them with a large variety of coping strategies (Sellers et al., 1998) to better prepare them for dealing with negative-identity-connected actions. This emphasis leads to the following hypothesis:

H4: There is a positive relationship between interference and occupational identity

3.3.5. Authenticity and occupational identity

Authenticity can be defined as “owning one’s personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to know oneself” and “behaving in accordance with the true self” (Datta, 2015; Harter, 2002, p.382). One of the previous studies (Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014) that has investigated the effect of authenticity in the workplace established that the greater the individual’s feelings of authenticity are, the greater their self-reported performance, job satisfaction, occupational identity and engagement. The essential point is achieving a balance that can be true to employees’ selves while finding success and flourishing within the company.

In contradiction, the lack of initiative in generating authenticity within a company, extensive literature has analysed the productivity and emotional costs of inauthenticity for subjects, work groups and companies (Roberts, 2005). For example, Hochschild’s (1983) research of emotional labour explains the pressure that flight attendants feel to mask negative feelings in authentically meeting customer expectations. Other research focuses on the strong pressure people often experience in groups of all types, to agree with the expectations and views they consider are held by the majority (Hackman, 1992; Liang, 2017). Consequently, people often become self-censored, by withholding their opinions and ideas because they see that others in their environment hold less controversial or different opinions (Van Dyne et al., 2003). In these situations, authenticity is restricted because internal feelings do not match the external behaviour. Furthermore, when company members withhold their values, divergent ideas, and beliefs, it may reduce innovation, creativity and group learning (Milliken et al., 2003).

Inauthenticity can also lead to psychological pressure on company members. Individuals who believe that they have to act inauthentically (e.g. values, suppressing ideas, or behavioural preferences) to correspond to social demands may suffer feelings of distress or identity conflict (Settles, 2006). Identity conflict is particularly likely to happen when the identities being negotiated are significant to the subject (Settles, 2004). Occupational identity to diminish identity conflict involves cognitive sources (Fried et al., 1998) that may then be addressed toward work-related responsibilities.

As was mentioned above, these investigations indicate that inauthenticity is expensive for organisations and individuals to develop their occupational identity (Lombard et al., 2012). Conversely, studies that support the advantage of authenticity in companies are limited (Buckman, 2014). However, research on the benefit of authenticity is important for both practical and conceptual reasons. An increasing interest among investigators in constructive organisational scholarship motivates scholars to emphasise generative potential and dynamics rather than dysfunction and deficits within organisations to distinguish paths towards creating great organisations (Cameron, 2001). Following these views, considerable learning can be gained about the opportunities for organisational well-being and growth and an individual's occupational identity construction by emphasising authenticity rather than inauthenticity. Firstly, understanding how to develop authenticity in an individuals's occupational identity can help organisations and employees to prevent the organisational expenditures of inauthenticity. Secondly, in the age of the self-guided, non-linear career, many adults are looking to intensify their experiences of authenticity at work (Sullivan and Mainiero, 2007). Investigations into authenticity within companies can encourage career gratification by helping employees and their leaderships to intensify the connection between external expressions and internal experiences (Rossetti, 2015). Thus, as the effects of these earlier specified studies presented, the following can be anticipated:

H5: There is a positive relationship between authenticity and occupational identity

3.3.6. Inter-group and occupational identity

Social scholars suggested inter-group theory to comprehend how inter-group conflicts and adverse inter-group attitudes might be relieved (Allport, 1954; Gaertner and Dovidio, 2014).

Inter-group is defined as face-to-face communication between individuals of visibly defined groups (Pettigrew and Tropp, 2008; 2013). Inter-group theory suggests it is fundamental that definite inter-group contact, and consequently also presenting contact opportunities between individuals of diverse groups, may stimulate more favourable inter-group attitudes (Schlueter and Scheepers, 2010). Initial studies (Allport, 1954, Pettigrew, 2008) theorised inter-group to apply its beneficial impact on conflicts of inter-group relationships only under best circumstances, such as equal status, common goals, inter-group cooperation and authority support. Furthermore, scholars (MacInnis and Page-Gould, 2015; Pettigrew and Tropp, 2008; 2013; Stein et al., 2000) following these theories generally coincide that even in the lack of supportive situations, inter-group interaction normally develops inter-group attitudes. One of the previous research studies (Haslam, 2004) indicates that individual workers may increase their motivational effort if they are sharing responsibilities for their common group rather than just undertaking tasks for themselves. Additionally, because of the affinity to create groups in the place of work, managers can select rival companies to utilise as an assessment in order to fix standards for their own employees (Hogg et al., 2017). Competitors are considered to be an out-group that ‘threatens the group’s reputation’ and encourages the in-group to be more competitive (Terry and Hogg, 2001).

People identify more with analogous individuals (in-group) than with those who are less analogous (out-group) (Jones and Dovidio, 2018). Due to aspects like negative stereotyping or in-group favouritism, minorities are frequently excluded from decision-making activities and group membership. Consequently, this cuts the opportunities for occupational progress and results in a perception of inequitable treatment, leading to a negative labour atmosphere for everyone (Yu and Lee, 2018). Management personnel have to offer a better labour environment for all employees by ensuring that minority groups are integrated into the decision-making process and functional groups (Chow and Crawford, 2004).

Minority group members discriminate in favour of their in-group to impregnate it with a positive distinctiveness (Abrams and Hogg, 1999; Zolfagharian et al., 2017). It could be argued therefore that the incentive behind this approach is considered to be the desire to maintain, achieve or enhance a positive occupational identity. It is expected that, by creating positive distinctiveness for the in-group as a whole, the in-group members are creating a positive occupational identity for themselves, and, thus, positive self-esteem. One informal effect has been derived from the description of this statement, and this is taken to represent the inter-group

hypothesis:

H6: There is a positive relationship between inter-group and occupational identity

3.3.7. Stereotype and occupational identity

There is not a concept of stereotypes that is universally recognised; scholars in the area of stereotypes have, conversely, established that stereotypes do involve conservative characteristics such as ascribing features to diverse social groups (Lee et al., 2013). Additionally, there exists not only one, but many causes that can influence the creation of stereotypes. For instance, the social environment in which one interrelates can impact on the construction of stereotypes, including forces such as media, family members, parents, peer groups and schools (Bar-Tal, 1996). There are several epistemological and ontological views following stereotyping (Brink and Nel, 2015), which emphasise the significance of this work and is the intention for using stereotype as one of the antecedents of occupational identity in the framework for this study.

The lack of stereotype threat indicates that people do not perceive any aspect of a circumstance as negative and do not act or react, in this thesis content, would be in relation with their occupation (Redmond, 2012). It is significant to clarify that in the stereotype concept a threat is not always within the occupational group. Consequently, an occupational group or an individual's occupational identity does not see the sense or need for rivalry or being negative in a situation (Redmond, 2012). Without a threat, people are not encouraged to defend their means. Instead they are encouraged to participate in common behaviours like acquiring beliefs that are more precise to their occupational identities group and participation in more effective decision-making behaviour (Redmond, 2012). These compartments can be defined as group affirmation and self-affirmation (Derks et al., 2009). Group affirmation is where the emphasis is on the group identity. Self-affirmation is when people focus on their occupational identities rather than the group identity (Topor, 2018). Subjects from Western cultures tend to have more self-affirmative occupational identities because, generally, Western cultures are more distinctive. Western cultures tend to focus on individual occupational identities rather than social identities (Redmond, 2012).

Nguyen and Ryan (2003) and Walton and Cohen (2003) have determined that individuals focus on developing their occupational identity and feeling a lack of threat make less stereotypical judgments and have less influenced behaviours. The concept of precision in the lack-of-threat

identity group is also maintained by the idea of stereotype lift, which is when people work better when they are reminded of a positive stereotype concerning their identity group relationship (Wraga et al., 2006). When the work threat does not exist because the individual knows about stereotypical capabilities, they work to a higher standard than when the stereotype is absent. This could be a stereotype of white waiters giving a superior service compared to others.

H7: There is a positive relationship between stereotype and occupational identity

3.3.8. Salience as a moderator of the relationship between occupational identity and its antecedents

This study proposes salience as a moderator of the relationship between occupational identity and its antecedents. Salience has usually been considered as a proprietor of a stimulus that permits it to be distinguished and noted. By highlighting its fundamental nature of prominence, Fiske and Taylor (1991) define salience as “the extent to which particular stimuli stand out relative to others in their environment” (Fiske and Taylor, 1991, p.246); The dichotic theory of salience by Guido (1995; 1996; Shepherd and Williams, 2018; Veer et al., 2010) establishes that a stimulus is in-salient when it is incongruent in a particular environment to a perceiver’s goal; or it is re-salient when it is congruent in a particular environment to a perceiver’s goal. Salience may categorise the causes of antecedents according to the environment in which a stimulus takes place. This research claims that antecedents will have an effect on occupational identity and that they could or could not influence its construction, depending on the intensity (high or low) of the salience of the specific constructs. The following section explains the salience of antecedents as a moderator of occupational identity.

Employer branding - The conditions that make a business attractive are more than perceptible characteristics, such as benefits and money. It is of the greatest significance that similarity occurs between an organisation and an employee (Kruzler, 2015). Workers are attracted to organisations with characters they recognise as analogous to their own model and actual self-concepts (Miscenko and Day, 2016; Nolan and Harold, 2010). An organisation’s strategic and vision approaches are essential engagement drivers, which direct to an organisation’s success and attractiveness in the fluctuating marketplace. Organisations have to examine the reason why workers are attracted to working for the company and how these organisations can discover, unearth and tap into employees’ unrestricted effort and commitment, to assure the competitive advantage, which directs to business accomplishments. Moreover, brands generate

expectations, beliefs and loyalty and are built upon corporate culture and business strategy; Wilden et al. (2010) underline the significance of the alignment and interrelationship between the marketing function and human resource management concerning the influence of each other's action on the branding objectives, as well as highlighting an understanding of the employer branding, which is the established distinction shown in the identity of the potential target group. As a consequence, Wilden et al. (2010) suggest that the effectiveness of a brand signal to its future employees crucially depends on brand investment, an employer branding clarity, credibility of the brand signals and stability of the employer branding.

This indicates that investment in the brand impacts on the attraction to a future employee (Miscenko and Day, 2016; Wallace et al., 2014). In the relationship between employer branding and occupational identity it is important to understand how certain negative or positive occupational identity constructions are influenced by a company's negative or positive employer branding. According to Shaker and Ahmed (2014), people mainly relate their preferred employer with influences such as the balance between employee-organisation, employer attractiveness, and the level of employee identification within the organisation as well as retention, employee engagement and enhanced recruitment (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004; Edwards, 2010; Love and Singh, 2011; Minchington et al., 2007). Therefore, the following hypothesis will be proposed:

H8a: Employer branding is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

Self-concept - Beheshtifar and Rahimi-Nezhad (2012) understand self-concept as a cause of stimulated behaviour. People's organisational experience and work establish a significant area of people's lives. It partly responds to the question of 'who we are' and thus constitutes a necessary part of people's whole self-concept, varying on the implication of work to the entire 'self'. This sub-field self-concept is established around individuals' organisational experiences and work as workplace self-concept (Huang et al., 2001). Furthermore, self-concept is an individual's way of recognition and may be either negative or positive. Part of self-concept is how an individual believes others perceive one's self. Whether an individual forms a negative or positive self-concept, depends on how this person is regarded and interacts with others. The behaviour will be assessed on the source of the individual's background (Beheshtifar and Rahimi-Nezhad, 2012), for instance, parents, religious leaders, colleagues and other members of the society; if the responses of such others are positive the individual is liable to be accepted.

Conversely, negative self-concept can restrict what one is prepared to attempt and can prevent occasions for enjoyment and growth, as well as provoking depression, anxiety, hopelessness, suicide, frustration, etc. (Modupe, 2010). According to these results, managers should support and develop the positive self-concept of the workers.

Research has shown that self-concept beliefs and outcome expectations are important precedents between an individual's learning experience and their occupational identity construction (Byars-Winston et al., 2010). Moreover, Greenhaus and Simon (1976) maintains that subjects with high self-concept are less susceptible to social pressure in occupational choice and that students' levels of profession prominence are positively related to the selection of the right occupation (Greenhaus and Simon, 1976; Loy, 2017; Srinivasan et al., 2013). One of the possible outcomes of this relationship is that high self-concept employees will have their feeling of self-worth (Cherian and Jacob, 2013) and competence enhanced by their occupational identity.

H8b: Self-concept is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

Interaction - Professional interaction is defined as a reciprocal or mutual action or exchange (Frone, 2018). To interact is to function together towards others or with others. Interactions are a main element of professionalism (Ward et al., 2012). The workplace establishes the day-to-day interface between managers and employees. These relationships are a real part of the work situation and are generally creative and pleasant, but sometimes the cause of frustration and tension (Obakpolo, 2015). On the other hand, companies can comprise of a group of employees with analogous aims, objectives, goals and understandings, and who supportively joined together to succeed in what people cannot accomplish separately under an efficient managing mechanism (Vaikousis, 2018). Conversely, in any company that is goal-oriented, employees' supportive strengths together with their balanced interpersonal relationships tend to impact on the complete work-group act. The need for interpersonal relationships at work consequently cannot be overstated. Interpersonal relationships can affect companies' results by raising institutional participation, institute innovative climates and supportive growing organisational productivity, and incidentally reducing the intent to employee turnover (Berman et al., 2002; Crabtree, 2004; Song and Olshfski, 2008).

Professional interaction is the main period within which employees begin to construct occupational identity within their profession as they incorporate the values, norms, attitudes and behaviours of their job (Creary et al., 2015). From an occupational identification perspective, academics have stated that employees are often subjected to an intense interaction period in their occupational groups, with the achievement of increasing their occupational identification with the profession (Caza and Creary 2016; Frone, 2018; Watts, 1987). Therefore, the following hypothesis will be proposed:

H8c: Interaction is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

Interference - Identity conflict or interference ensues when people have a complexity of meeting or enacting the expectancy of two identities and is related to lower psychological happiness (Shepherd and Williams, 2018). Conversely, when identities complement each other - that is, performing of one identity makes performing of the other identity easier, identity accord arises and is related to higher psychological happiness (Brook et al., 2008). Additionally, as with single identities, the significance of identities has been found to protect the rapport between identity interference and happiness. When people incorporate their identities, they understand better (Sacharin et al., 2009), that is, they can more clearly shift between the identities. But, when identities are cognitively separate, people experience a greater shift change of moving between identities, making such switches more difficult.

Interference to an individual's multiple identities is inevitable, and if a conflict occurs among these various identities very often, of which occupational identity is just one, it will become discomfoting (Ashforth et al., 2014). Studies (Dutton et al., 2010; Karanika-Murray et al, 2015; Shepherd and Williams, 2018) have focused on the positive impact of identity for professionals from an organisational and individual perspective rather than the negative impact of identity interference. On the other hand, other studies have proposed that identity interference can be distressing as people strive to resolve their conflicted selves. This can give rise to a sense of isolation and stress (Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010). Therefore, the following hypothesis will be proposed:

H8d: Interference is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

Authenticity - Kernis and Goldman (2006, p.294) state that authenticity is “the unobstructed operation of one’s true- or core-self in one’s daily enterprise” and maintain that it should encompass four factors: awareness, unbiased relational and processing orientation. Awareness signifies being aware and knowing of all parts of the traits, strengths, self-emotions, motives, desires, weaknesses, etc., and not just acknowledging the parts of the self which support one’s predominant self-concept (Kernis and Goldman, 2006). For example, being truthful with oneself and acknowledging parts of the self that might contradict and conflict with each other. Awareness is needed to learn more about oneself in order to improve self-knowledge. Unbiased processing means to neutrally assess any self-important evidence, whatever the foundation, be it external or internal.

This independence links to a precise implication of the self, due to the lack of biases, distortions or defence mechanisms. The actions element of authenticity means behaving based on one’s internal needs, values, and preferences and not as a concern of external goals (Liang, 2017; Mengers, 2014). This characteristic of authenticity can be understood as the manifestation of autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2000) and might be what most individuals reflect when they demand someone to ‘be yourself’. Conversely, it is understandable that in order to represent this aspect of authenticity, one must have the first two elements of unbiased and awareness managing firmly recognised. The last aspect of authenticity is relational orientation or showing one’s genuine self in close relationships. This depends on effective openness and self-disclosure by transferring both the bad and good sides of oneself to close others. Again, this visibly relates to the meaning of being oneself but is also reliant on a person’s ability and awareness to assess knowledge about oneself (Mengers, 2014).

Walls (2007) states that it is the capability to ‘be yourself’ in work that should be an essential factor of organisations’ output; this can create a confrontation between company managers and employees since they are subjected to company policy, budgets and standards (Mengers, 2014). However, the study shows that within hotel departments, particularly in kitchens, conflicts often occur between employees and the organisations, namely because hoteliers wish to maintain control over all operations, which can impose many limitations on developing employees’ occupational identity (Cameron, 2001; Liang, 2017). Therefore, the following hypothesis will be proposed:

H8e: Authenticity is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

Inter-groups - According to Weatherall et al. (2007), inter-group is the degree of control that one group has over its own outcome and that of out-groups. Following Zanna and Olson (1994) group status is described as the balance position of groups on evaluated magnitudes of comparison such as occupational status, educational achievement or speech styles (Arli and Pekerli, 2017). Finally, Smith et al. (2001) explained minorities and majorities precisely in terms of the relationship with numerical alignments of group members within their specific background. This explanation is more specific than that found in many sociological reports (Hewstone et al., 2008), because the latter often believe that minorities are generally subordinate low-status groups whereas majorities are leading high-status groups.

Broadly, the way the society sees a particular occupational group has an effect on how its members view the identity given by their occupation, negatively or positively (Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011). In order to understand a particular occupational identity, it is important to understand how society views such a group. Tajfel and Turner (1979) argue that once people have obtained a membership within a particular group, they then intend to proactively improve their self-concept through efficient efforts to enhance their in-group overall performance, as opposed to comparable out-groups (Haslam, 2004). Therefore, the following hypothesis will be proposed:

H8f: Inter-groups are re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

Stereotype - A stereotype can be stated as a simplified idea about the features of a group, and stereotyping symbolises the procedure of ascribing these features to people only because of their relationship in the group (Kurylo, 2013). Whereas prejudice implicates a global evaluative reply to a group and its members (Durrheim et al, 2016), stereotyping involves a much more descriptive, specific analysis. Stereotypes need not be explicitly negative, and many usual stereotypes have positive implications (Czopp et al., 2015). However, the stereotypes of other groups are seldom consistently positive, and any positive attributes associated with a group are likely to be complemented by more threatening associations (Cuddy et al., 2005). Cuddy et al. (2005) establish that groups stereotyped as capable, tend to also be considered as cold; alternatively, groups stereotyped as likable and warm, are often also considered as being incapable.

Stereotype can lead to an improvement in an individual's occupational identity performance when it makes them stand out from those who have not been affected by the stereotype (Dumas and Dunbar, 2014). Another form in which people improve performance is when a stereotype threat is deliberately provoked, and the stereotyped people in the current environment are in the minority (Hoyt et al., 2010; Kray et al., 2001; Topor, 2018). In these circumstances, people respond with 'stereotype reactance', where employees work harder to demonstrate the opposite (Bargh et al., 1996; Logel et al., 2009).

H8g: Stereotype is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity

3.4. CONSEQUENCES OF OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY

Fundamentally an outstanding occupational identity will have an influence on work engagement and turnover. The following section will illustrate the construct of occupational identity as a major outcome of waiters' experience in the restaurants. In addition to this, the perceived occupational identity will be illustrated as a contributing factor to both work engagement and turnover.

3.4.1. Occupational identity and work engagement

Work engagement is related to extra resources, providing one with sufficient energy to perform the job well (Zeijen et al., 2018). Work engagement has become a prevalent concept both in academic and business studies due to its connection with several positive organisational results; for instance, improved employee performance (Christensen et al., 2016), organisational commitment (Hakanen, et al., 2008), and well-being (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Conversely, although work engagement has been described as a positive psychological state involving dedication, vigour and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), scholars have noticed one possible disadvantage to engagement. Halbesleben et al. (2009) question whether workforces may become so engaged in their job that this negatively impacts other involvement in their lives, such as their work-home stability. Other scholars (Culbertson et al., 2012; Siu et al., 2010) have maintained that exceedingly engaged workforces, who generally have a positive attitude and have a better approach to work sources, are more likely to feel a positive work-home stability through improved work-home facilitation. Rodriguez-Munoz et al. (2014) claim that there should be more exploration on this theme in order to "better understand how work engagement relates to experiences lived outside the work domain" (p.279).

As previous research (Zeijen et al., 2018; Zigarmi et al., 2009) indicates, both occupational identity and work engagement are complex multidimensional phenomena and have been related to concepts such as job involvement. If, as argued above, occupational identity is described as the well-defined understanding of occupational values, interests, goals and abilities and the structure of the meanings that relate this self-understanding to career roles (Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010; Vondracek, 1992), then this definition could be extended into the workplace through the concept of work engagement. Work engagement is the procedure of making the effort oneself in work responsibilities that generate a fulfilling and positive work-related state of mind typified by dedication, vigour and concentration on work (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Founded on this definition, this research suggests that it is through work engagement that people situate and contextualise their occupational abilities and articulate and negotiate their occupational identities. Another suggestion is that occupational identity and work engagement are interconnected and are a fundamental part of meaning-making procedures within organisations (Popova Nowak, 2010). From this view, the relationship between work-engagement and occupational identity resembles:

H9: There is a positive relationship between occupational identity and work engagement

3.4.2 Occupational identity and employee turnover

Turnover intention is related to the possibility that a worker resigns at his/her own will from his or her job ahead of time (Rabad and Wafaa, 2017). Previous studies (Michaels and Spector, 1982; Mobley, 1977) have stated that turnover intention is the main rational antecedent of turnover behaviour with significant explicatory influence. After Michaels and Spector (1982) proposed the initial participant determination model on turnover, academics (Michaels and Spector, 1982; Mobley, 1977; Rabad and Wafaa, 2017) created diverse theoretical models about the turnover. A considerable amount of research has investigated the influencing aspects of turnover intention, mainly involving external aspects such as different job opportunities and local level of employment, internal personal aspects like work skill, and the most extensively considered occupation-linked aspects such as work stress, organisational justice, work hours or affective commitment. Diverse patterns of these aspects were always included into the research to study the related influence on turnover intention (Lo et al., 2018). However, this current study is seeking a different aspect from different perspectives; consequently, this study is investigating the effect of the construction of occupational identity on employee turnover.

As a self-concept, occupational identity denotes to the person's perception of the social influence in jobs and the importance of a person's work, performs well and reaches the company objective, and is the psychosomatic base for individuals (Moore and Hofman, 1988). The construction of occupational identity is a dynamic procedure that relates the occupational character to well-defined self-perceptions involving occupational skills, values, interests and aims, and gives orientation and meaning to an individual's career (Hirschi, 2012). Occupational identity has been contemplated to be the influencing aspect of employee turnover (Sabanciogullari and Dogan, 2014). A research conducted in Turkey demonstrated the positive effect of occupational identity on job satisfaction amongst nurses (Celik and Hisar, 2012). Most of the current research of occupational identity concentrates on teachers and health workers (Sabanciogullari and Dogan, 2014; Zhang et al., 2016), therefore this research focuses on waiters working in Michelin-starred restaurants.

Occupational identity includes the extensive use of waiters' skills, knowledge and abilities with specific meaning of the limits of miscellaneous occupations. Consequently, either at personal or field level, occupational identity could enable waiters to show an additional equitable and responsible character, convert the conventional tactic of how waiters are perceived by others and themselves, and expand additional relevant considerations about occupational identity (Friberg and Creasia, 2016; Giddens, 2017). Positive workplace identity is fundamental to improve the operational level and profits for both restaurants and waiters. The construction of occupational identity may influence the establishment of effective work interaction and self-concept, so, occupational identity can contribute to reduce employee turnover (Gault et al., 2017; Harrison and Williams, 2016).

H10: There is a positive relationship between occupational identity and employee turnover

3.4.3. Work engagement and employee turnover

Turnover remains a subject of attention among management researchers (Kasparkova et al., 2018; Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Zeijen et al., 2018). According to Frank (2004), "employee retention and employee engagement are joined at the hip" (p.11). Even though work engagement has been comparatively less examined in the academic arena (Saks, 2006), the empirical indication has demonstrated that a higher level of work engagement decreases employee turnover (Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). The Towers-Perrin work (2003), which focused on employee engagement

and turnover, found that 60% of highly engaged individuals had stated that they had no intention of quitting in comparison with 30% of average engaged employees and 10% of disengaged individuals. Additionally, 2% of highly engaged individuals stated they were hunting for another job in comparison to 8% of average engaged individuals and 23% of disengaged employees (Biswakarma, 2015). Supporting this outcome, Gubman (2004) also stated that disengaged individuals tend to be keener to hunt for another job.

Furthermore, some research has indicated that the perceptions of a strong organisational identity, organisational identification and organisational commitment may affect employees' turnover intention in specific circumstances, depending on their level of responsibility within the workplace (Cole and Bruch, 2006). Several studies (Harter et al., 2002; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004) have demonstrated that work engagement is positively related to the determination to continue to work with one's firm. De Lange et al. (2008) confirmed the hypotheses on the relations between work engagement and actual turnover across time. They observe that low work engagement anticipates an actual move to another firm. Founded on the above analysis of literature, it is suggested that:

H11: There is a positive relationship between work engagement and turnover

3.5. SUMMARY

The current study has strong implications for an organisation by examining the significance of waiters' occupational identity for accomplishing restaurateurs' objectives. This research presents a more inclusive link to studying whether there is a more constructive approach that waiters have towards work engagement and employee turnover. This chapter has evaluated the literature on occupational identity and incorporated insights from diverse areas in order to form the conceptual framework shown in Figure 3.1. Based on the literature, the relation between occupational identity and its antecedents and consequences is considered; related hypotheses are illustrated and summarised in Table 3.1. The hypotheses and the conceptual research framework presents the different relationships between the study constructs in the integral framework presented.

The relative lack of theoretical sources regarding waiters' occupational identity has directed this study to review the literature on dramaturgical, social identity and aesthetic labour theories. The relevant literature on occupational identity, work engagement and employee turnover was

assessed. These sources offered some meaningful guidelines and directions and the literature that was found was conceptual in nature. A study of the literature resulted in the creation of 18 hypotheses, which can be broken down into two broad sets. The next chapter defines the research design that is embraced to test the proposed model.

Table 3.1: List of research hypotheses based on the research questions

Hypotheses	
RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?	
H1	There is a positive relationship between employer branding and occupational identity
H2	There is a positive relationship between self-concept and occupational identity
H3	There is a positive relationship between interaction and occupational identity
H4	There is a positive relationship between interference and occupational identity
H5	There is a positive relationship between authenticity and occupational identity
H6	There is a positive relationship between inter-groups and occupational identity
H7	There is a positive relationship between stereotype and occupational identity
H8a	Employer branding is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8b	Self-concept is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8c	Interaction is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8d	Interference is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8e	Authenticity is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8f	Inter-groups are re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8g	Stereotype is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
RQ2: What are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?	
H9	There is a positive relationship between work engagement and occupational identity
H10	There is a positive relationship between occupational identity and employee turnover
H11	There is a positive relationship between work engagement and employee turnover

Source: Developed by the researcher

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter proposed the hypotheses and conceptual framework. The purpose of this chapter is to justify and elucidate the methodological foundations, research design and strategies of the current work to empirically present the projected conceptual model, and to answer the research questions of this work. Following the introduction, this chapter is structured as follows. Section 4.2 reviews the methodology approach and selection of methods with an explanation of qualitative and quantitative choice of methods. In section 4.3 the research design and the method of data collection are explained. In sections 4.4 and 4.5 qualitative fieldwork and research instruments with scale development are reviewed. The main survey developed to be applied in the data collection procedure and the target population and sampling are justified in sections 4.6 and 4.7. Data analysis techniques are presented in section 4.8. Finally, ethical issues are discussed (section 4.9) with the chapter summarised in section 4.10

4.2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methodology approach is related to the study objectives. This study aims to develop a comprehensive understanding of occupational identity, its antecedents and its impact on work engagement and employee turnover. Those aspects have originated from existing literature and concepts from different aspects of studies within sociology, such as dramaturgical, social identity and aesthetic theories. Therefore, the research topic of this study is developed on what is already in place from prior research and from this knowledge a theoretical framework with new understandings is created as the start for this study (Foroudi, 2012). The framework offers constructs that are considered relevant in discouraging or fostering the experience of waiters in the context of restaurants and may contribute to employee retention. In striving for achieving the research objectives the choice of appropriate research methods must be taken into consideration. It is significant to ground the methodology on the study aim, objectives and research questions. Subsequently, the following sections will justify and illustrate the methodology approach used in this study.

The starting point to plan a research study should be to analyse the knowledge claim of the research contribution (Creswell, 2013). The significance of 'knowledge claim' is when researchers commence a study with specific speculations of how and what they will study

throughout their investigation (Bryman, 2004). These systems are the denominated paradigms (Fraenkel, et al., 2011; Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Mertens, 1998; Padgett, 2016).

Paradigms have been delineated as procedures of interrelated ontological, epistemological and methodological contracts (Carnevale, 2016; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). There are different definitions to explain 'paradigm'. Ontological denotes as to how the form and nature of social aspects are seen by the investigator (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). With regard to epistemology, this is the relation between the phenomenon studied, investigator and the supposition of how individuals approach the knowledge (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The system of the methodology paradigm is applied to learn the reality; it links to queries and processes applied in a work to gather and corroborate practical verification (Creswell, 2013; Foroudi, 2012; Gray, 2014; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Some authors (Fraenkel, et al., 2011; Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Padgett, 2016) maintain these might be understood as research methodologies.

The main epistemological assumptions in social studies are positivism and interpretivism/idealism/phenomenology (named depending on authors but all of them with the same concept) (Aquino and De Castro, 2017; Balmer, 2001; Corbetta, 2003; Deshpande, 1983; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) employ positivist and constructivist while Guba and Lincoln (1994) adopt the terminologies scientific and naturalistic. In Table 4.1, two of the principal categorisations of philosophical assumptions are shown and examined as follows.

Interpretivism indicates that the researcher endeavours to analyse the social world from the perspective of individuals, whilst understanding the meanings that they assign to social situations and that provoke their actions (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The interpretivist method is related to create inductive hypotheses, analysing phenomena of personal experiences, to expand an interpretation of the world (Bryman, 2004). Phenomenology is regarded as a domain of a qualitative paradigm (Deshpande, 1983).

Conversely, positivism is the most widely and the oldest employed method: described as the natural sciences methods. Positivism employs the scientific deductive process to manage quantitative and empirical study (Creswell, 2013). According to Deshpande (1983) the quantitative paradigm is related to the rational positivist interpretation of the world. Positivist research uses methods related to hypotheses testing, quasi-experimental, inferential statistics

and experimental design. According to positivism, social reality is evaluated by objective methods and is outward (Creswell, 2013).

Table 4.1: Research paradigms

	Positivist paradigm	Phenomenological paradigm
Basic beliefs	The world is external and objective	The world is socially constructed and subjective
	The observer is independent	The observer is a party to what is being observed
	Science is value-free	Science is driven by human interests
The researcher should	Focus on facts	Focus on meaning
	Locate causality between variables	Try to understand what is happening
	Formulate and test hypotheses (deductive approach)	Construct theories and models from the data (inductive approach)
Methods include	Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured	Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomenon
	Using large sample from which to generalise to the population	Using small samples researched in depth over time
	Quantitative methods	Qualitative methods

Source: Gray (2014, p.25)

To select the paradigm in directing to more precise research, the character of research questions and objectives should be considered. Deshpande (1983) states that research should be based on both paradigms: the positivist and the interpretivist paradigm, to prevent method-bias, which often happens when research is based on a single paradigm. Paradigms may not be considered as commonly restricted (Mingers, 2001); therefore, this study applies some characters of realism, such as the being of social elements but is focused on positivism (Table 4.2). The idealism or theory generation permits the investigator to create a range of suggestions that subsequently might be verified using theory verification or positivism by quantitative methods (Meissner, 2016).

Both paradigms could have two principal outcomes. Primarily the benefit to distinguish a new range of scales, which could be valuable in gauging occupational identity constructs. This research commences with an idealism paradigm based on a qualitative method to investigate what the aspects that impact the occupational identity are and whether or not this will influence work engagement and turnover.

What are the factors that influence occupational identity and what are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and turnover? The qualitative study will acquire preliminary understandings into research problems, creating an accurate scale to gauge occupational identity that could be utilised afterwards to study hypotheses and theories.

Table 4.2: Alternative names for two paradigms

Positivist	Interpretive
Quantitative Objectivist Scientific Experimentalist Traditionalist	Qualitative Subjectivist Humanistic Phenomenological Revolutionist

Source: Malhotra (2010, p.138)

Secondary, it will increase the generalisability, validity and reliability of the study hypotheses (Creswell, 2013; Rodrigues et al., 2016) and their fundamental relationship (Shah, 2014) by using a positivist paradigm to assess the model (Balmer, 2001; Foroudi et al 2018). The character of the investigation questions and objectives has been contemplated in order to select appropriate research approaches and which paradigms were addressing a more precise research. This study, thus, employs the quantitative method to continue the research. However, contemplation of the qualitative research was needed for the subsequent purposes: primarily, this research has recognised the absence of suitable measurements to assess occupation identity. Researchers (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018; Paules, 1991; Sehkaran and Sevcikova, 2011; Ukandu and Ukpere, 2011) have mainly based their studies on purely operational characteristics of chefs' and waiters' jobs, for instance: staff training or performance. Little consideration has been given to waiters' sense of self or their occupational identity(ies). Fine (1996) maintains that: "for all their potential allure, restaurants have rarely been studied sociologically" (p.1). This research intends to shed literary light on this heretofore disregarded angle of the restaurant sector for the details specified in the introduction section.

To analyse the meaning of occupational identity as a core of waiters' work identity, a quantitative approach is more appropriate than qualitative approach (Foroudi, 2012; Tran et al., 2015) as they are more suitable for analysing theories rather than generating theories (Aquino and De Castro, 2017) (Table 4.3 qualitative and quantitative methods comparison).

Academics (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Foroudi, 2012; Melewar and Saunders, 1999) state that positivists generally use qualitative methodology to obtain essential elucidations in an individual's performance throughout a symbolic participants' sample. Additionally, positivists endeavour to generate a pure interview that presents a pure reproduction of the realism that occurs in the social sphere and examine it with regard to desirability and feasibility (Fontana and Prokos, 2016). Miller and Glassner (1997) consider that "research cannot provide the mirror reflection of the social world that positivists strive for, but it may provide access to the meanings people attribute to their experience and social worlds" (p.100).

Table 4.3: Qualitative and quantitative methods comparison

	Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research
Purpose	Deductive: verification and outcome oriented Precise measurement and comparison of variables Establishing relationships between variables Interface from sample to population	Inductive: discovery and process oriented Meaning Context Process Discovering unanticipated events, influences and conditions Inductive development of theory
Research questions	Variance questions Truth of proposition Presence or absence Degree or amount Correlation Hypothesis testing Causality (factual)	Process questions How and Why Meaning Context (holistic) Hypotheses as part of conceptual framework Causality (physical)
RESEARCH METHODS		
Relationship	Objectivity/reduction of influence (research as an extraneous variable)	Use of influence as a tool for understanding (research as part of process)
Sampling	Probability sampling Establishing valid comparisons	Purposeful sampling
Data collection	Measures tend to be objective Prior development of instruments Standardisation Measurement/testing-quantitative/categorical	Measures tend to be subjective Inductive development of strategies Adapting to particular situation Collection of textual or visual material
Data analysis	Numerical descriptive analysis (statistics, correlation) Estimation of population variables Statistical hypothesis testing Conversion of textual data into numbers or categories	Textual analysis (memos, coding, connecting) Grounded theory Narrative approaches
Reliability/Validity	Reliable Technology as instrument (the evaluator is removed from the data)	Valid Self as instrument (the evaluator is close to the data)
Generalisability	Generalisable The outsider's perspective Population oriented	Ungeneralisable The insider's perspective Case oriented

Source: Maxwell and Loomis (2003, p.190); Steckler et al. (1992)

4.3. RESEARCH APPROACH SELECTION

To present a more complete tactic to improving the perception of the issue defined in Chapter 1, the pluralism exploration method was the most apt (Deshpande, 1983; Mingers, 2001). Mingers (2001) affirms, “the different research methods (especially from different paradigms) focus on different aspects of reality and therefore a richer understanding of a research together in a single piece of research or research program. Topic will be gained by combining several methods together in a single piece of research or research program” (p.241). Deshpande (1983) and Mingers (2001) consider that disregarding the possible influence of the techniques that are associated to non-positivist methods (e.g. focus groups) possibly reduces the understanding of the academic who employs the positivist method.

The use of more than one investigation process improves the understanding of the phenomenon under research and can show new perceptions (Creswell and Creswell 2017; Nguyen et al., 2017; Palmer and Gallagher, 2007). Founded on the perceived legitimacy and the development of the research methodology of both qualitative and quantitative study, human and social sciences literature progressively adjust the mixed-methods tactic to analyse and collect quantitative and qualitative information (Foroudi, 2012). Creswell (2013) maintains that the methodology is a “quantitative study based on testing a theory in an experiment with a small qualitative interview component in the data collection phase” (Creswell, 2013, p.177).

Mixed-methods have demonstrated their effectiveness in social sciences (Arends et al., 2017); consequently, this study has adopted this methodology to gather the information. Primarily, understanding Creswell’s (2013) mixed-method study brings together qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis within a particular study. Quantitative and qualitative approaches might be gathered successively to corroborate, cross-validate, or confirm outcomes at one step in the investigation procedure (Gray, 2014).

Furthermore, four different points can be recognised: firstly, reference to the origin of the study measures/problem/sample; secondly, application, meaning the method the investigator employs to gather both qualitative and quantitative information (Creswell, 2013); thirdly, incorporation, following the study questions, data collection, data analysis (Creswell, 2013); and fourthly, explanation, when the deductions are elicited to consolidate the understanding of the claims of the study and must clarify any absence of merging that can be caused. Previously, mixed-

methods were largely used in the data collection stage, and it was just afterwards that patterns were used in the diverse phases of the research procedure: statement establishing, concept developing, data collection, analysis and explanation (Bryman, 2006; Creswell, 2013). Mixed-methods boost a concept's validity and reliability (Bryman, 2006; Churchill, 1979; Creswell, 2013). Moreover, relating quantitative and qualitative approaches often develop their assets (Ritchie et al., 2003).

In current research, the qualitative data analysis is accomplished using the outcomes analysis process. Bryman (2016) recognised two patterns to explain the mixture of qualitative and quantitative investigation based on content analysis. Primarily, the substantial scheme was settled in the assessment research context by Greene et al. (1989). They arranged each article as a principal and a minor reasoning (Bryman, 2016). Bryman (2016) states that the first pattern, which was created by Greene et al. (1989, p.259) distinguished five reasons for mixing qualitative and quantitative study (Table 4.4).

Consistent with Bryman (2006), the “advantage of the Greene et al. (1989) scheme is its parsimony, in that it boils down the possible reasons for conducting multi-strategy research to just five reasons, although the authors’ analysis revealed that initiation was uncommon” (p.105). In this approach, qualitative method is fundamental for comprehending the complex social phenomena, which aids to develop the topic based on participants’ opinions. Whilst the qualitative study recapitulates the significant volume of information for generalisation reasons, there is an inconvenience of only being able to encode primary and secondary data. For this reason, a more exhaustive but less parsimonious pattern was developed. Table 4.4 illustrates the second pattern with the validations applied by Bryman (2016).

Table 4.4: The explanations for mixing the quantitative and qualitative methods

First scheme	
Triangulation	Convergence, corroboration, correspondence or results from different methods. In coding triangulation, the emphasis was placed on seeking corroboration between quantitative and qualitative data
Complementarity	Seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with the results from another
Development	Seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions
Initiation	Seeks the discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspectives of [sic] frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from one method with questions or results from the other method
Expansion	Seeks to extend the breadth and range of enquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components
Second scheme	
Triangulation or greater validity	Refers to the traditional view that quantitative and qualitative research might be combined to triangulate findings in order that they may be mutually corroborated. If the term was used as a synonym for integrating quantitative and qualitative research, it was not coded as triangulation
Offset	Refers to the suggestion that the research methods associated with both quantitative and qualitative research have their own strengths and weaknesses so that combining them allows the researcher to offset their weaknesses to draw on the strengths of both
Completeness	Refers to the notion that the researcher can bring together a more comprehensive account of the area of enquiry in which he or she is interested if both quantitative and qualitative research is employed
Process	Quantitative research provides an account of structures in social life, but qualitative research provides a sense of process
Different research questions	This is the argument that quantitative and qualitative research can each answer different research questions but this item was coded only if authors explicitly stated that they were doing this
Explanation	One is used to help explain findings generated by the other
Unexpected results	Refers to the suggestion that quantitative and qualitative research can be fruitfully combined when one generates surprising results that can be understood by employing the other
Instrument development	Refers to contexts in which qualitative research is employed to develop questionnaire and scale items – for example, so that better wording or more comprehensive closed answers can be generated
Sampling	Refers to situations in which one approach is used to facilitate the sampling of respondents or cases
Credibility	Refers to suggestions that employing both approaches enhances the integrity of findings
Context	Refers to cases in which the combination is rationalised in terms of qualitative research, providing contextual understanding coupled with either generalisable, externally valid findings or broad relationships among variables uncovered through a survey
Illustration	Refers to the use of qualitative data to illustrate quantitative findings, often referred to as putting ‘meat on the bones’ of ‘dry’ quantitative findings
Utility or improving the usefulness of findings	Refers to a suggestion, which is more likely to be prominent among articles with an applied focus that combining the two approaches will be more useful to practitioners and others
Confirm and discover	This entails using qualitative data to generate hypotheses and using quantitative research to test them within a single project

Diversity of views	This includes two slightly different rationales - namely, combining researchers' and participants' perspectives through quantitative and qualitative research respectively, and uncovering relationships between variables through quantitative research
Enhancement or building upon quantitative/qualitative findings	This entails a reference to making more of or augmenting either quantitative or qualitative findings by gathering data using a qualitative or quantitative research approach
Other/unclear Not stated	

Source: Adapted from Bryman (2016, p.641).

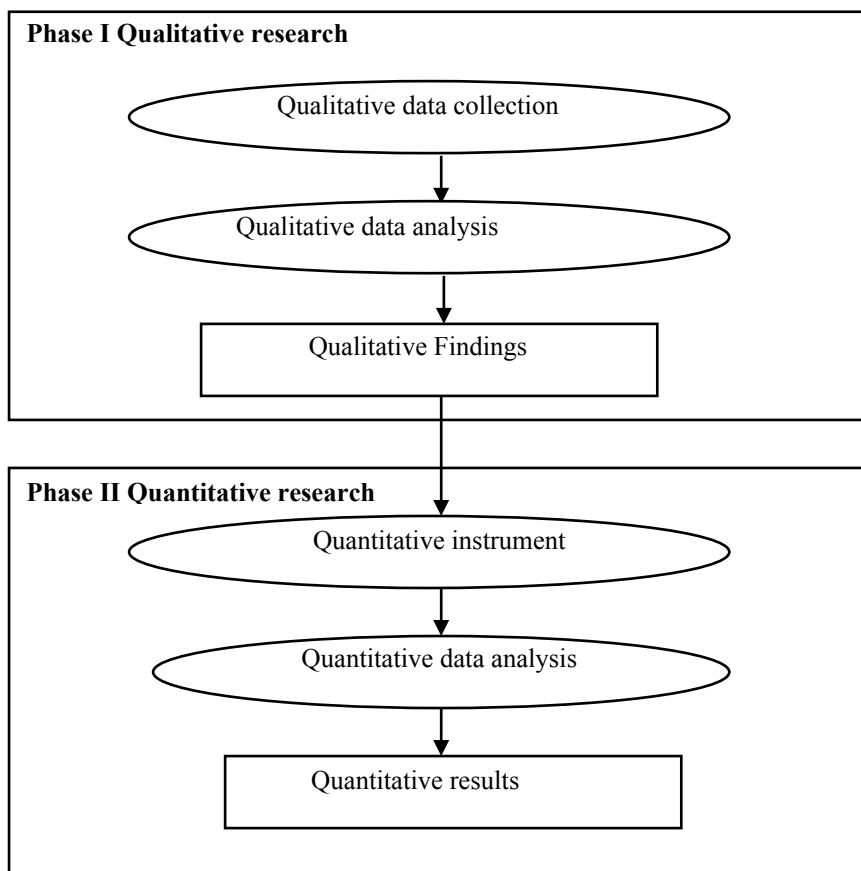
The current study is founded on a positivist method, sharing some characteristics with realism, for example the presence of social truths (Bryman, 2016). Understanding the positivist perception, an experimental research was conducted to validate the proposed conceptual model to elucidate the occupational identity perception and then simplify the study with a significant sample by using the quantitative methodology (questionnaire). Instead, investigators can start with quantitative approaches followed by qualitative study. This method is comparable to a sample offer by Creswell (2013) where the principal method was a quantitative approach founded on assessing a concept but with a small number of qualitative interview factors in the information gathering stage. The processes of mixed procedures are demonstrated in Figure 4.1.

An inductive method (qualitative research) was employed previously to the principal survey to improve the legality of the research, creating hypotheses and refining questionnaire measures (Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992). Academics (Churchill, 1979; Foroudi, 2012) suggest a quantitative methodology with multi-method techniques in the first phase of a research study. To examine the occupational identity concept, quantitative approaches are more appropriate than the qualitative technique (Foroudi, 2012; LeBlanc and Nguyen, 1998; Tran et al., 2015). This technique is more suitable for concept analysis rather than concept origination (Balmer, 2001).

Directed by the position of the positivists stated previously and the analysis of mixed research methods, this study utilises qualitative approaches, for example, in-depth interviews with hospitality lecturers, managers and waiters in the UK and focus groups with waiters from restaurants in London. The qualitative methodology was principally used in this study as there is so far insufficient knowledge on the conception of 'waiters' occupational identity', which needs to be described in more detail. To validate the measurement scale, which aids to

understand better the practice of occupational identity a qualitative study was conducted followed by the main survey. Authors (Deshpande, 1983; Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992) affirm that for research in an area that is unfamiliar or has not established the right consideration so far, quantitative and qualitative approaches are fit. To develop answers to the research questions for this specific research, the waiter has been considered as the appropriate core for evaluation in quantitative and qualitative methodology.

Figure 4.1: Mixed methods procedures

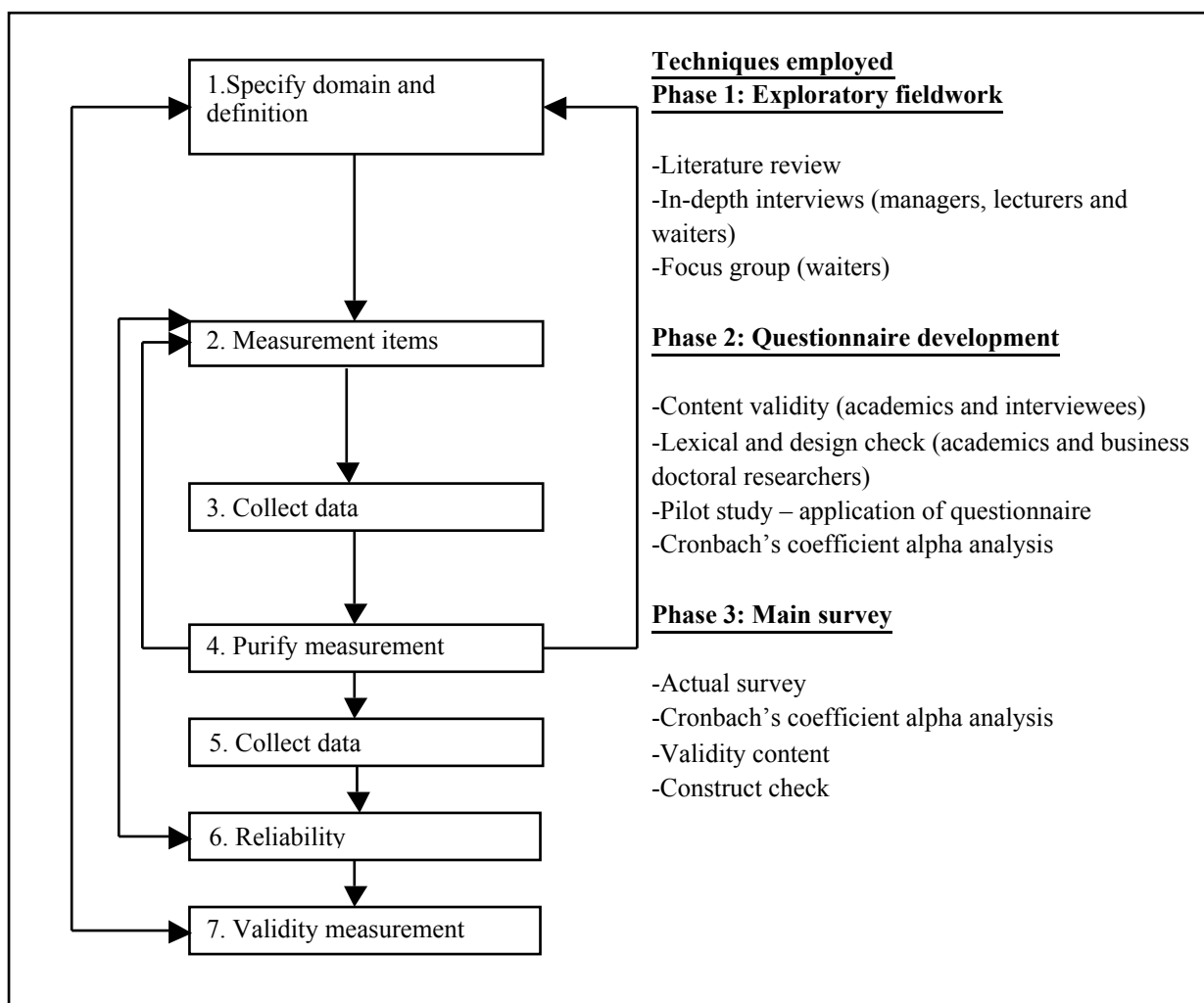


Source: Creswell (2013, p.235)

Based on Churchill's (1979) approach, this research developed a main survey questionnaire, which expanded on previous literature to delineate and determine the focus of this study in the measurement of the antecedents: employer branding, interference, authenticity, stereotype, salience, occupational identity, work engagement and turnover and with the new terms: passion, extroversion and education, extracted from the qualitative data collection, interviews and focus groups. To analyse occupational identity, this study uses Churchill's (1979) method for creating

multi-item measures of occupational identity's constructs. Additionally, De Vellis (2003) and Gerbing and Anderson's (1988) concepts were employed to develop a determined measurement reliability with a range of valid and reliable scales. This is estimated to establish a deeper connection than the usage of single item procedures. Churchill's (1979) model combines the qualitative paradigm whilst being predominantly quantitative in nature. The measurement scale for marketing constructs suggested is illustrated in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Steps in measurement scale development



Source: Churchill (1979, p.66); Foroudi, 2012

4.4. THE FIRST PHASE (QUALITATIVE RESEARCH)

A preliminary exploratory study was conducted to define the research question. As no research has created a reliable and valid scale to measure waiters' occupational identity, this research aimed to cover this gap within the restaurant sector and Churchill's (1979) process to create a suitable scale. In this study, a preliminary research was conducted for the following purposes. First, to gain an in-depth understanding of the research area (Dacin and Brown, 2002). Second, to obtain understanding into occupational identity, work engagement and turnover context. Third, to understand the actual practice in the field in order to gauge whether the proposed research study was relevant. Fourth, to achieve insight, understanding and information about the planned research questions, generate hypotheses and purify questionnaire measures (Churchill, 1979).

The exploratory study, identified as an 'experience survey', means "a judgment sample of persons who can offer ideas and insights into the phenomenon" (Churchill, 1979, p.66). Exploratory research usually starts with extensive research and limits to study progress (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Specific procedures are employed to create items sampling and reproduce a concept, exploratory study, literature search, focus groups and interviews (Churchill, 1979). The current research applies the above procedures to gauge the occupational identity construct (interview and focus group).

Interviews and focus groups are very valuable to combine (Bryman, 2006; Churchill, 1979; Creswell, 2013) as a useful source that contributes a new perception to current data (Creswell, 2013). The data gathered from focus groups and the interviews brought the insights together with information to this study and contributed to supplement more data, which was not identified in the literature review. Conversely, exploratory studies seldom include such large samples (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). To reduce flaws, the qualitative data was utilised to develop a quantitative methodology, predominantly in the form of a questionnaire (Malhotra and Birks, 2003; Churchill, 1979). Table 4.5 demonstrates the principle advantage of focus groups and employing interviews.

Table 4.5: Application for in-depth interviews and focus groups

	In-depth interviews	Focus groups
Nature of data	For generating in-depth personal accounts To understand the personal context For exploring issues in depth and in detail	For generating data that is shaped by group interaction, refined and reflected To display a social context exploring how people talk about an issue For creative thinking and solutions To display and discuss differences within the group
Subject matter	To understand complex processes and issues e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Motivations, decisions - Impacts, outcomes To explore private subjects of those involving social norms For sensitive issues	To tackle abstract and conceptual subjects where enabling or projective techniques are to be used, or in different or technical subjects where information is provided For issues that would be illuminated by the display of social norms For some sensitive issues, with careful group composition and handling
Study population	For participants who are unlikely to be willing or able to travel Where the study population is geographically dispersed Where the population is highly diverse Where there are issues of power or status Where people have communication difficulties	Where participants are likely to be willing or able to travel to attend a group discussion Where the population is geographically clustered Where there is some shared background or relationship to the research topic For participants who are unlikely to be inhibited by group setting

Source: Adapted from Ritchie et al. (2003)

4.4.1. Interviews

To achieve the objectives of this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted to recognise and engage the key features that ought to be considered in assessing the concept of the occupational identity construct. This research conducted in-depth interviews with hospitality lecturers, managers, and waiters to enable the investigator to create richer knowledge of the theme and gather behavioural and attitudinal data on the topic (Foroudi, 2012; 2018; Palmer and Gallagher, 2007; Shiu et al., 2009). **Once the researcher has greater knowledge about the phenomenon, in the second methodology tool applied, focus groups, this study was narrowed to the specific unit of analysis, the waiting group.** A semi-structured interview guide was created with the help of the previous literature, to outline what questions would be asked, which largely defined occupational identity as the theme of importance and assessed the interview in line with the main themes and encouraged continuity in the discussions.

The interviews were conducted in a venue and at a time chosen by the participants (Ritchie et al., 2003). The interview took an average of 45-60 mins and all of them were digitally recorded and then transcribed in word-for-word detail to guarantee reliability (Argote, 2012). The in-depth interview method was individual, semi-structured, undisguised and direct to encounter essential attitudes, motivation, feelings and beliefs regarding the theme. The interview protocol was drawn up to ensure all the relevant aspects within the interviews were included (Appendix 4.1).

The interviewer employed a professional dress code, and introduced herself as an interviewer and not as a PhD student (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Additionally, the investigator established a good rapport with the participants using diverse tactics. In-depth interviews facilitate “the opportunity for the researcher to probe deeply to uncover new clues, open up new dimensions of a problem and to secure vivid, accurate inclusive accounts that are based on personal experience” (Burgess, 1982, p.107). The in-depth interview questions were varied enough to be formulated on a different range of themes. Sekaran (2003) maintains that individual interviews are significantly employed in research studies and this method can easily be adjusted, ensuring that the respondents have understood the questions accurately.

Additionally, the qualitative research is founded on non-quantifiable data, including value, perception and attitude (Gray, 2014). Attitude is an important insight that is frequently employed to predict and understand individuals’ responses to a change or object (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Furthermore, attitude is a process of assessing occupational identity (Van Riel, 1995) that permits the participants to measure and evaluate the antecedents of occupational identity. A direct interview question was originated as a fixed-answer type of question, which needed to be chosen out of a determined range of answers to gauge attitude (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). The gathered data is “more reliable because the responses are limited to the alternatives stated” (Malhotra and Birks, 2000, p.210).

Balmer (2001) states that marketing academics ought to emphasise more extensively on exploratory studies by initially being involved in position analysis through interviews with organisation directors (Churchill, 1979; Melewar, 2001). Investigators in marketing employ a qualitative methodology to investigate detailed subjects in a structure that is less organised and summarise the feelings, beliefs and experiences of their research participants (Malhotra and Birks, 2000).

The qualitative research endeavours to collect additional detailed data to develop comprehension of the occupational identity notion. The interviewees' information is demonstrated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: The details of in-depth interviews with consultants and managers

Interview duration: approximately 45-60 mins

Interview Date	Organisation	Interviewee position
16.07.2017	5* Hotel	Restaurant Manager
17.07.2017	4* Hotel	Deputy General Manager
18.07.2017	Restaurant Recommended in the Michelin Restaurants Guide	Marketing and Sales Manager
19.07.2017	Restaurant Recommended in the Michelin Restaurants Guide	Main Chef
19.07.2017	Restaurant Recommended in the Michelin Restaurants Guide	Waiter
21.07.2017	Global Travel and Hospitality Company	Vice President, Sales
28.07.2017	5* Hotel	Dining Groups and Events Manager
01/08/2017	University	Associate Professor in Hospitality
05.08.2017	4* Hotel	Waitress
12.08.2017	College	Lecturer in Hospitality and European coordinator Erasmus +
19.08.2017	Marketing and Business Strategy Consultant Company	Partner
Topics discussed		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discussion of waiter's profile and identity - Discussion of the key factors that influence the construct of waiters' occupational identity - Discussion of the factor named as the one that is the most influential in the construction of waiters' occupational identity - Discussion of the understanding of work engagement - Discussion of how restaurants could reduce employee mobility or turnover 		

Source: The researcher

4.4.2. Details of focus groups

As well as the interviews, focus groups were conducted to understand the participants' perceptions about the topic; when there is insufficient information about the topic the material gathered from focus group generates wide data in a short period of time (Byers and Wilcox, 1991; Morgan, 1988). The investigator is open to new viewpoints during the procedure of the research. Using focus groups permitted the investigator to obtain additional understanding about what individuals think of occupational identity and the connection to work engagement

and employee turnover (Churchill, 1979; Fern, 1982; Krueger, 1994; Ryan et al., 2013).

This study used the focus group method for the following purposes: (1) “people are a valuable source of information”, (2) “people can report on and about themselves, and that they are articulate enough to verbalise their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours”, (3) “the facilitator who ‘focuses’ the interview can help people retrieve forgotten information”, (4) “the dynamics in the group can be used to generate genuine information, rather than the “group think phenomenon”, (5) “interviewing a group is better than interviewing an individual” (Byers and Wilcox, 1991, p.65), and (6) “identifying and pretesting questionnaire items” (Fern, 1982, p.1).

When a new insight is discovered, it conveys the investigation in a new direction. The investigation included three focus groups with a total of 18 people (10 women and 8 men) to stimulate an adequate level of group communication to encourage debate (Krueger, 1994; Ryan et al., 2013) and assess more directly the notion of occupational identity. The participants’ ages were between 20 and 38 years old, with a mean of 24 years. The contributors were individuals with different social credentials, which makes the study more valuable (Smithson, 2000). Moreover, it helped the researcher to gather an abundance of data regarding the theme from a variety of responses (Kover, 1982).

These respondents were questioned about their perception regarding the occupational identities’ antecedents and their impact on them, work engagement, and employee turnover of London restaurants. The questions were unstructured and open-ended, which permitted participants to respond in different ways. The information was gathered from focus groups of waiters from restaurants in London. The waiters were requested to contribute to this study to debate their opinions, perceptions, attitudes and beliefs towards occupational identity and their relationship to work engagement and employee turnover (Table 4.5). The information of the focus group participants is shown in Table 4.7. This has been a useful technique for collecting, assessing and generating data about occupational identity. This technique of gathering information contributed to collecting data in a shorter amount of time than individual interviews and also benefitted from the group dynamics. The members chose the timing and venues of the focus groups, and principally they were gathered in the dining room in the restaurants.

The investigator attempted to create the right atmosphere in order for the participants to feel comfortable when talking about their thoughts (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Group debates were

conducted using the ideal number of participants, who were given the opportunity to communicate fully (Ritchie et al., 2003). The focus group benefitted by drawing from a diverse population to enable the investigator to gain more knowledge about what individuals think about waiters' occupational identity (Churchill, 1979; Krueger, 1994; Ryan et al., 2013).

Table 4.7: Focus group participants

Interview date	Number of participants	Interviewee occupations	Age range	Interview approx. length
28.08.2017	6	Waiting staff of restaurant, I Recommended in the Michelin Restaurants Guide	20-25	60 min.
30.08.2017	6	Waiting staff of restaurant II Recommended in the Michelin Restaurants Guide	20-26	55 min
01.09.2017	6	Waiting staff of the restaurant in the 4* Hotel	22-38	60 min
Topics discussed				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The understanding of waiters' occupational identity - The understanding of work engagement - Discussion of the impact of occupational identity on work engagement and turnover - The evaluation of the relationships between occupational identity and its antecedents - Discussion of the most salient factor that influences the construction of occupational identity - Discussion of the type of waiters' values in line with the organisation's objectives, goals and values - The influence of the interaction with peers, managers and customers with waiters in developing occupational identity - Discussion of society's stereotyping of the waiting occupational group - Discussion of the relationship of 'who they are' with 'what they are' 				

Source: The researcher

In order for the study discussion to be under control, the investigator used different approaches to stimulate each participant to collaborate in the focus groups. Smithson (2000) described a focus group as a 'collective voice', which means "a group process of collaboratively constructing a joint perspective, or argument, which emerges very much as a collective procedure which leads to consensus, rather than as any individual's view" (p.109). The interviews for the focus group were recorded and transcribed word-for-word. The transcriptions were cross-checked with the second recorder. The members' names were substituted with a code for privacy protection purposes. The following paragraphs describe in more detail how the data was incorporated to create the questionnaire. In the following section, the development, managing and data understanding of the qualitative phase are described.

4.4.3. Overview of the planning, management and data interpretation of the qualitative stage

In the current literature (Creswell, 2013; Fontana and Prokop, 2016), several methods of qualitative data analysis have been broadly discussed. To conduct the current qualitative research, a thematic analysis has been conducted in a precise, consistent, and exhaustive manner, with coding procedures used and guided by the conceptual framework generated from the literature review. Moreover, the hypotheses, research questions, key variables and gaps in the literature have also been considered (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). The research questions and hypotheses were practically verified through rigorous methodology (Tran et al., 2015).

Based on previous studies (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Savage, 2000), thematic analysis was applied in this research. Savage (2000) states that thematic analysis is in line with an interpretivist approach in that it is “assumed that there will be some fit between the outcome of the data analysis and some external or overarching reality” (Savage, 2000, p.493). This findings section was based on the analysis and interpretations of the waiters referred to in the interviews; further information from focus groups was gathered as well as some theoretical ideas originated from the literature review.

Coding was applied to the data gathered to establish themes, concepts and categories. The results of the analysis identified key themes and patterns in the data using this process, thus generating classifications from groups of codes, in turn developing themes from these classifications (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Subsequently, the data was revised to ascertain that all the initial codes were included into these themes. A computer file was opened for each theme and the coded data was ‘copied and pasted’ into its corresponding file, thus, while the data was thematically ‘ordered’, the initial context was maintained. The final stage was to adjust it to find connections and patterns and thus endeavour to understand its meaning (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). It is vital to consider though that ‘understanding of meaning’ was also developed from the initial coding phases (it could even be said that understanding meaning commenced while interviewing) where the researcher reacted to the data and was reflexive about participants’ ideas.

Initially, QSR NVivo software Version 11 was utilised for data management and to complete outcomes creating a refined interpretation synthesis of the data collected. The software was suitable for planning out parsimoniously and supported the investigator with observing the

entire work, allowing the correlations of the codes to be understood at a glance (Welsh, 2002) as well as for data storing and retrieval (Esterberg, 2002). In qualitative data analysis and management, electronic and manual kits are both beneficial to be used in testing the field of rigorous themes (Welsh, 2002); this could influence the association of the thematic ideas, revising the subjects for continuing through the qualitative information examination.

The use of software improves the precision in analytical procedures. NVivo permits the investigator to study the data at a specific level and conducts the reliability and validity of the research outcomes. Additionally, it guarantees that the investigator is progressing thoroughly, more attentively and more methodically (Bazeley, 2007). NVivo has resources for data storing, making recording, linking, retrieval ideas and searching the forms of data and understanding. The software combines a large variety of resources in a regular, accurate and simple configuration. Gibbs (2002) stated that the use of NVivo aids in analysing and manipulating the data to be more accurate, transparent and reliable.

Weber (1985) explains that to validate the reliability of the coding through thematic analysis, the code was analysed more than once by another investigator to improve the understanding of classification of the subjects. Thematic analysis is a research method to validate, replicate and validate inferences from data to its context. Patton (2002) maintains “the qualitative analyst’s effort at uncovering patterns, themes, and categories is a creative process that requires making carefully considered judgments about what is really significant and meaningful in the data” (Patton, 2002, p.406). The investigator employs the coding method to analyse the context in detail, which permits reflection of potential implications intended or assumed by the investigator (Saldana, 2015). The investigator tried within the data to situate the starter and the end of the phenomenon and indicators founded on a previous research code improvement method (Patton, 2002; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The investigator gathered a high-level quality of data in the way of literal transcriptions of all the interviews, which offered enough material to evaluate the elaboration of questionnaire scales, permitting for reliability with the prior terminology and work. Finally, the explanation of the data with the appropriate conceptual framework was elucidated.

In social sciences, the value of the data is important because of the varied methodological and philosophical methods for the analysis of human endeavour (Ritchie et al., 2003). Reliability and validity are the aspects that have an influence on originating a work, examining the

outcomes and evaluating the value of the research. Conversely, there is no mutual explanation of validity and reliability in qualitative research. To confirm the reliability of the study, an evaluation of 'trustworthiness' is significant. The concept of defining accuracy through methods of validity and reliability is verified by the understanding of trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Seale (1999) states that the: "trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability" (Seale, 1999, p.266).

As Lincoln and Guba (1985) maintained, "there is no validity without reliability, an expression of the former validity is sufficient to establish the latter reliability" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.316). The strength of the data is defined by the reliability (sustainable) and validity (well-grounded). Reliability directs how truthfully the study techniques and methods generate data and is a result of the research validity (Patton, 2002). The triangulation method is employed in qualitative research to analyse the validity and reliability of the research in order to eliminate bias and improve the research's accuracy. Creswell and Miller (2000) defined triangulation as: "a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (Creswell and Miller, 2000, p.126). Triangulation is developing the reliability and validity of the research and the assessment of its results. Subsequently, validity, reliability and triangulation are significant research concepts, principally with a qualitative perspective to show the different forms of determining truth. Table 4.8 poses the methods employed to develop the trustworthiness of this research study.

To confirm through thematic analysis the coding reliability, consistency was established when the context was coded more than once by the investigator (Saldana, 2015; Weber, 1985). Moreover, one independent coder with significant qualitative research knowledge was used to measure the construction of occupational identity reliability.

Table 4.8: Meeting the criteria of trustworthiness

Traditional criteria	Trustworthiness criteria	Trustworthiness criteria
Internal validity	Credibility	Quality access (the researcher was provided with an office desk, computer, access to company intranet, email address, freedom of talking to and interviewing anybody, freedom of getting any company documents, including lots of confidential strategic documents) and extensive engagement in the field Multiple triangulations Peer debriefing Constant comparison
	External validity	Detailed description of the research setting Multiple cases and cross-case comparison
Reliability	Dependability	Purposive and theoretical sampling Cases and informant's confidentiality protected Rigorous multiple stages of coding
Objectivity	Confirmability	Separately presenting the exemplar codes Word-by-word interview transcription Accurate records of contacts and interviews Writing research journal Carefully keeping notes of observation Regularly keeping notes of emergent theoretical and methodological ideas

Source: Based on Lincoln and Guba (1985)

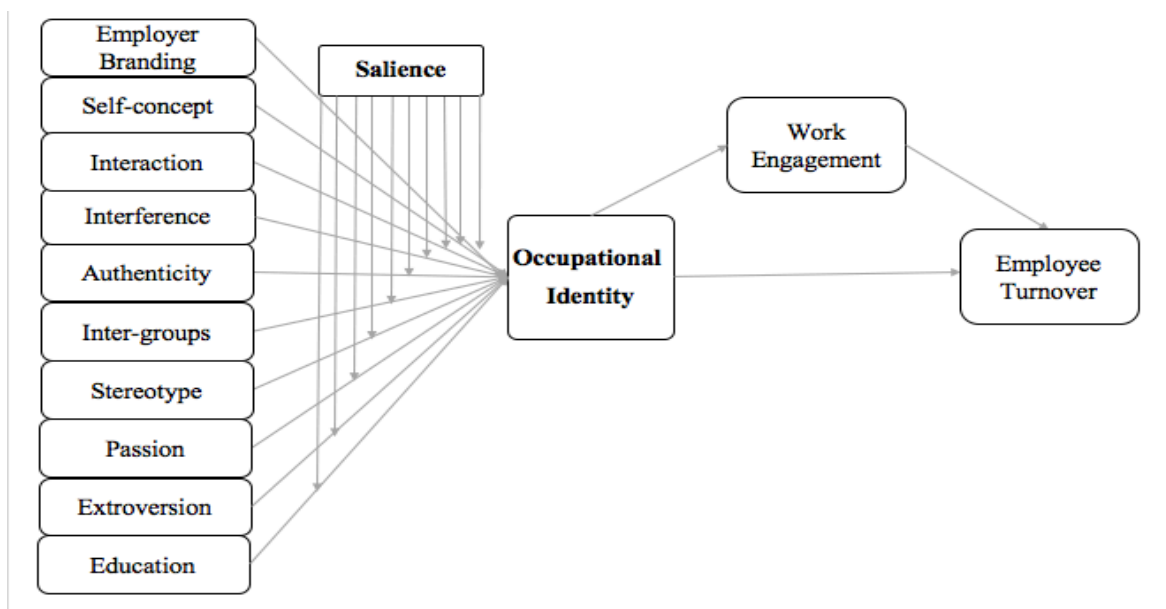
Findings from qualitative study - The proposed conceptual framework model based on the findings of the literature review (figure 3.1 in Chapter 3) has been empirically assessed and confirmed, acknowledging seven antecedents of occupational identity that impact on the relationship to work engagement and employee turnover. Salience is used as a moderator of this relationship, to simplify the meaning of the stimuli. Examples of antecedents that were disclosed are: employer branding, recognised by the scholars (Alshathry et al., 2017; Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Ashcraft, 2007; Sullivan, 2004; Wallace et al., 2014). Inter-groups and stereotype being part of the same discipline are distinguished (Fiske, 1998; Hilton and Von Hippel, 1996; Horton et al., 2014; Lyubomirova, 2013; Nadler and Clark, 2011; Stedman, 2006; Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Von Hippel et al., 1995). Self-concept (Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2003; Loy, 2017; McLean, 2005; Oyserman et al., 2012; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 2004). Attitude in the workplace such as: social interaction, multiple identities, interference or authenticity. The last construct of this model, as consequences of occupational identity: work engagement and employee turnover.

This study presents and considers more precise enquiries concerning how the methodological choices made by academics might influence the intensity of the relationships between an

occupational identity and its antecedents, and consequent propositions. The empirical qualitative research chosen for this specific study permitted the theoretical framework to be expanded by conducting focus groups and interviews with Michelin-starred waiters, managers and hospitality lecturers, as well as analysing the collected data. In line with the literature, all interviewees highlighted the significance of sustaining and developing a favourable occupational identity. In consonance with the literature review, participants who stressed the value of a favourable occupational identity noted that it influences waiters' perceptions of the role and organisation team, and emphasised its main influence in attracting and retaining waiters in today's competitive market. Furthermore, three new constructs of the antecedents of occupational identity were identified, namely, education, passion and extroversion (Figure 4.3).

The outcomes of this study contribute to a better understanding, expansion and justification of the role of waiters' occupational identity in building work engagement and employee retention in London restaurants. Moreover, this study will be the first research to recognise, test and validate these assumptions; no theoretical validation was founded from earlier investigations.

Figure 4.3: The proposed conceptual framework developed from the literature and qualitative research study.



Source: Developed by the researcher

The following paragraphs describe in more detail how the data was incorporated to create the questionnaire.

4.5. THE SECOND PHASE (RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AND SCALE DEVELOPMENT)

The purpose of this phase was to create reliable and valid procedures of the theoretical construct by integrating knowledge from the current literature and the qualitative research. Several items were created in the initial stage. Some of these questions were equivalent or identical, and as a consequence were omitted for the sake of parsimony. The researcher measured the items created from the qualitative research and eliminated unneeded measures to guarantee that these questions were representative of the scale's domain. The following section describes how the data was included in development of the survey form.

4.5.1. Domain of constructs

Identifying the content of the domain is normally obtained via the qualitative studies and appropriate literature, which is the initial phase in the development of questionnaires. As there is limited research, as far as the researcher knows, which has created an up-to-date reliable, valid scale to gauge occupational identity, this thesis will fill the neglected area in this field. Churchill's (1979) paradigm has been employed to generate superior procedures to develop a fit of questionnaire items, originated from researchers, interviews and literature, which produce the construct domain. To indicate an improved evaluation, the operational description and measurements of the main constructs are identified. Table 4.9 demonstrates the definitions of the constructs.

Table 4.9: The main constructs and their definitions

Constructs	Definitions	References
Employer branding	The employer branding in which the employee's identity is created, institutes the identity of the organisation as an employer. It is a long-term strategy that comprehends the firm's value, policies and behaviour system towards the objectives of interesting, encouraging, and retaining the organisation's current and potential employees, and correlated stakeholders with regards to an organisation.	Alshathry et al., 2017; Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Ashcraft, 2007; Sullivan, 2004; Wallace et al., 2014.
Self-concept	Self-concept is what we perceive when we think of oneself. It is a person's feeling of self-worth, as well as a rich, multifaceted cognitive structure with aspects of the 'me' forming self-concept and identities being part of self-concept.	Abrams, 1994; Cantor and Kihlstrom, 1987; Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2016; Loy, 2017; Markus and Wurf, 1987; McLean, 2005; Neisser, 1993; Oyserman et al., 2012; Serpe, 1987; Stein, 1995; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker, 2000; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 1979.
Interaction	Interaction refers to the procedure of exposure to multiple staff by which an untrained employee is being accepted into an occupation adopting the norms and values of the occupation in his/her self-concept and behaviour. It is also described as an outcome of the formation of self-esteem as an employee with the necessary responsibilities and knowledge.	Blais et al., 2006; Cohen, 1981; Creasia and Parker, 2007; Frone, 2018; Hardy and Conway, 1988; Haynes et al., 2004; 2017; Lai and Lim 2012; Leddy, 1998; Tappen et al., 1998.
Interference	Interference is the result of having multiple identities, which happens when the pressure of one identity hinders the performance of another identity and may create a number of physical and negative psychological outcomes.	Benet-Martinez and Hong, 2014; Cooke and Rousseau 1984; Coverman, 1989; Fried et al., 1998; Gerson, 1985; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992; Settles, 2004; Shepherd and Williams, 2018; Thoits, 1991; Van Sell et al., 1981
Authenticity	Individuals, in particular, look for an authentic identity: 'being yourself' or 'becoming yourself' by the link between one's personal experiences and outer manifestations, operating and communicating upon this personal experience in the workplace. On some occasions, authenticity can position itself as a rebellion against social order.	Aupers and Houtman, 2010; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Menard and Brunet, 2011; Roberts, 2007; Yagil and Medler-Lizar, 2013.
Inter-groups	When people from one group interrelate, individually or collectively, with another group or its components in relation to their group identification. As an example of inter-group conduct, group identification will bring about bonding, create well-being, companionship and personal security. Individuals often achieve a higher level of self-esteem by comparing their own group positively to others.	Haslam, 2004; Hogg et al., 2017; Lyubomirova, 2013; Sherif, 1966; Tajfel and Turner, 1979.

Stereotype	Stereotype provides the simplified essence of a group's overall perception of a person or group by downplaying individual differences and exaggerating commonalities, as communicated between individuals and groups. Individuals tend to keep their stereotype of specific groups even after there is a significant indication that disconfirms the actual stereotype that they are using.	Hamilton and Sherman, 1994; Fiske, 1998; Hilton and von Hippel, 1996; Horton et al., 2014; Nadler and Clark, 2011; Stedman, 2006; Topor, 2018; Von Hippel et al., 1995.
Saliency	Saliency theory is still an imprecise term. However, it has been defined as a propriety of a stimulus that permits it to be noticed and to stand out compared to others in the same context; therefore, and according to the dichotic theory of saliency, this stimulus will be in-salient when it is incongruent with a specific environment and re-salient when it is congruent to a specific environment.	Alba et al., 1991; Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Guido, 1995; 1996; Hastie et al., 1984; Heckler and Childers, 1992; Mowen, 1993; Veer et al., 2010.
Occupational Identity	Occupational identity is a set of perceptual components, such as: goals, abilities, occupational interests, and meanings connecting the individual's identity to their career perspectives as generated by previous experience.	Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009; Delanty, 1995; Hirschi, 2012; Ibarra, 1999; Jenkins, 1996; Pratt et al., 2006; Snow and Anderson, 1987.
Work engagement	Work engagement is an optimistic occupational emotional and incentivational state of mind that involves an honest disposition to make an effort in one's work and towards managerial achievement. It is typified by vigour, dedication, absorption and passion for work.	Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Billett and Somerville, 2004; Britt, 2003; Brown, 1996; Brown and Leigh, 1996; Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Zigarmi et al., 2009.
Employee turnover	Employee turnover is the movement, attrition, mobility, exits, migration or succession of employees between jobs, firms and occupations within the labour market, as well as the rotation between the states of unemployment and employment.	Abassi et al., 2000; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Hom et al., 2017; Ivancevich and Glueck, 1989; Morrell et al., 2004; Woods, 1995.

Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

This study concentrates on an understanding of occupational identity, its antecedents and its influences on work engagement and employee turnover. Consequently, the literature review includes all these concepts and the antecedents that can have an influence on occupational identity within the workplace. The current scales linking to domains as well as items were obtained from various academic journals. On the foundation of the theoretic knowledge gained, the conceptual model was formed from the literature review (Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3).

4.5.2. Generation of measurement items

The generation of the questionnaire items is the second stage discussed in Churchill's paradigm

(1979). The next suggestion by De Vellis (2003) was considered to create the scale: “(1) avoiding exceptional length, (2) readability level of each item, (3) double-barrelled items, (4) ambiguous pronoun references, and (5) positive and negatively worded items” (De Vellis, 2003, p.66-70). The multi-item scale that symbolises each construct was developed from a mix of literature and qualitative research, such as semi-structured interviews and focus groups with professionals (Churchill, 1979; Foroudi, 2018; Palmer, 2011).

The single items normally signify “uniqueness or specificity in that each item seems to have only a low correlation with the attribute being measured and tends to relate to other attributes” (Churchill, 1979, p.66). According to Freling et al. (2010), a feature normally understood as gratifying which can be considered more positively and can be developed in a more positive approach toward the object. Alternatively, an attribute that is not recognised as satisfying could be perceived adversely and could be developed in an approach, which has more adversity towards the object. Additionally, the single items have scaling mistakes which could generate “unreliable responses in the same way so that the same scale position is unlikely to be checked in successive administrations of an instrument” (Churchill, 1979, p.66).

In this study the principal reason to use qualitative research was to develop a deeper knowledge and understanding of the theme, based on the previous literature review, using tools such as interviews with managers and professionals and three focus groups. The multiple-item scale to measure constructs was supported by Churchill’s paradigm (1979). In marketing studies, scholars (Churchill, 1979; Kotabe, 1990; Kwon et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2015; Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Peter, 1979, 1981; Zaichkowsky, 1985) have emphasised the importance of considering validity and reliability as a measurement. The investigator generated a number of the measures that were founded on preceding research and signify high levels of validity and reliability. The initial items developed from the literature were filtered and described. The investigator highlighted the key items, which were reduced to prevent repetition in the measures or an excessively long questionnaire. The following principal constructs and measurement items developed from the literature and the qualitative research study are demonstrated in Table 4.10 (further information can be found in Chapter 2 and 3).

Table 4.10: Principal constructs and measurement items developed from literature and the qualitative research

Construct	Measurement Items	Major references
Employer branding		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I want to do the best to represent the company I like to work here because of the sense of belonging I engage with the concept of this restaurant Staff recruitment is not only based on skills but also on values 	Qualitative study
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This restaurant communicates its vision to the employees 	Bendaraviciene et al., 2014; Berthon et al., 2005; Hillebrandt and Ivens, 2013; supported by qualitative study
Passion		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I think the whole idea of passion for food and serving food keeps me identified with my group [waiters] This profession is not about money, but it is about feeling My job is a beautiful experience and I am proud of it 	Qualitative study
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I love working with people 	Lucht, 2015
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This job reflects the qualities I like about myself 	Spehar et al., 2016
Extroversion		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is keeping me in this job is the social life Waiters' identity is about being willing to help 	Qualitative study
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> My colleagues are fun to be around My colleagues in this restaurant are easy to approach and interact with We [in this restaurant] show interest and dedication to guests 	Brown, 2015; Hovenga, 2011; Makomere and Korir, 2017; supported by qualitative study
Education		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I truly understand what the food is about 	Qualitative study
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This job is full of challenges I work in a good working environment I pay attention to my personal image by caring about my presentation and speech 	Lu and Adler, 2009; supported by qualitative study
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consider my job mainly as recreation and less as labour 	Ladkin and Reklitis, 2007
Self-concept		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I am not a waiter who carries plates, I am a food advisor I like operational jobs, solving problems, having initiative 	Qualitative study
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I feel proud of how I am managing my life (occupational identity) I feel as if I don't know myself very well 	Campbell et al 1996, p.145; Eider et al., 2011; Ghaderi, 2005;
Interaction		

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I share the values with the rest of the restaurant staff (managers and kitchen) so I feel part of the whole team • I educate the community and public about my profession • I seek feedback/consultation from professional peers as a form of professional development. 	Qualitative study
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I regularly communicate with a mentor who is interested in my professional development. 	Woo, 2013, p.126
Interferences	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Other parallel roles (e.g. mother, friend, student) in my life help me to perform my job better and to be more empathetic and flexible • My sense of belonging to this restaurant helps me to be focused on my waiter's role only • Respect is the most important thing 	Leong, 2000, p.775; supported by Qualitative study
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When I am working, I forget everything else around me 	Cox et al., 2014; Salanova et al., 2005; Wilmar et al., 2003
Authenticity	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I feel myself in my job • I need to impose my personality on to my job • When I am working, my restaurant is the stage and I am acting 	Qualitative study
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I always feel I need to do what others expect me to do 	White 2011, p.38; Wood et al., 2008, p.388
Inter-groups	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I see waiters as I see myself, intuitive and with good social skills • I always feel very proud to belong to the waiting group 	Qualitative study
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My group [waiters] is a good reflection of who I am • I have a number of qualities typical of waiters 	Feitosa et al., 2012; Moksness, 2014, p.21
Stereotype	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is an amazing experience working in food, which it wasn't in the past • Society sees us as cheating on our partners and as alcoholics • The negative impact about being a waiter is why no one wants to have this profession in the long-term. • The negative idea about being a waiter influences me positively by working harder 	Qualitative study
Salience	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The main thing for me is developing a professional career • The main thing for me is taking pride in what I do • The main thing for me is having values in this restaurant • The main thing for me is autonomy and being able to be yourself • The main thing for me is interaction with peers, managers and customers 	Qualitative study
Occupational identity	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being a waiter is more than just carrying plates and delivering food orders • Your occupation [waiter] has to fit with your desire • My national culture helps me to be a good waiter 	Qualitative study
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My parents' recommendations for my future occupation have helped me in deciding what my profession will be • It is too early for me to be concerned about my professional future • It was hard for me to decide on a career, but now, when I look at myself I think that I will fit the profession I've chosen 	Veiga, 2005, p.1131

Work engagement	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This job keeps me engaged because it is rewarding • This job keeps me engaged because I feel empowered and able to be myself • This job keeps me engaged because I have strong feelings about my job • This restaurant offers secure jobs • Working for this restaurant supports a good work-life-balance 	Qualitative study
Turnover	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You need to have passion for the profession and if you do not have this feeling you will leave soon • I want to leave for better brands, better restaurants, better companies • I want to leave for the next step in my career progression • I want to leave to earn more money within the restaurant sector • I want to leave because of the proximity to where I live 	Qualitative study

Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

4.5.3. Purifying measurement scales

Following Churchill's (1979) paradigm, purifying the measurement scales is the third phase for better development. The figuring for purifying measures is connected to the measurement method that is chosen (Churchill, 1979). Validity is "the degree to which what the researcher was trying to measure was actually measured" (McDaniel and Gates, 2006, p.224-227). This research managed two kinds of validity during the first phases and before managing the principal survey: content validity and face validity. Both have a subjective nature, providing a sign of sufficiency to the questionnaire. Kerlinger (1973) maintains that content validity is fundamentally judgmental and relates to "the extent to which a specific set of items reflects a content domain" (De Vellis, 2003, p.49).

Eleven academic and interviewee experts based in London, who are knowledgeable about the topic, were asked to collaborate in this study to evaluate the content validity of the questionnaire items by applying arbitrating procedures (Bearden et al., 1993; Chen and Raab, 2017; Zaichkowsky, 1985). These experts were asked to make suggestions on the items' suitability and verify the precision of language; any observations were considered for modifications within the questionnaire. The outcomes of this process show the 'informed' assessments of specialists in the content area (Green et al., 1988). The measurement instrument contents relate to the matter, topics and substance, which are incorporated as they correlate to the measure being used (Green et al., 1988; Jehow, 2018). The content analysis limitations and benefits are outlined in Table 4.11

For the face validity assessment, three academics judged whether or not the questionnaire items measured what they were proposed to measure by completing the questionnaire and observing whether the questionnaire measured the intentional construct, providing their feedback on the layout, wording and ease of understanding.

The measure scales that were gathered from the literature review were re-assessed with the answers provided by the interviewed managers and consultants, in addition to the focus group members. Three interviewees suggested employing the present tense in the items as this study is about waiters' perceptions, thus this suggestion was followed.

Table 4.11: Summary of benefits and limitations of content analysis

Benefits:	Limitations
Flexibility of research design e.g. types of inferences	Analyses the communication (message) only
Supplements multi-method analyses	Finding may be questionable alone, therefore, verification using another method may be required
Wide variety of analytical application	Underlying premise must be frequency related
May be qualitative and/or quantitative	Reliability-stability, reproducibility, accuracy of judges
May be automated-improves reliability, reduces cost/time	Validity-construct, hypothesis, predictive and semantic
Range of computer software developed	Less opportunity to pre-test, discuss mechanism with independent judges
Copes with large quantities of data	Undue bias if only part data is analysed, possibly abstracting from context of communication
Unobtrusive, unstructured, context sensitive	Lack of reliability and validity measures reported, raising questions of credibility
Development of standards applicable to specific research, e.g., negotiations	

Source: Harwood and Garry (2003, p.493)

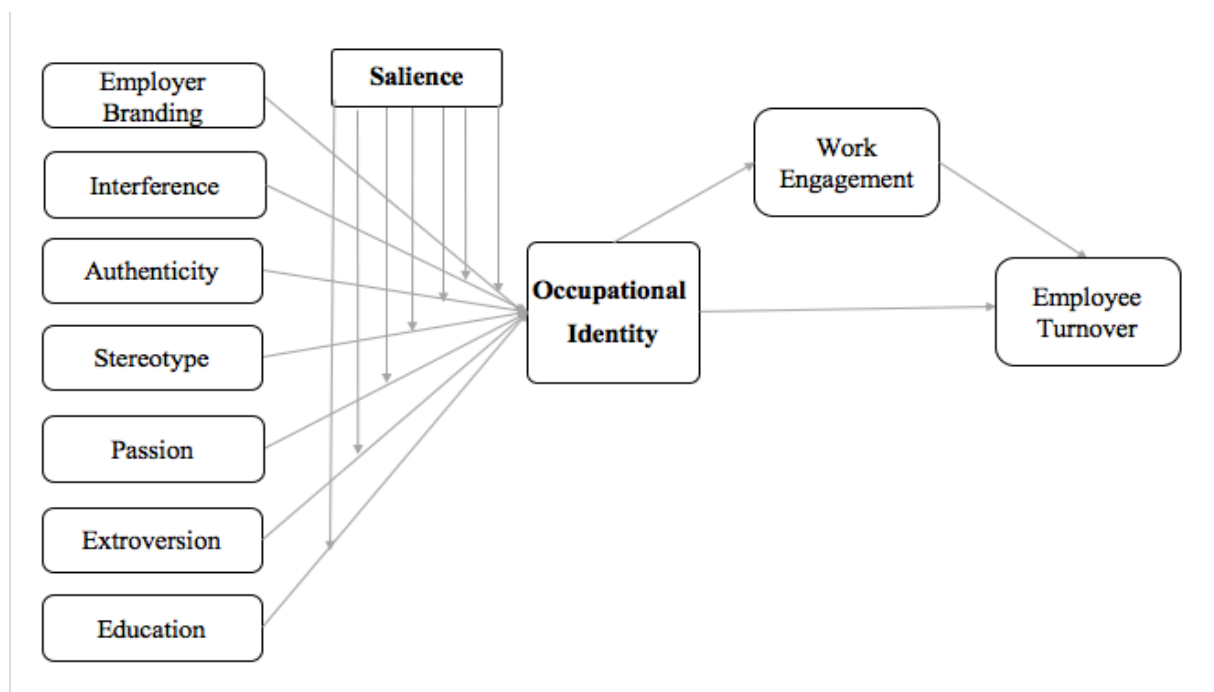
The initial measurement for occupational identity was based on Golden and Veiga's (2005) research, recognising the importance of 'occupational identity' related to career development, this presented items such as: "My parents' recommendations for my future occupation have helped me in deciding what my profession will be"; "It is too early for me to be concerned about my professional future" and "It was hard for me to decide on a career, but now, when I look at myself I think that I will fit the profession I've chosen". These items were identified by literature (Golden and Veiga, 2005, p.1131). However, the experts and academia remarked on the "my parents' recommendations for my future occupation have helped me in deciding what my profession will be", as not representing the construct. As a consequence, the item was

eliminated from the questionnaire.

Similarly, one item was excluded from the items which were identified by Brown, 2015; Hovenga, 2011; Makomere and Korir, 2017: “My colleagues in this restaurant are easy to approach and interact with”, for not representing the construct. The item of scale interferences among multiple identities were from the study by authors Leong and Ward (2000). The experts proposed that this (“Other parallel roles (e.g. mother, friend, student) in my life help me to perform my job better and to be more empathetic and flexible”) is unsuitable to ‘interference among multiple identities’ construct. As a result, this was removed. The experts suggested that “I always feel I need to do what others expect me to do” (White 2011, p.38; Wood et al., 2008) and “I need to impose my personality in my job” were overlapping.

5 items and 3 constructs (self-concept, interaction and inter-groups) were omitted after contemplating the content analysis of the scholars’ suggestions and the final hypotheses were proposed (Figure 4.4; Table 4.12). In Table 4.13 the number of the initial constructs and items for each construct and the number of the polished constructs and items are shown.

Figure 4.4: The final conceptual framework proposed after content and face validity



Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

Table 4.12: List of the final research hypotheses based on the research questions

Hypotheses	
RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?	
H1	There is a positive relationship between employer branding and occupational identity
H2	There is a positive relationship between self-concept and occupational identity
H3	There is a positive relationship between interaction and occupational identity
H4	There is a positive relationship between passion and occupational identity
H5	There is a positive relationship between education and occupational identity
H6	There is a positive relationship between extroversion and occupational identity
H7	There is a positive relationship between stereotype and occupational identity
H8a	Employer branding is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8b	Self-concept is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8c	Interaction is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8d	Passion is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8e	Education is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8f	Extroversion is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
H8g	Stereotype is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity
RQ2: What are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?	
H9	There is a positive relationship between work engagement and occupational identity
H10	There is a positive relationship between occupational identity and employee turnover
H11	There is a positive relationship between work engagement and employee turnover

Source: Developed by the researcher

Table 4.13: The number of final constructs and items for the pre-test

Initial item from Literature review		Literature and qualitative items		After content and face validity		After Pilot study Cronbach Alpha	
Constructs	Items	Construct	Items	Construct	Items	Construct	Items
Employer branding	7	Employer branding	5	Employer branding	5	Employer branding	5
Self-concept	22	Self-concept	4	Removed			
Interaction	5	Interaction	4	Removed			
Interferences	16	Interferences	4	Interferences	5	Interferences	4
Authenticity	14	Authenticity	4	Authenticity	6	Authenticity	6
Inter-groups	23	Inter-groups	4	Removed			
Stereotype	47	Stereotype	4	Stereotype	7	Stereotype	7
Saliency	2	Saliency	5	Saliency	5	Saliency	5
Occupational identity	29	Occupational identity	6	Occupational identity	5	Occupational identity	4
Work engagement	26	Work engagement	5	Work engagement	5	Work engagement	5
Turnover	11	Turnover	5	Turnover	5	Turnover	4
		Passion (New Construct)	5	Passion	5	Passion	5
		Extroversion (New construct)	5	Extroversion	5	Extroversion	5
		Education (New construct)	5	Education	7	Education	6
Removed			137 Items	3 Constructs	5 Items		4 Items ED2; I4; OI4; T1
Total	202	14	65	11	60	11	56

Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

Malhotra and Birks (2003) recommend pilot testing should be conducted before the main survey. The reason for pilot testing is to contribute improvements to the questionnaire measurement scale so that participants have no difficulty answering (Saunders et al., 2007), making the arena survey for the research more successful as well as generate reliable and valid measures.

The majority of items utilised interval scores and scales on the Likert-type scale (anchored by 1, strongly disagree and 7, strongly agree) depending on the participants' understanding of the conditions. The Likert scale requires the participants to indicate a level of disagreement or agreement to assess attitude towards their occupational identity. In marketing studies, the Likert-scale is the most normally employed scale and gives suitable values related to the

fundamental range of answers (Bagozzi, 1994; Malhotra, 2010). Scholars (Anderson and Weitz, 1989; Churchill and Peter, 1984; O'Neill and Palmer, 2004) proposed that, in order to improve construct variance and reduce mistakes in the alteration of the measures, substituting the universal five-point Likert-scale with a seven-point Likert-scale should enlarge the amount of scale points. Founded on the quantitative valuation outcomes, scale items were submitted and adjusted to gauge refining throughout the questionnaire (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Measurement items of the theoretical constructs and the codes

Construct	Items wording	Items codes
Employer branding		
	I want to do my best to represent the restaurant where I work	EB_1
	I like working in this restaurant because of the sense of belonging	EB_2
	I engage with the mission of this restaurant	EB_3
	This restaurant communicates its concept of business to the employees	EB_4
	Staff recruitment is not only based on skills but also on values	EB_5
Passion		
	I think the whole idea of passion for food and service keeps me identified with my group [waiters]	P_1
	This profession is not about money but it is about vocation	P_2
	I am proud of my job	P_3
	I love working with people	P_4
	This job reflects the qualities I like about myself	P_5
Extroversion		
	What is keeping me in this job is the interaction with others	E_1
	Being a waiter is about helping people	E_2
	My colleagues are fun to be around	E_3
	My colleagues in this restaurant are easy to approach and interact with	E_4
	In this restaurant, we show interest in and dedication to the guests	E_5
Education		
	I truly understand what the culture of food is about	ED_1
	I pay attention to my personal image by caring about my presentation and how I talk to people	ED_3
	I consider my job mainly as recreation and less as occupation	ED_4
	I share values with the rest of the restaurant staff (managers and kitchen) so I feel part of the whole team	ED_5
	I educate society about my profession	ED_6
	I seek feedback/consultation from colleagues as a form of professional development	ED_7
	I regularly communicate with a mentor who is helping me in my professional development	ED_8
Interferences		

Authenticity	My sense of belonging to this restaurant helps me to be focused on my role as a waiter	I_1
	When I am working, I forget everything else around me	I_2
	Other parallel roles (e.g. mother, friend, student) in my life help me to perform my job better and to be more empathetic and flexible	I_3
	The clarity of the explanation about the nature of my work help me to adapt my professional life to my personal life	I_5
Stereotype	I feel I can be myself at work	A_1
	When I am at work, I feel the restaurant is the stage and I am an actor	A_2
	I like operational jobs, solving problems, taking initiative	A_3
	I feel proud of how I am managing my career	A_4
	I am not just a waiter who carries plates, I am a food advisor	A_5
Salience	I see waiters as I see myself, intuitive and with good social skills	S_1
	I always feel very proud to belong to the waiting group	S_2
	My group [waiters] is a good reflection of who I am	S_3
	I have a number of qualities typical of waiters	S_4
	It is an amazing experience working in the food industry, which it wasn't in the past	S_5
Occupational identity	Taking pride on what to do is important for me	SA_2
	The main point for me is being able to be myself	SA_3
	The main point for me is interaction with peers, managers and customers	SA_4
	Respect is the most important thing	SA_5
Work engagement	Being a waiter is more than just carrying plates and delivering food orders	OI_1
	Your occupation [waiter] has to fit with your expectation	OI_2
	The culture of my nationality helps me to be a good waiter	OI_3
	It was hard for me to decide on a career, but now, when I look at myself I think that I will fit the profession I've chosen	OI_5
Turnover	My job is engaging because it gives me recognition	WE_1
	My job keeps me engaged because I feel empowered and able to be myself	WE_2
	This restaurant offers secure jobs	WE_3
	Working for this restaurant provides a good work-life-balance	WE_4
	I work in a good working environment	WE_5
Turnover	I want to leave my job for better restaurants	T_2
	I want to leave for the next step in my career progression	T_3
	I want to leave to earn more money within the restaurant sector	T_4
	I want to leave because of the proximity to where I live	T_5

Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

4.5.3.1. Quantitative assessment: pilot study

Following the qualitative valuation, the exploratory research reviewed the questionnaire for testing the hypotheses. Founded on suggestions by participants, crucial amendments were instigated for application in the current survey (Malhotra and Birks, 2003) to know whether the measurement scales and the constructs are valid in order to assess reliability throughout the pilot study (Saunders et al., 2007).

4.5.3.1.1. Pilot study

A pre-test or pilot study is connected to the measurement instrument creation and questionnaire that are employed in the principal survey (Foroudi, 2012; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Academics (Haralambos and Holborn, 2000; MacDaniel and Gates, 2006; Peter, 1979; Saunders et al., 2007) state that pilot studies point to gauge the important conditions through instrument refining; for instance, assessing the language used in the questions, form, order and format, instruction and question complexity, understanding of the participants, percentage of rate of answers, questionnaire conclusion analysis and timing procedures. The pilot study development is to assess that there are no unclearly unarticulated items within the questionnaire (Welman and Kruger, 2001); participants have no difficulties in logging the documents and are able to simply respond to the questions (Saunders et al., 2007). Participants should not have any problems responding (Saunders et al., 2007) in order for the researcher to measure clarity and survey timing factors, reliability of the constructs, and manipulation of tests (Malhotra, 2010). To purify the measurement instrument, the pilot study was employed and amendments made in the gauges to create valid and reliable measures. This process should assist the participants to respond to the questions without any difficulties (Saunders et al., 2007).

For this quantitative pre-test, the research employed a random sampling system, with waiters from London restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred restaurant guide, 83 self-administered questionnaires were circulated and completed during the period of September to October 2017. After cleaning the data, 80 questionnaires were used to examine the reliability of the measures. The demographic profile of the waiters' pre-test sample is shown in Table 4.15. A comprehensive process of questionnaire testing and piloting followed.

The average participants in a pilot study sample are between 20 and 40 participants, incorporating all the undertakings that contribute to the final survey (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). In this study, 80 participants who are waiters in Michelin-starred restaurants in London verified

the questionnaire for the pre-test study. The pilot study questionnaires were not included in the final contributions to the research, as this would have had an influence on the findings (Haralambos and Holborn, 2000).

Table 4.15: Demographic profile of waiters' pilot sample (N = 80)

Sample size (80)	N	%
Less than 19 years or less		
20 to 29 years	59	73.8
30 to 39 years	14	17.5
40 to 49 years	5	6.3
50 to 59 years	2	2.5
60 years old or more		
Total	80	100
Male	26	32.5
Female	54	67.5
Total	80	100
Secondary school	34	42.5
Undergraduate	27	33.8
Postgraduate and above	19	23.8
Total	80	100

Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

In the purifying procedures of the scale, 80 questionnaires were gathered to measure the reliability to confirm that: “measures are free from the error and therefore yield consistent results” (Peter, 1979, p.6). Reliability refers to whether a range of variables is stable for what it is expected to assess and was measured via Cronbach’s alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Melewar (2001) states that before managing the principal survey, it is essential that “the measures used are developed and investigated for the reliability” (Melewar, 2001, p.38). Reliability is an essential requirement of validity. The scale presented a high degree of reliability, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .702 and higher. However, four items were deleted (ED_2, I_4, OI_4 and T_1) to increase Cronbach’s alpha values from .535 to .702 and higher.

After removing the items, the researcher continued a reliability test in order to evaluate whether the constructs, particularly the reviewed items, would yield encouraging outcomes, and the “measures are free from random error” and “provide a consistent data” (McDaniel and Gates, 2006, p.222). Examining how participants answered the survey questions/items connected to the constructs obtainable in the conceptual framework is a significant stage. According to scholars (Churchill, 1979; Foroudi et al., 2012; 2018; Hair et al., 2018), the questionnaire is also identified as an analysis of psychometric properties, which involve a satisfactory reliability.

4.6. MAIN SURVEY

Within a social study, a survey investigation instrument is one of the core parts of measurement utilised. To gather the survey information from waiters working in restaurants in London recommended by the Michelin-starred restaurant guide, this research employed a self-managed questionnaire. This research employed random sampling, as it has been stated, “the random sampling method allows the researcher to draw external valid conclusions about the entire population based on the sample ... free of classification error ... allow the researcher to make relatively few observations, which can be generalised to a wider population” (Ukandu and Ukpere, 2014, p.37). In the following section, the technique of sampling and sample magnitude are discussed.

To generate statistics and generalise the outcomes to a bigger population, sampling approaches can be employed: “The segment of population that is selected for investigation is defined as the sample” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.182). The sample is a subgroup of the ‘research population’. According to Malhotra and Birks (2003), a sample has been defined as a group of characteristics chosen from a population that defines the principal part of the study, from which a high external validity is expected (Churchill, 1999). Sampling should accurately and clearly describe the population, due to the possibility of the sample drawn being influenced for population specification error, sampling frame error and selection error (McDaniel and Gates, 2006). The features of the participants, for example education, age and gender were requested in the questionnaire. Bryman and Bell (2007) have described population as, “the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. The term ‘units’ is employed because it is not necessarily people who are being sampled - the researcher may want to sample from a universe of nations, cities, regions, firms, etc. Thus ‘population’ has a much broader meaning than the everyday use of the term, whereby it tends to be associated with a nation’s entire population” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.182).

When researchers need information from a wide and varied population size, they do not normally include a whole population. The common procedure is to employ a sample from the identified population and they will be selected following the aims of the survey (Salant and Dillman, 1994). Time and money are principal motives in employing a sample. The population sample should be symbolic so that it permits the investigator to make inferences and generalisations about the population under examination. The survey sample offers the

advantages of obtaining the relevant data from a few participants to describe the feature of the whole population (Hair et al., 2018). When the sample magnitude is too low, it is limited in its precision to give valid responses to the research questions being studied. Conversely, if the sample proportion is large, resources and time may be in vain, with minimum benefit. For any research, the sample proportion of the study must be decided during the scheming phase of the research. When deciding, these key aspects should be considered: the level of sampling error that can be allowed; population size; the population diversity in relation to features of significance; the minimum sample subgroup that estimations are needed for (Salant and Dillman, 1994).

Two principal sampling procedures have been categorised by Bryman and Bell (2007): probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sample is: “a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected. It is generally assumed that a representative sample is more likely to be the outcome when this method of selection from the population is employed. The aim of probability sampling is to keep sampling error to a minimum” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.182). A non-probability sample is explained as “a sample that has not been selected using a random selection method. Essentially, this implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.182). For this quantitative survey, the research will employ a random sampling system, as it has been stated, “the logic behind simple random sampling is that it removes bias from the selection procedure and should result in representative samples” (Gravetter and Forzano, 2011, p.142). In other words, this research is principally founded on a ‘probability’ sample, namely, a random sampling method. Rubin and Babbie (2016) state, “probability sampling is the primary method for selecting large, representative samples for social science research” (p.132).

The population of this research is the waiters who work in Michelin-starred restaurants in London. The emphasis of this research was perceptions of waiters on occupational identity and its impact on work engagement and turnover in the UK over three months, commencing on 20 October 2017 until 31 January 2018. The data was gathered employing diverse collection approaches. In the survey, 530 questionnaires were distributed by email utilising random sampling founded on using respondents who were part of the Michelin restaurant guide in London. Denscombe (2007) states that a survey rarely achieves a reply from every contact made. Two web-based online survey tools were used to connect the questionnaires online (as

an alternative to filling in the online questionnaires) during the third week of November, and the completion deadline for the questionnaires was 31 January 2018. 36 of the 530 questionnaires were submitted. All of them were collected from the emailed restaurants and none from online survey tools, but, as Nulty (2008) elucidates, with web-based questionnaires the response rate is likely to be low and the dissociation between investigator and participants is vague in validity of the results.

394 questionnaires were managed on a face-to-face basis at 240 London restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred restaurant guide that were visited; considering that it was the Christmas period the highest season for restaurants in London, it was harder to persuade waiters to participate. In large-scale surveys, face-to-face questionnaire gathering is the most popular and accurate sampling technique employed (Churchill, 1999) as the focus is on the participant completing the questionnaire. Stevens (1996) states that a meticulous data sample for statistical analysis ought to be more than 300 participants. Additionally, Bentler and Chou (1987) maintain that five observations per variable are suitable when the statistics are entirely distributed and have no outlying or missing observations. A total of 430 questionnaires were initially gathered; 32 were omitted due to huge volumes of missing information, neutral or extreme responses. After cleaning the data, a total of 398 acceptable questionnaires were analysed.

The questionnaire was composed of three pages plus an attached covering letter (Dillman, 2000). As maintained by Armstrong and Overton (1977), non-response bias “involves the assumption that people who are more interested in the subject of a questionnaire respond more readily and that non-response bias occurs on items in which the subject’s answer is related to his interest in the questionnaire” (Armstrong and Overton, 1977, p.2).

4.6.1. Appropriate number of participants

The following paragraphs will elucidate frequently utilised methods for establishing a suitable size for a sample. Choosing the right number of contributors in a sample is tricky and complicated. The principal methods employed are connected to the processes and techniques of the data analysis (Hair et al., 2018). As purported by Hair et al. (2018), the five key characteristics which influence the size of the sample in structure equation modelling (SEM) to achieve consistent estimates (Raykov and Widaman, 1995) are as follows: ‘Multivariate distribution of the data’, in the instance of non-normal data the ratio of participants to

parameters must be higher, e.g. 15:1; 'estimation technique', sample size should be between 150 to 400 answers if applying maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method (Hair et al., 2018); 'model complexity', the sample size founded on model complexity should be as follows: SEM with five or less constructs can be approximated with a small sample size between 100 to 150, if each construct is gauged by more than three items and the item communalities are higher than .6. If any of the communalities are limited (.45 to .55) or the model includes a construct with fewer than three items, the necessary sample size is 200 (Hair et al., 2018). If the number of factors in the replica is more than six, some constructs gauge by less than three items and the communalities are low, then a large sample size that might surpass 500 is mandatory; 'Missing data', if more than 10% of information is anticipated to be lost, the sample size should be augmented; 'Average error variance of indicator': large sample sizes are needed when the constructs communalities are smaller than .5 (Foroudi, 2012, p.179).

Founded on the five considerations above, there is no accurate or complete sample size limit recognised in the methodology literature. As there have been no systematic empirical studies which have comprehensively acknowledged the influence of occupational identity construction on waiter perception (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009; Delanty, 1995; Hirschi, 2012; Ibarra, 1999; Jenkins, 1996; Pratt et al., 2006; Snow and Anderson, 1987), this research is one of the most rigorous and comprehensive tests to date for understanding the relationship between the research constructs. This research employs SEM; an empirical ratio of at least five observations per estimate parameter (Bollen, 1989) and communalities of above .5 have also been proposed (Hair et al., 2018). Considering all the different possibilities, the sample size targeted is 398 respondents in this study.

4.7. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Since occupational identity is a set of perceptual components such as goals, abilities, occupational interests and meanings connecting the individual's identity to their career perspectives as generated by previous experience, its operationalisation involves a specific type of restaurant to be assessed. The participants were supplied with an indicative organisation to measure the questionnaires. Due to this comparatively underdeveloped part of study, a particular organisation needs to be evaluated (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991). Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) maintain that focus groups assist in recognising the idea of the main construct and to create a list of associated

organisations.

Subsequently, preliminary versions of the questionnaire were created with the elaboration of the individual measurement scales for each of the constructs. The Likert scale is one of the most usually employed scales of studies in marketing (Bagozzi, 1994; Johnson, 2001), in which participants state a level of disagreement or agreement to assess the approach towards their occupational identity. Attitude scales endeavour to regulate what a person feels, perceives or believes. Thoughts may be gauged toward others, self, and a diversity of other organisations, situations and activities (Johnson, 2001). According to Churchill and Peter (1984) to augment build discrepancy and reduce magnitude error discrepancy, the scale measurement should be augmented by changing from a five-point Likert scale to a seven-point Likert scale. To answer the research questions, a Likert scale was used. This study used a seven-point Likert scale (anchored by 0, “strongly disagree”, to 7, “strongly agree”), as designed by Churchill and Peter (1984) to increase construct variance and decrease measurement error variance. Respondents were also asked questions regarding their age, gender, income, educational status and ethnic background.

4.8. DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES FOR THE MAIN SURVEY

Descriptive statistics were conducted by using SPSS 21 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), before performing the major part of the analysis to show the central dispersion, a tendency of the variables, calculating the means and the standard deviation. Skewness and Kurtosis were performed for normal data distribution. The data analysis in this study was analysed in three different stages, consisting of: (1) Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to examine the structure of the construct and to identify appropriate items to measure the construct (Hair et al. 2018); (2) Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to assess the measurement model; and (3) Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to assess the structural model (Henseler and Chin, 2010). EFA was performed to reduce the items and identifying patterns in the data (De Vaus, 2002), while, CFA was performed to confirm the factor structure that emerged in the EFA. In this technique, validity and reliability of the construct by its items were assessed (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988) based on composite reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. SEM was conducted to prevent potential influences between structural measurements (Hair et al., 2018), models and to evaluate the hypotheses by using AMOS 21 Windows.

4.8.1 Assessment of measurement model

This stage presents CFA of a set of observed variables that were items of empirical and theoretical constructs provided and assessed in this research study. It was conducted to reject or confirm the measurement theory (Bagozzi, 1994). In this part, the unidimensionality, validity and reliability of the latent constructs were gauged (Hair et al., 2016; Snow and Anderson, 1987). The unidimensionality test should be performed first before testing validity and reliability.

- (1) Unidimensionality is accomplished when all measuring indicators have acceptable factor loadings for the particular construct (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Hence, to ensure unidimensionality of a measurement model, CFA was applied to demonstrate that it was constituted of a set of theoretical items (Hair et al., 2018; Hattie, 1985).
- (2) Reliability: CFA permits the calculation of a further valuation of a construct's reliability, namely composite reliability (Gerbing and Anderson, 1992, Hair et al., 2018). Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend a rule of thumb level of higher than .70, to determine internal consistency of scale.
- (3) Validity: Convergent validity was verified by using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) average variance extract (AVE). The value of AVE should be .5 or greater to achieve the validity (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1982). Discriminant validity indicates that the items of the latent variables are different from the indicators of other constructs (Chau, 1997; Malhotra and Birks, 2003; Peter and Churchill, 1986). Discriminant validity can be gauged by average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct and associated with the squared correlation between them (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). If the squared correlation (error-disattenuated or structural equation model) between two latent variables (LVs) is fewer than either of their individual AVEs, this proposes the constructs each have more error free (extracted or internal) variance than variance divided with other constructs (r^2). Lastly, nomological validity refers to the examination of the hypothesised relationships between a construct and the empirical links between indicators and their underlying dimensions (Peter, 1981; Peter and Churchill, 1986). In addition, use of the goodness of fit indices is helpful for testing nomological validity.

4.8.2. Structural equation modelling (SEM)

This research conducted structural equation modelling (SEM) using AMOS 21, to expand understanding into the relationships between discrete independent variables and dependent variables (Hair et al., 2018). Thus, SEM provides the most competent and appropriate statistical technique that determines measurement models and structural models to assess complex behavioural relationships (Nusair and Hua, 2010). Model evaluation is one of the main phases of SEM. Many model fit indices have been established. Conversely, under diverse situations model complexity, sample size, violation of underlying assumptions of multivariate normality, estimation procedure, and variable independence can be superior to others. Thus, in following the recommendation of Anderson and Gerbing (1982), two steps were used in this research to test the proposed model.

One step shows the relationship between constructs (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012). Previous to this step, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the relationship between a latent variable and its items (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). The next step SEM “is based on causal relationships” (Hair et al., 2018, p.592). The stability of the estimated model and theoretical model founded on the observed values are established with the overall fit of a structural model (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000; Hair et al., 2018). The overall fit of the structural model endorses uniformity of the estimated and theoretical models, which is founded on the observed values (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012). To test the overall model fit there are many statistical techniques, however, the following are currently very popular fit indices: Chi-square, GFI, AGFI and RMSEA (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16: Results of the best fitting model

	Type	Acceptance level in this research
Coefficient alpha (α) Standardised Regression Weight (β)	Unidimensionality	$\alpha > .7$ adequate and $> .5$ is acceptable
		Beta $> .15$
Chi-square (with associated degrees of freedom and probability of significant difference (df, p))	Model fit	$p > .05$ (at α equals to $.05$ level)
Normed chi-square (/df)	Absolute fit and model parsimony	$< /df < 3.0$
Normalised fit index (NFI) Non-normalised fit index (NNFI)	Incremental fit Compare your model to baseline independent model	Values above $.08$ and close $.90$ indicate acceptable fit
Comparative fit index (CFI) Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) Adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI) Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Absolute fit	$.90$
		$.90$
		$.08$

Source: Developed from Foroudi (2012) and Hair et al. (2018)

4.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The study activity of scholastic studies must be supported and knowledgeable of the ethics. These are founded on the British Educational Research Association (2004) and the guidelines presented by the Middlesex University ethics form. For the research, it is important and critical to understand the fundamentals of ethical research and its consequence. All social and business investigators share a few ethical interests (Jowell, 1986). Investigators need to manage their studies in a correct approach and aligned with a specific and relevant topic. This thesis considers five fundamental factors: (1) The topic rights are to defend the constitutional rights of the social research groups by protecting the groups' privacy, eluding needless disruption and acquiring authorisation from the individuals studied. (2) The research's ethical conduct must accurately define the study questions. (3) Another matter is to understand the cultural and social differences. (4) Intensify public confidence in their reliability when information on the procedures is completed. (5) The cover letter should show the contemplation of how questionnaires can disrupt the privacy of people (Appendix 4.2). All focus groups and interview meetings were digitally recorded except for one of the contributors. Founded on the above, Middlesex University approved its authorisation to accomplish this study.

4.10. SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the methodology and statistical approach applied in this research to assess an occupational identity measurement scale for the operational model and hypotheses proposed. Standard procedures recommended in Churchill's (1979) paradigm were mainly applied. Qualitative methods as a first stage were employed to extend the knowledge of waiters' perception of occupational identity. There were two tools of qualitative data collection in this research: interview and focus group, the results of which in combination with the existing literature informed the items created in the designed questionnaire. A pre-test (pilot study) was conducted with a total of 80 participants within the restaurant sector to assess the reliability and validity of the measurement items prepared for the final survey. The last phase with the quantitative approach was directed at employing a questionnaire with 398 waiters of Michelin-starred restaurants. The key points relating to data collection have been explained, such as the unit of analysis, the formation of a survey tool and the statistical techniques that were applied for analysing data: EFA, CFA and SEM. In the next chapter the principal qualitative study data will be analysed and discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the importance of the methodology applied in this thesis. Qualitative studies presume that an unstructured technique of enquiry encourages participants to elect their own clarifications: this permits superior possibility for new perceptions (Aaker et al., 2001). This section shows the outcomes from focus groups and interviews, in relation to the following objectives.

The purpose of this research is to collect more in-depth data to expand the understanding of occupational identity and its influences on work engagement and employee turnover, as well as to corroborate the previous conceptual framework and recognise other significant constructs that might not be recognised in previous literature. The qualitative results are founded on a study of eleven interviews with managers, lecturers and waiters in the UK and three focus groups with waiters from restaurants in London. Aspects of the assortment of participants for interview and the nature of the interviews, the preparation, managing and data elucidation of the qualitative stage are described in Chapter 4. In Section 5.2 the outcomes of the qualitative analysis are explained. Concluding remarks are made in Section 5.3.

5.2. RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

The main aim of qualitative study is to engage in research that probes for deeper understanding rather than examining surface aspects in general. This section presents the results and reports the data supporting the emerging themes of the current study on occupational identity and its impact on work engagement and employee turnover.

The proposed conceptual framework based on the findings of the literature review and qualitative study (Figure 4.3. in Chapter 4) has been empirically assessed and confirmed, acknowledging seven antecedents of occupational identity that impact on work engagement and employee turnover. Saliency is used as a moderator of this relationship, to better illustrate the grade of the stimuli. Examples of antecedents that were disclosed are employer branding, acknowledged by the scholars (Alshathry et al., 2017; Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Ashcraft, 2007; Sullivan, 2004; Wallace et al., 2014). Inter-groups and stereotype are recognised by the literature (Arlin and Pekerli, 2017; Fiske, 1998; Hamilton and Sherman, 1994; Hilton and Von

Hippel, 1996; Horton et al., 2014; Lyubomirova, 2013; Nadler and Clark, 2011; Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Von Hippel et al., 2011), as is self-concept (Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2003; Loy, 2017; McLean, 2005; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Attitude in the workplace such as social interaction, multiple identities, interference or authenticity is further recognised by the literature (Blais et al., 2006; Creassia and Parker, 2007; Menard and Brunet, 2011). The last constructs of this model, as consequences of occupational identity relate to work engagement and employee turnover.

In line with the literature, all interviewees emphasised the significance of sustaining and developing a favourable occupational identity. In consonance with the literature reviewed, participants who stressed the value of a favourable occupational identity noted that it influences waiters' perceptions of the role and organisation team, and emphasised its main influence in attracting and retaining waiters in today's competitive market. Furthermore, three new constructs and hypotheses of the antecedents of occupational identity were identified, namely education, passion and extroversion (Figure 4.4. and Table 4.14. in Chapter 4).

5.2.1. Occupational identity

There are numerous aspects of the construction of occupational identity that symbolise the perception of waiters towards a workplace. Related literature and personnel in the interviews and focus groups denote those aspects. This study reinforces the previous aspects developed from previous study results, commencing with the definition of occupational identity as “the clear perception of occupational interests, abilities, goals, and values, and the structure of the meaning that links these self-perceptions to career roles” (Hirschi, 2012; p.4). Results suggest that the proposed definition reflects and captures the domain accurately. That is, most participants generally agreed with the significance of the aspect of abilities, goals and values and the structure of the meaning, which are the crucial characteristics of the meaning, and this was also emphasised by one interviewee with different synonyms but the same meaning:

“I think the occupational identity will be very much driven by an interest in food, for great quality food, for great quality service, and by sharing that interest with people, with the community of people who work in that place and have the same goals” (Partner, 50 years old).

Likewise, concerning values, one waiter added:

“... and is basically taking care of people, I think people see it differently right here, like caring about what being a waiter is so you have to be polite, you have to be extra I don't know ... you have to be nice to everyone you have to be lovely to people in your restaurant so identity is being responsible to people being polite and being efficient. Thanks [to] the identity, at least for me” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

Some participants proposed extending the description by enhancing further characteristics to it. For instance, one respondent was of the view that the concept might also involve the aspect of interrelation with others:

“They are the face of the business and the person taking care of most of the guests. I mean should be friendly cause if you are not friendly with the person from your face they think maybe he's not working with passion ... You have to be hard working. You have to do a lot [of] things and constantly think about different things you need to do ... No, I think you need to be first of all professional, keep the standards, ... Good training ... good relationship with management” (Chef, 35 years old).

Throughout the study, most participants in the focus groups and interviews acknowledged new aspects of waiters' occupational identity that this study has not researched from the previous literature review, such as passion, extroversion and education.

5.2.1.1. Passion

The passion aspect as part of waiters' occupational identity was generally agreed and particularly stressed by lecturers and managers: findings from the qualitative study indicated that the need for targeted and specialist knowledge about the food served at the restaurant is an important element which is connected to waiter decisions when choosing which restaurant they would work in. Additionally, the data analysis of interviewees reveal an emphasis on what the company stands for, restaurant concept and waiters' sense of belonging, which influences their perception. The following comments illustrate participants' assessment of this source of finding:

“[Waiters] are very passionate about food, and they want to grow with the industry” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

“You [as a waiter] need to have passion for the profession and if you do not have this feeling you will leave soon” (Waiter 2, 35 years old).

“I like to make people feel good and I love food and I have always had a passion for cocktails for instance. I used to work as a cocktail bartender and for me it was great to do that - I was doing things I loved, I was putting on shows” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

One interviewee particularly referred to customers’ cues that are deliberately or not deliberately sent to waiters and help to keep this enthusiasm or passion for work.

“I do this as it is a fun job, it is a job that keeps the adrenaline going. I love to see people leave my restaurant with a smile on their face, knowing my name and wanting to come back, then I love seeing them come back as well” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

The above quotes are in line with definitions of employee passion from researchers (Little and Little, 2006; Macy and Schneider, 2008; Newman and Harrison, 2008; Saks, 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Zigarmi et al., 2009) as well as the employee engagement scholars (Kular et al., 2008; Susi and Jawaharrani, 2011; Tulasi and Vijayalakshmi, 2012), who assert that employees are engaged when harnessed as company members themselves to their work roles; this is described in commitment, personal expression and employing themselves cognitively, physically and emotionally during role performances. Furthermore, interviewees affirmed the following:

“I think [what waiters] want is to give a good service to offer the best they can do to people joining for lunch, dinner, drinks whatever it is ... Because they represent the company and they want to be their best to represent the company ... so yeah you see occupational identity as part or linked with their organisational identity as well ... In this context, yes” (Vice President, sales, 45 years old).

The previous comments show that waiters also consider themselves to be ambassadors for their restaurant’s philosophy.

5.2.1.2. Extroversion

This qualitative research denoted another significant factor of occupational identity, which is the social experience that includes the interpersonal relationship with others, e.g. an interaction between two or more individuals that may vary in time from concise to continuing (Nargunde, 2013). Moreover, hospitality provides a range of social contacts and relationships (Baum, 2002).

Social skills, specific extroversion, which is defined as people's level of comfort with relationships with other individuals (Espegren and Panicker, 2015), showed within the research findings as an important influence in the construction of waiters' occupational identity. It was clear that managers interviewed in this study considered the waiter's ideal profile would include these characteristics. For example:

"It's instant reward, ... I think that if you want to get the best out of your waiter ... You recruit more a personality rather than skills, because I think skill can be important it's true, but the personality is something people will have or not, so I don't see you can influence too much. I don't think you can teach anybody to answer to a customer in a way or another. So ... what we are looking for in a waiter is his/her natural ability to calm down a customer if they are in a hurry or a very stressed businessman, or someone who can keep the heart beat level of family with energy, or ... someone who can adapt himself, so ... a kind of actor somehow, or ...yeah, a bit of an actor!" (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

In other words, managers are ideally seeking extrovert employees who are talkative, sociable, positive and dominant (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2013). Another manager interviewee also agreed to the above statement but in addition highlighted the inconvenience of not having this specific quality, or employing introverts who tend to be reserved, quiet and shy (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2013):

"...but the problem is if you are a little bit too shy...they don't realise that it is a very tough job and you need many skills to do it" (Waiter 3, 25 years old).

Likewise, building and maintaining strong social skills and extroversion will be useful not only for working in the restaurant sector but in any field. As explained by one lecturer participant,

who had his own experience of working as a waiter whilst he was a student, and in revising his posterior career development during the interview, he came to the following conclusion:

“It is a special kind of work ... But sometimes you know it’s a special kind of pressure, because you know they’re carrying capacity of the customers, they [waiters] work in conditions sometimes that’s [a] bit tense. But I think it is a great port. And for me personally it was a great curriculum vitae because you understand, ok the customers, their way little by little ... and besides because you are working with customers from different cultures, countries and so on” (Hospitality lecturer, 50 years old).

The previous example is consistent with the work of some authors (Wildes, 2005; Ellingson et al., 2016; Tews et al., 2014) already mentioned in the literature review, who state that employees with experience in the restaurant industry could deal better with any job thereafter. Models of occupational selection recommend that extroverts should choose social occupations (Espgren and Panicker, 2015). Ellingson et al., 2016 found that extroversion was positively related to preference for social occupations.

Furthermore, another participant still working within the restaurant sector highlighted the importance of social skills at the beginning of her career as one of the main factors in helping her to develop her occupational identity. This response shows how important innate social skills are in relating personal identity to waiting career perspectives:

“I love working with people. The food is important but the services is a million times more important than the food ... make the customer to enjoy themselves ... very important to look after the customers’ money and to make sure the service they offer is worth the money. I like to give a good service that the customers get good value for money” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

Continuing within the line of social studies, the scholar Homans (1958) offered the Social Exchange theory, which stated that ‘give and take’ creates the foundation of almost all relationships, however the magnitude may diverge as per the strength of the relationship (Obakpolo, 2015). Furthermore, interpersonal relationships at work are understood as the day-to-day interactions amongst co-workers. These relationships are an innate part of the work

setting and are regularly creative and pleasant, but occasionally the cause of frustration and tension. The following quotes reflect this idea:

“The main factor [of waiters’ occupational identity] is the relationship with other waiters”
(Waiter 1, 25 years old).

“The main factors [of the construction of occupational identity] are the relationship with your peers [kitchen staff and waiters]” (Chef, 35 years old).

This study proves that extroversion has a significant effect in the construction of waiters’ occupational identity because this career relies on and influences relationships with others. This factor at the same time might involve a high level of comfort towards others. Being influential, sociable, and talkative illustrates a high level of the extroversion factor.

5.2.1.3. Education

A key subject emerging among waiters, lecturers and managers whilst gathering the data is work based learning. Work based learning or learning occurs when an individual engages in the activities, experiences and purposes of the place of work (Reeve et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2005). Learning can result from the experience of continuing work, which can be presented in a way that can be assessed and evidenced (Martin, 2003). Participants hinted at many learning experiences they had enjoyed, being educational and which had contributed to developing their occupational identity. For instance, the Can-Do attitude programme emerged from an idea that ‘whatever needs to be done, can be done; and will be done’ (Phillips and DeLeon, 2017), or the ‘habit loop’ training programme which consists of three elements: a cue, a routine, and a reward; understanding these elements can help in understanding how to change bad habits or form good ones (Mellinger, 2014). These training programmes, as well as being engaging for employees, may result in them being more effective on the job and being able to perform different jobs in other areas. Two participants recounted:

“I used to work for XX hotels and they have got a very good ethic behind them. It is a programme that is ‘Yes I can do it’ (YICDI) used for ethical training purposes. The training programme that they give you (YICDI) empowers you as an individual, teaches you lots [of] skills, how to deal with difficult situations and how to handle complaints. Even the skills to manage changes in the mood in the customer and it gives you the freedom to do a lot but not in

all companies ...” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

“You need to remember that when doing anything, so say you polish your glass ... that glass has to be polished nicely without any stains or lipstick marks or whatever. So, it is called the habit loop. It’s basically based on small habits of the team. We build the team we share the skills. So, if someone is say a team of six, we are a team of six ... we share the skills of each other. And if someone is strong in some area then they become [a] trainer for the others. So, the person can grow in that also. And if someone else is strong in some area let’s say upselling, they can also train the others. So, [let’s] say the skills they share and obviously, you need a proper training like a monthly training where this person stands” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

Some restaurant companies deliberately accommodate their employees’ learning preferences while endeavouring to maintain general training programmes as a secondary stage. However, today’s employees take development as learning experience for granted. In a study, Jacobs and Washington (2003) described employee development as “an integrated set of planned programs, provided over a period, to help assure that all individuals have the competence necessary to perform to their fullest potential in support of the organization’s goals” (Jacobs and Washington, 2003, p.344). Development training increases personal efficiency by inducing a sense of perseverance, developing coping and learning skills and enhanced self-understanding. Development training accelerates learning and encourages the routine of learning for life (Everard, 1993) and should develop individual occupational development, which is future potential and promotion of employees. This is what participants mention:

“Identity is all about personal development also. There has to be personal development in it. So, how do you become a better human or better professional if you are already a freshman or a sommelier or supervisor? Then, you become a manager with the tool of engaging with people, upselling or organising bookings and having new ideas in place and discussing new ideas in briefings and handovers” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

“It’s an easy way for people to find a job, where you can learn on the field, on operation, you don’t need to have done it before, basically it’s easy if you are able to progress with it” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

As the results show, there is a solid indication that employees' learning experience is delivered through the restaurant institutions. However, those institutions should be thoughtful about offering merely learning experiences and ignoring entertainment. Yet, the priority commitment of individuals working for the organisation is to learn, as some members stated:

“They need to have the feeling that they are constantly learning and getting new knowledge” or “doing very different things every day; learning different things”; to have some diversion is also important: “[the] fun element of it was the fun element for me” or “the way in the current view is also an entertainer in many ways ...” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

However, waiters want to be involved in an experience of learning because they enjoy the procedure of learning itself or expanding knowledge, rather than learning results (Packer, 2006). This learning element of experience is consistent with the view of Raymond (2010) regarding the employee training and development.

5.2.2. Antecedents to occupational identity

The following section establishes the antecedents of waiters' experience in line with the literature review.

5.2.2.1. Employer branding

Employer branding has become as essential as services or goods in the market place. An employer branding symbolises an organisation's status as an employer (Alshathry et al., 2017; Rao and Patnaik, 2016). The achievement of every organisation mainly varies upon the talent and efficiency of its employees. Attracting and retaining talented people has become for organisations an enormous task in the current climate (Foroudi, 2018), as previously considered in Chapter 2. Several studies using different approaches have continued to investigate the relationship between occupational identity and employer branding, which has been studied from different approaches (Aaker, 1997; Ashcraft, 2007; Highhouse et al., 2007; Wallace et al., 2014).

With respect to the functional side of occupational identity, the 'employer branding', as defined by Rao and Patnaik (2016) was expressed in participants' observations as an influencing aspect towards identifying yourself with the company. For instance, some participants stated:

“...to believe in the company you work for to identify yourself with goals of the company you work for because that creates respect and you also feel respected yourself and feel valued as well” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

The following outcome is aligned with scholars (Alshathry et al., 2017; Ashcraft 2007; Highhouse et al., 2007; Van Riel and Fomburn, 2007) who stressed that the employer branding, in which employees’ occupational identities are shaped, has an influence on potential personnel which implements an approach non-favourable/favourable to the company. Respondents in follow-up interviews state:

“... for me it’s what I love about this job and this restaurant is the fact that you cross the door and you feel like home. It doesn’t matter you’re going to work. It’s ok you’re going to spend your whole day in a restaurant inside these four walls and that’s ok you’re going to be with your family and that’s different. It is a different feeling. Cause you all had a similar background and your life in your country and you’re all here in different countries, different language, different culture, different people ... and so it’s quite rewarding comforting coming to a restaurant and feeling home you know... you don’t have to be someone you’re not and everything is just easy you know. You know that the day is just going to get better because you’re with people you trust and who understand” (Waiter, focus group 1).

“I like to achieve goals, because I am competitive and it motivates me. No, I have got different goals; restaurants - the only thing they want is to get money, and keep the guests happy, what I want is to feel comfortable and relax in my workplace” (Waiter, focus group 2).

“Two thing in common with my restaurant we love our product and our customers” (Waiter 2, 35 years old).

Statements made by the participants also highlighted that it is the company’s responsibility to have a very clear restaurant concept; it will help to engage the employees with the values of the company, to have passion for the product and will also help as a guideline to recruit new employees:

“... it’s incredibly important to create a sense of belonging, to be very clear about the values the organisation stands for ... it’s not only about learning, but it’s about the passion for the type of food, for the proposition that a restaurant has to offer ... so to summarise, it’s the job of the

restaurant owner or manager to define the values ... these values will probably be about food or service but they need to be a lot more specific than that to create a sense of belonging. And these values will need to define how the organisation recruits waiters. So that the organisation gets the type of waiter that goes very well with its values and creates a strong sense of belonging” (Partner, 50 years old).

Some of the participants directly explained how they apply some of the strategies to their own organisation, which specify a general agreement between employers and waiters. For instance, as senior managers in restaurant companies stated:

“Waiters need to have a good communication flow between them and from management to them. They need to know what they’re expected to do ... guidelines need to be very clear, so there is harmony and everyone knows where they stand they [waiters] are representing the restaurant and they are the image of the restaurant ... they expect high level of service, manners and the respect for the clients ... they need to understand the way they need to address the customers ... They are not your friends, you can be friendly but they are not your friend ... they need to be in line with what company they’re working for and who is paying for” (Marketing and sales manager, 53 years old).

“The employer has to build a really good scheme around in order to develop such as ... you know ... whether there is an incentive scheme or in general making sure that the waiter is part of a bigger picture ... I suppose you need to show appreciation is the key value I’m looking for. But it works two ways” (Vice president, sales, 45 years old).

Additionally, several respondents commented on the way in which the employer branding might affect waiting beliefs, for example:

“... so, you can develop people and give them value, because you keep on growing, and showing also through your self-belief and self-esteem that you are not a waiter, you are a food or beverage adviser, so it’s much more flattering I think” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).
“I think for a Michelin restaurant, passion for food and giving great service is basics ... it’s the task of the restaurant owners, the managers, what are the values, that he stands for” (Partner, 50 years old).

These examples show that participants were likely to experience the concept of employer branding in their environment, although this was found to be varied. However, the participants' opinions about organisational values were generally in alignment with the literature. Nevertheless, in-depth interviews revealed terms regarding the studied concepts, such as elegance, and philosophy:

"... in consistence with what the organisational values should be, every candidate should have elegance. Because that's what our company is, our restaurant is ... It has to be a fluid movement ... going in the same direction. And that happens only when you have philosophy behind it and that alone builds the identity of the team of the place and the restaurant completely" (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

"The waiter needs to feel and understand the culture of the food and the culture behind the food, he really needs to have passion for it" (Chef, 35 years old).

A further outcome of this qualitative examination is that numerous participants maintain the role of the team as one of the most important elements to keep the harmony and engage with the company. For instance, some interviewees stated:

"I think they identify themselves as part of the team but not necessarily with the company...So it is more rather than go identify your values with organisations you go and move one step down and it is more how you identify with the team" (Waiter, focus group 3).

"For me, it is more important how you identify and how comfortable you feel with the team rather than with the organisation" (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

"The waiters' team need to have several agentic waiters with the right profile and in who the rest of the team could consider, like the icon to follow" (Chef, 35 years old).

"They delegate a lot, I do different things every day, the prestige of the restaurant, with celebrities as customers and managers they make me feel that we are friends, even more, that we are a good team" (Waiter, focus group 1).

The same respondent continued:

“I found it tougher working with the owner than with the global company which at the end of the day even your manager is an employee as well” (Waiter, focus group 1).

In summary, these outcomes are consistent with the findings of scholars (Alshathry et al., 2017; Nolan and Harold, 2010; Wallace et al., 2014; Wilden et al., 2010;), who claimed that employer branding has a direct relationship to occupational identity. All these quotes might denote that it becomes more important to not only describe the employer branding externally to attract potential employees but also internally to ensure employees will follow and be part of the organisational policy to develop their occupational identity. Moreover, internally describing the employer branding might be particularly significant regarding Michelin-starred restaurants since they are not necessarily devoted to the organisation but to other aspects of employment.

5.2.2.2. Self-concept

The outcomes of this study demonstrate that self-concept, as a component of occupational identity, is significant as a reflection of the individual’s feeling of self-worth and multifaceted cognitive structure, with characteristics of the ‘me’ creating self-concept (Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2000; Loy, 2017; McLean, 2005; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Interviewees made numerous remarks that career choice is an extension of self-concept, and that employees cultivate themselves and their understanding of work in their occupations (Holland, 1973; Super, 1951).

The focus group participants (representing waiters) considered more functional subjects, to which lecturers and managers were less relevant. For instance, one focus group participant stated that:

“Well I’ve been doing [waiting] that for the past 12 years and I’ve been passionate about what I’ve been doing. I always wanted to learn new things, I would like to be a perfectionist person and hospitality I love ... [I] believe in customer service... I need to impose my personality on to my job to a certain extent... I need to feel like I am not forced to do something - I want to do it - what I have to do and do it” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

The outcomes defined above corroborate that, through progressions of identification, people attribute some abilities derived from the occupation that they perform, and by doing so, their

occupational identity is extended in relation to the several areas and relationships people are immersed in. As such, people can demonstrate a characteristic pattern of identification where there is a feeling of independence. Another aspect that waiters highlighted was the ideology of being yourself in the workplace, e.g. the notion of considering employees as free agents and not objects of organisation control (Fleming and Sturdy, 2009). In this waiter's words:

"For me, it's quite different and for different reasons. It's something that I always wanted to do ... But obviously in identifying myself I couldn't be what I am as a waitress if I wasn't me. So, I identify my career with myself... It's impossible not being myself and doing any job ... I think as well in this world hospitality is impossible if you're not yourself you're not going to do it right ... that's where everything is fake and people can feel that, because you can be good taking one day two days but not 8 months. Cause when you're tired when you have problems that's where everything is going to be reflected in your job. That's going to be you ... (Waiter, focus group 2).

"I think it should be ... quite close to your own self because I think it is quite difficult to be someone else for 10 hours" (Waiter, focus group 3).

As stated before in this study, one's occupational identity cannot be understood just at a certain point in time. Rather, it concerns a process of continuous negotiation among the self and career-related experiences. This career progress can be offered to employees for continued work dedication or career perspective:

"It will be a lot easier to manage if you have a strong proposition, but I think overall of course this is something to also address by also offering people good career prospects, because if you are in a waiter's job and you know your career is going to stop here, you're going to have a very different view of yourself in a role, but if you see it as a stepping stone to doing something more aspirational" (Partner, 50 years old).

"Yeah, certainly if you work in a Michelin-starred restaurant, they have great prospects for people who are waiters because they should become experts in what they do, should have passion for what they do, should be allowed to learn and improve their skills in order for them to maybe take on a more managerial position. So, bringing out ... building their competence over time, making sure that they truly understand what the food is about, what principles they

are working for and improve their skills and abilities over time and then to maybe move on to more managerial positions. And I think that is a really important approach to make sure a waiter team in a Michelin restaurant is truly motivated” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

The perspective of understanding occupational identity as a type of ‘work in progress’ means understanding that identity also involves the reflected self, and these potential selves affect the way careers develop. Potential selves are constituted along one’s whole career. This means that the diversity of capabilities is a critical element in developing the approach that individuals have towards themselves. This study’s findings show that a clear concept of the self in the future works as an incentive for current career behaviour, and employees who have more potential selves and who have shaped, adapted and developed their identity to their occupation become more dedicated to their job.

5.2.2.3. Interaction

Isbell (2008) states that interaction in the workplace is the process by which a person learns to apply, grow and establish the responsibility, actions or conduct characteristics of and exclusive to an occupation. This is important for the employees to obtain skills and crucial knowledge to extend an occupational role with professional and valued directions (Wolf, 2007). This occurs through professional education (Beck, 2009) and the practice in the workplace (Frone, 2018; Nesler et al., 2001). As waiters’ practical competency develops, this approach allows them to complete certain tasks in a very effective fashion, and consequently feel more confident in their career progression:

“To be a waiter or a waitress gives people a great chance to polish themselves as individuals because they interact with people from different walks of life ... maybe they get to learn the body language and what to say, when to say ... and secondly to interact with the superiors of the hotel say supervisors or managers ... it helps them develop” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

“I think it’s an instant benefit you know. And the fact that you’re participating in the happiness of someone, people are working hard to go to a restaurant sometimes. They’re going to reward you with a smile, with a hug with money ... if you say that you are in a good, organised establishment, you’re learning how to sell, deliver a beautiful customer experience, how to deal with a complaint, how to be with (unclear). The more you develop as a waiter ... You can become

a good businessman just by observing the rules of the restaurant, of the barman ... which price, what sells the most, the best margin. So, the more the waiter will study the more room for learning you know ... and every day, every day it is life ... thank you, compliments, being able to receive all of them ... from the managers telling them to receive all ...” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

But at the same time a different participant explained how they developed their skills to assess customers’ body language so that they could fulfil the customers’ needs and requirements.

“It has to be as well a bit intuitive, so if you’re taking an order you should go a mile extra like further, like for example you have to be able to guess a little bit what the customer wants” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

In a more general way, another senior manager interviewee also supported the view that a strong sense of relatedness can be contemplated to be a driving factor for an increasing work engagement:

“...that’s quite fundamental, because sense of relatedness is core to individual motivation so people need to relate to their peers and feel part of a group and feel that they can talk to their group about things that matter to them. They want to be involved in social activity, they want to be understood and that’s a sense of identity that is absolutely central to motivation. And it’s also important that the values are not just part of what the waiters share, but also the kitchen staff and management team” (Partner, 50 years old).

Moreover, the decision of employers to apply proactive feedback can be a crucial factor for waiters in determining more emphasis on doing their work. As some respondents pointed out:

“I think it is different with every area but for me respect is the most important thing. So, as long as I respect the people I work with and I work for and they respect me, respect each other - as long as that respect comes from the customers and I give it back as well, it is the most important thing for me. Also, having someone to learn things from because I love to learn it helps me to develop all the time - it is the same from managers to colleagues. Having something to learn from managers, colleagues, customers; learning things and developing constantly ... I always look for constant feedback really because I think it helps me a lot in realising what I am doing

right and doing wrong. We get used to doing certain things and we don't realise what effect they have to other people, they use the same tactics with everyone; the feedback over the years has been very important to me to know how to adapt" (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

"They feel more confident when they have to serve thanks to the compliments they receive" (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

"Actually, when you're not motivated you're not going to make progress I think is it that way? ... Yeah, I think it is good comments and you want words and the respect for what you're doing and it will always motivate me to make it better, yes? This is always that way ..." (Waiter, focus group 3).

In addition, providing effective feedback is a crucial managerial skill. Emphasising the improvement, the team is making is the most influential motivator in the place of work and is even better than individual recognition or financial incentives. Interviewees stated that encouraging the individual's strengths by offering the employees exclusive feedback on how they are helping the team or organisation was highly motivational:

"It is imperative that front desk has a good relationship with the kitchen brigade by respecting each other and using common sense, they must be only one group" (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

"I learnt everything from my peers, who I used to admire. My dad has been a very important role in my life to become a professional ... I learnt a lot of all the feedback from managers, very constructive and always explain to me the reason why" (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

"Well it's good always to have colleagues because me I didn't have a lot of experience in food and beverage so it's good to see how professional are other people around and it's good to have a manager at least for 3 hours to show you how to, how does this person do the job because you can actually learn a lot ... For me all these kinds of feedback from the clients and after all the managers, and supervisors around me it helps me to take self-esteem and confidence ... if I was feeling confident and doing a good job. So that made me to confirm that I was doing a good job and could develop further..." (Waiter, focus group 2).

It was clear from the interviews that waiters who were working in integrated peer networks including the manager, found it easier to perform their job. As one of the waiters in the focus group admitted:

“You not only learnt the good things, you learnt as well how not to do bad things ... you take everything on board ... it feels like a family because it is a family. It’s a thing that is not in like any other restaurants, if you have a problem you can go and talk to your boss, the owners of the place ... and you sometimes forget that they are owners ... they’re going to be here talking to me, if I have a problem I can go and talk to them ... Since I came here one year ago he’s been my manager and I don’t think he’s my manager I think he’s my friend ... really cause you’re always in touch with managers and all the chefs. They know you and you know them. So that’s the way I feel” (Waiter, focus group 1).

However, even the waiters who felt most comfortable were clearly aware of the negative impact of being confronted with tense situations. Waiters utilised various neutralisation techniques (James and Gossett, 2018) to justify their approach. Some individuals convinced themselves that in general, customers go to a restaurant during their time off or for celebration and part of this enjoyable precious time depends on the waiters:

“Customers, sometimes they have treated me very badly and it is terrible and you feel down ... I try to respect my customers and my peers; I try to concentrate on my waiter’s identity. Customers, when they come here it is because they are celebrating something special and you can ruin their time just because you are sad or upset” (Waiter, focus group 2).

There were also tensions particular to the valued directions of orientated groups of waiters. As the waiter explained below, working as a contract waiter is a pressured business in which managers stipulate augmented productivity with fewer employees (Cornelissen et al., 2017). It is under these pressures and constraints that the majority of this kind of employee operates:

“And I think the relation between the manager and the worker should be a special kind of ... meeting every day and briefing, see their weak points, strong points about the situation ... so it’s a kind of interaction. But sometimes it depends on the company. Because you can say I work for a company where the managers are only thinking about cash and that’s all ... Yeah, money,

money, budget, budget ... the waiters are very poor but that's the big gap ... because at the end we are doing less. The more you ask me, I will be doing less" (Hospitality lecturer, 50 years old).

Based on these comments one can conclude with the perspective of the interviewee as follows:

"When I entered the business, I have learned from my seniors you know at the camp – like a mentoring relationship can be built ... Well, I see myself as a mentor and a peer for many people at the same level where I operate also for people who are entering the business and I think there is a lot of work we have to do as seniors to obviously put out the good word about this business, making hospitality, making restaurant business, making being a waiter sort of a desirable profession, more than just a stopgap" (Vice president, sales, 45 years old).

5.2.2.4. Interference

Combining multiple identities can generate occasions for economic mobility, social interaction and the growth of abilities and skills; maintaining identities is not without its complications (Settles, 2004). When two or more identities are noticed to be in conflict, identity interference can appear (Van Sell et al., 1981). Similarly, in this current research, waiters' observations are noted on some aspects of the identity interference, for example:

"But, certainly the uniqueness of working in a restaurant or working in other businesses or occupations is that your working hours don't allow you to be with your family during key times and that's certainly fundamentally the issue with being a waiter. Especially, Michelin- starred restaurants that have most work in evening times and during weekends" (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

Drummond et al.'s (2017) study of interference focused on the conflict between the family and work roles (e.g. mum/dad/friend). It was found that interference between the family and work roles is related to negative results, including lower work satisfaction (Aryee, 1992; Shepherd and Williams, 2018). When asked what the interviewees thought about the interference with their identities, they seemed clear what they felt about this potential conflict among identities and were quick in their answers to the following research questions: What do you think the interferences could be between being a member of the staff as well as them being a

mum/dad/friend, etc.? How do you think the waiters can cope with this situation? As phrased by some interviewees:

“It was difficult to be young and working 16 hours a week, but I convinced myself that I was investing in my future” (Waiter 2, 35 years old).

“A person who serves food, a very friendly person, hard worker with a large memory and has to put away any problems and smile all the time” (Waiter, focus group 2).

“By getting the best of any central identity in order to develop your occupational identity and be mature enough to separate the central identity that is giving you a negative impact in your occupational identity by having a high concentration in your job” (Chef, 35 years old).

Nearly all interviewees mentioned that focusing on their job, putting away any problems and concentrating on investing in their future helped them to separate their personal identity from their career interests. This can be difficult, especially for people who take pride in what they do. Occupational identity is a complex subject that develops, adapts or changes over time and reacts to external and internal stimuli. The conflict of identity interference can also be moderated by a management team by creating a sense of belonging and sense of career, as the following interviewee stressed:

“That’s the usual issue of being a working person versus being a private self. I think here we specifically talk about people working in Michelin-starred restaurants; there is sense of pride in what they do. So, I think the stigma that was conventionally attached to being waiters would not be a concern to me anymore. The idea of being a waiter is kind of a less desirable job especially if you have an aspiration to grow and to improve over time; if you have a management team that understands how to create a sense of belonging and sense of career it will be very easy to reconcile your occupational identity with your private self. But, then again, it’s a very difficult question, it would also be dependent on individual situations, and of course, not last, the age of the person you are talking about. If you’re a young person who is working in Michelin-starred restaurants you’ve got a career ahead of you, then if you are a very much older person there does not seem any sort of further development in the career in the future” (Partner, 50 years old).

“When you are in operation the philosophy which you are run the department is the identity ... my team we leave the identity outside, leave our identity when we change into our uniforms and we becoming ... you own identity becomes the departmental identity ... you know great service, excellence ...” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

“So, it’s important that you, I say from the beginning, it is important that you’re very honest with the type of work, time, what’s happening, so you need to be super super honest upfront. So, then another person can adapt to what they wish, what other identities are” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

Others confirmed the statements by the interviewees above. But, harmonising all the different identities is not a quick fix. Work forms a large part of most people’s lives, and affects other parts of individuals’ lives, such as the amount of time spent with friends and family, as well as affecting a person’s economic situation. Work affects how individuals think of themselves, but the temptation to be categorised by occupation must be resisted. Outside the workplace, employees are individuals and need to obtain their self-worth from other sources.

5.2.2.5. Authenticity

Company standards and the management team often influence employee authenticity at work. Based on a previous study (Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014) that has begun to analyse the impact of authenticity in the workplace, it was stated that the greater the employees’ spirits of authenticity are, the greater their self-reported job satisfaction, performance and engagement. The main key is accomplishing a balance that can be true to individuals’ selves with outcome success and prosperity within the company. Qualitative results provided some evidence for this proposition. One respondent commented on this relation:

“In this context, so of course companies have standards and rules and policies that everyone have to follow, and these are something that are non-negotiable ... but if you can be yourself and be your own personality, a superstar in that respect doesn’t jeopardise company rules or policies ... then of course, you need to be yourself but the rules and policies are also there to protect the waiter from you know whatever... guest complaints or ... you know ... that’s what they are there for, they need to be followed ... But the policies and standards should not be something that are stopping you from being yourself” (Marketing and sales manager 53 years old).

This observation shows that in the current situation, waiters wish to be independent actors. Any overlaps in procedures between restaurants and waiters are effectively utilised. Waiters should be able to decide and execute activities autonomously according to the interviewees if it doesn't breach company rules or policies. Restaurants' rules help waiters to maintain standards and protect them from any problems. However, these policies and standards must not be too different from waiters' beliefs and values. Some of the waiters explain in the following quotes:

“You need to have a certain amount of professionalism, you also need to reflect the face of that organisation at the end of the day... so it's a very good balance between the two... you need to have standards and you have a choice, but they can't be too different in what you believe in as a person” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

“I prefer to keep the balance. But sometimes they don't allow you to be yourself just to follow the company standard” (Waiter focus group 2).

Another interviewee referred to a rather organisational strategy driven perspective of the employee authenticity in his argument:

“Restaurants tend to recruit more and more ... good organisations recruit their staff according to certain values and they look for people who share the same values as the organisation does. And one of the reasons why they do that is because they want people to be able to feel like themselves on the job” (Hospitality lecturer, 50 years old).

This study reveals how important it is for the organisation to define where it is headed, its values and other beliefs. Clear information is fundamental for employees to develop their own authenticity. People want to be able to be themselves, if they have the job and do not feel like they can be themselves, then that is not going to be sustainable:

“So, organisations need to first of all recruit the people who fit their needs and their values, so that they have got a high chance of connecting well with others, peers and managers, and the organisation needs to be run in a way that people can be themselves. So that actually the values of the organisation and the values and the passions of the individuals overlap. And that really is the ideal outcome. If the individual constantly needs to adapt to fit the organisation, because

the organisation is without the values, and they don't really allow them to feel and be like they like to be, that's not going to be sustainable in the long term, that's not going to deliver, not going to create a positive identity for the individual and is not going to deliver the outcomes" (Partner, 50 years old).

To summarise, waiters enjoy a considerable level of authenticity in their role as well as following the company standard. Based on this authenticity, some employees actively implement, adapt or maintain the organisational values and beliefs by rhetorically supporting them yet expressing their disagreement when these policies and standards stop them from being themselves. Besides maintaining authenticity for employees, the defined reference group (inter-group) also brings growth in occupational self-views, which will be considered hereafter.

5.2.2.6. Inter-group

The findings of the qualitative study established that waiters feel part of this industry, which emphasises that they share the same character of other members of the group such as passion for food, passion for service (Cooper et al., 2005). The results showed that they feel very proud of their reference group defining it as follows:

"This industry [reference group] is about building those moments for those people and learning about that" (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

"The key word here is professional pride, you have to be proud of your occupation, no matter what it is. In this case it's a waiter and you as a person, as an individual, are part of the bigger collective, the bigger group, you belong through your profession into this identity, in this case the waiter, but as an individual, as a waiter, you need to be proud of what you do and that already builds up the identity itself, but if you need to appreciate that profession itself" (Marketing and sales manager 53 years old).

More specifically, interviewees 'waiter 1, 25 years old' and 'marketing and sales manager, 53 years old' gave the explanation of the comparative and relational nature of occupational identifications. Consequently, these explanations are giving evidence of how occupational identities are supported by this reference group's comparisons with others and the desire to develop self-concept with the benefit of groups, and obtain positive differences between themselves and reference groups (Tarakci et al., 2018). The findings also disclose that the

waiters in this study saw themselves in terms of their relationship to this restaurant collective, such as their membership in organisation teams due to the shared feeling that they show to this profession. For example:

“I think most of us do this because we have a passion for serving people and we have passion for food and drinks and I think that is what really makes me feel I am a part of this group, and that is most people working in this group. A lot of people I come across don't do this for money” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

The interviewees often describe themselves in connection to their team or organisation by applying the concept of ‘we’ and ‘us’ instead of ‘I’. So, this perception of belonging to teams is either explicit or implicit. Most of the interviewees have either subconsciously or consciously adopted the team or organisation values as a self-referential explanation that answers the questions ‘who am I?’ or ‘who are we?’

From the results, waiters in their teams often classify themselves and others on the core of diverse salient perceptual magnitudes that include cognitive self-classification. The characteristics that articulate waiters’ use in the procedure of identification are founded on describing personal characteristics that they share with the teams and to other team members. As some employees indicated:

“I feel part of this industry, I have been working in it for a long time ... In my personal life I always loved food and beverage and for me it's not just product that you eat and drink it's a cultural thing. So, it's not just eating because your body needs nutrition, it is a cultural thing and I always loved it ... So, for me this industry is about building those moments for those people” (Waiter, focus group 3).

“I identify myself in this group of people because I like being with people and being surrounded by people and dealing with them and having the chance to learn from others and not just being behind the desk all day. Just doing what you already know. And when you are working in hospitality every single day you're exposing yourself to what's out there and new people, different people ... with different life and approach in life career and everything ... so you have to be willing to learn and to run and to feel embarrassed and to be happy and to get home. I learned this without realising and I love that” (Waiter, focus group 1).

“It is very important that you are very proud of your reference group” (Chef, 35 years old).

In addition, several interviewees referred to the fact that some individuals do not have a very sophisticated visual concept about this profession; some respondents argued that positive reactivity would mainly be applied subsequently to this society perception. For instance:

“It’s sort of sense of belonging and party and being open minded ... But I don’t think it’s flattering to say ‘I’m a part of a waiter group’. People would never say oh wow I’m impressed or you succeed in life” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

Such feelings affect waiters’ identification with their restaurant’s organisation. Another interviewee (Waiter 2, 35 years old) demonstrated that there was certainly an understanding of ‘us’ and ‘them’ when waiters in the organisation were relating to society perception. They explained how they react in these situations:

“I always feel very proud to belong to waiting group and if someone come with a negative idea about of us. It is really influence me positively by working harder to show them that they idea that they have of us it is completely wrongly” (Waiter 2, 35 years old).

There are situations where waiters perceived that they are treated as a low status group. In circumstances like this, a senior manager (Partner, 50 years old) respondent elaborating on this view commented:

“... a good high performing restaurant will manage to give people the feeling and the identity to make them stand out from the conventional waiters. So, I think, you know in this specific occupational group, I think just using the term waiter may not be the best thing to do. You need to create a special aspect; a sense of uniqueness, to bring the support this sense of belonging that really will drive the performance. So, in a nutshell I think what these restaurants will need to do is to be able to elevate it is staff from being just waiters to being something special” (Partner, 50 years old).

People want to improve their sense of self, but the approaches they apply to do so depending on the flexibility of inter-group restrictions for identity. The following section describes

situations where self-enhancement approaches are applied to moderate the insecurity employees are challenged with in their occupation and within society.

5.2.2.7. Stereotype

Stereotype has already been discussed (Chapter 2, section 2.4) as an element that can generate an improvement in an employee's performance when it makes them distinctive from those who have not been influenced by the stereotype (Dumas and Dunbar, 2014). Another type in which employees develop performance is when a stereotype threat is intentionally incited, and the stereotyped employees in the current environment are in the minority (Hoyt et al., 2010; Kray et al., 2001; Topor, 2018). In these situations, individuals respond with 'stereotype reactance', working harder to establish the opposite (Bargh et al., 1996; Logel et al., 2009). Findings from interviews offered some evidence for this proposition. For instance, one respondent referred to the link:

“If someone comes with a negative idea about us, it really influences me positively in stimulating me to work harder to show them that the idea that they have of us, it is completely wrong” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

Similarly, other interviewees who were referring to society opinion about this profession argued:

“For me, it has a positive impact because my personality is just built like that; for me it was, I am going to prove to people that being a waiter is nothing to be ashamed of. As waiters, we really need to believe that, because that is the only way to change the perception of yourself ... But if you challenge that and you set out to prove that it isn't what they are saying, it is a good thing, a very good thing” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

Different responses to stereotype, especially different ways of understanding, often direct to conflict and affects waiters' identification procedures. These perceptions not only generate conflicts, but also influence the approach in which conflicts are handled:

“You must be engaged with profession ... a waiter is sometimes not seen very well for the rest of the customers, for the people because they seem to see special kind of servants, you know ... but the key factors are the training, the skills as well, I mean not only practical skills, these kind

of personal skills, personal interaction, those kind of skills” (Hospitality lecturer, 50 years old).

On the other hand, waiters who perceived this profession as ‘great’ commented how emotive the relationships in the restaurant teams are:

“This profession is the only profession where people go out to celebrate birthdays, anniversaries and get together ... I mean they’re celebrating all the important occasions in a restaurant and who is looking after them? It is these people and they make that occasion special and it’s a great career as well you know - to give joy to these people” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

Likewise, praise was often included in the comments of the interviewees, such as:

“It is becoming increasingly trendy to be passionate about food, so there’s a positive aura that goes into working in food, it’s amazing nowadays that it wasn’t in the past. So, saying in society that you’re a waiter nowadays is not going to give you any positive social aura ... I think if you position a waiter’s occupation as something much more aspirational, like Michelin-starred restaurants, there’s the view of society on profession that will not have that impact on their identity” (Partner, 50 years old).

In contrast, as Sackett’s (2003) research demonstrates, perceived stereotypes impact on employees and productivity. Several interviewees supported the view that waiters’ stereotyping by society has had a very negative impact on them and for some of them these thoughts forced them to resign and search for new career sectors:

“It [stereotyping] has a negative impact and that is why no one wants to have this profession in the long-term” (Waiter, focus group 2).

“It is not good, people look at us like someone without qualifications and very basic general knowledge” (Waiter, focus group 1).

“I think they think of waiter like someone who didn’t study, someone who didn’t really ... were not ambitious enough ... or they have another hobby or something else on the side” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

Similarly, other members of the focus groups reported:

“I’ve seen people changing jobs from a waiter to another job even for the same amount of money because they feel more recognised ... like they are going somewhere I mean career wise. So sometimes it’s not about the money it’s about the recognitions of certain ...” (Waiter, focus group 3).

Being genuine, one of the interviewee’s comments was:

“I suppose I have a very similar view on that the public has that is a waiter whose primary job is to wait for food, right? But also, the way in the current view is also an entertainer in many ways ... you know you do maybe a story around the food or ... it’s entertaining, or you present the wine and so on” (Marketing and sales manager, 53 years old).

Another employee, who founded his view on the individual being dealt with, stipulates further confirmation for the prevalence of restaurant businesses:

“Depend of the person who is treating with them. It would be a good impact when the customers give good compliments and respect them, at the same time you can have the opposite and it will impact negatively in the waiter’s occupational identity” (Chef, 35 years old).

These findings demonstrate the dominant effect of sociocultural stereotypes on employees’ performance. In the current studies, interviewees were not clearly aware about stereotype content, but just had a sociocultural classification to which they fit in subtly activated. Conceivably, significant evidence found that when one of the multiple identities is made salient as predominant, performance can be debilitated as well as facilitated. The present research indicates that waiters’ quantitative performance can be influenced both negatively and positively without any specific instructions. Therefore, the suggestion is that more attention needs to be paid to sociocultural influences. Another suggestion that came from the results of this study is that when the fact that people have multiple identities is adopted, self-stereotyping influences may be approached far more advantageously than previously identified. Up to the present time, people have been victims of self-stereotyping. However, the probability exists that

intermediations in this situation, an untried strategy that made one factor of identification salient over others, may be applied to deliberately affect performance.

5.2.3. Salience (as a moderator)

Salience can function as the extent to which explicit stimuli is manifested to others in their environment and structured as the origin of social salience connected to the context in which a stimulus occurs (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Stimuli are extremely important in the creation of occupational identity. The dichotic theory of salience by Guido (1995, 1996) states that a stimulus is in-salient, when it is incongruent in a precise setting, or it is re-salient when it is congruent in a precise situation; consequently, in-salience and re-salience are two contrasting features of the same concept. Following this context, when the interviewees were asked about the most influential factors that stimulate the construction of their occupational identity, the majority agreed, for example:

“I think, first of all there is a passion for food that is very important and attracts people in places ... I know from the work I am doing that people, especially young people today, have an increasingly passionate relationship with food ... they’re called millennials for example, so people who became adults around the year 2000 spend more money and more time for food than the previous generation. There’s a lot more passion for food, a lot more passion for having great food experience. So, I think that the passion for food is certainly something that attracts people ... or the factor that defines the identity of people that work in those restaurants” (Partner, 50 years old).

Another factor that interviewee participants stated as an influential element of the occupational identity construction was the learning education of the waiter, as the following interviewee highlighted:

“Identity is all about personal development. There has to be personal development in it [occupational identity]. So, it is how you become a better human or better professional. If you are already a freshman or a sommelier or supervisor then you become a manager with the tool of engaging with people, upselling or organising bookings and having new ideas in place and discussing new ideas in briefings and handovers” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

A person learns through communication and interaction with others. The procedure of learning however does not create a single kind of interaction but learning is developed in contexts in which there can be multiple magnitudes to the nature of the interactions: there can be other relationships that have an impact upon the learning procedures (Brown and Bimrose, 2018). For this group, the education or learning were partly placed within their earlier waiting experience, which was continued by new occupational skills, as some participants described:

“A good working environment is the most important ... first thing is to give that space to the person and the team and having created an environment of trust and kind of enjoyment and learning and development comes later ...” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

“For me the most important thing about being a waiter was general knowledge, about how everything works on the other side, normally we are not the other side, we are with customers” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

“Helping to think of the next step in your career progression. Respect and recognition. Pay the bills at the end of the month” (Waiter, focus group 2).

Waiters who had entered waiting via ‘unconventional’ directions also mentioned a less related type of education or learning. Holding a low academic background, these waiters had reached waiter status based on competencies and technical skills. For example, some of the waiters explained:

“The only thing that can influence identity of waiting can be insurance of development and career propose if you didn’t get the chance to study” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

“For me I think passions about the career also there’s someone who like to look after ... want or the someone that like to teach you and show things ... I don’t have an academic background” (Waiter, focus group 1).

The salience of the inter-relation between an employee and others in learning, working and other interactions is self-evident in any procedure of the construction of occupational identity. The development, formation, adaptation and change of identities at work are influenced by the type of relationships around which they are created. For instance, new

employees may still need support, advice and encouragement from their superiors or colleagues to achieve the standard expected of current employees in that organisation (Vasudevan, 2017). Participants in this study also felt the impact of peer feedback as Waiter 2 and the waiter focus group 3 articulated:

“The feedback that I received from customer, peers and managers” (Waiter 2, 35 years old).

“How do you do that I don’t actually have to have clear feedback. I can just have feedback on daily basis ... seeing people appreciating what you’re doing or just enjoying your time ...” (Waiter, focus group 3).

In addition, some interviewees in particular referred to other aspects as the most influential factors that stimulate the construction of their occupational identity, such as: pride (stereotype), identification with restaurant values (employer branding) and passion for their career:

“Respect I think it was the biggest thing for me and again it is respect for what I did, respect for the effort I put in, respect for my long hours and feeling that it has been very helpful for me developing in this line of work. If I didn’t feel respected for what I did I wouldn’t be in this line of work” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

“The important thing is taking pride in what you do. And feel happy about it” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

“I couldn’t work in a place that was not compatible with my own values. Just to have a job I couldn’t do it” (Waiter, focus group 1).

“It is about passion, and feeling for your job. If they don’t have these two factors, they can’t be waiters” (Chef, 35 years old).

Waiters’ occupational identity has an influence on a range of stimuli at the workplace. The participants of this qualitative study have answered the research questions: of all the factors that we have been talking about so far (employer branding, self-concept, interaction, interference, authenticity, inter-groups and stereotype, education, passion and extroversion), which one is the most influential in the construction of a waiter’s occupational identity? Their response has

been that the salience of this stimuli increases at work in different key ways: education, passion, stereotype (pride, respect) and employer branding (personal/organisational values).

All these stimuli influence the way waiters think and feel about their restaurant organisations; the origins of these sensations may lie inside the place of work, understanding their influence can aid in the procedure of developing more complete workplaces and improving support to the career development of waiters.

This study presents significant evidence of the episodic and dynamic nature of occupational identity in the workplace. Several influences have been identified in changes in salience. Different ways have been defined in which such increases in salience stimuli influence how restaurant organisations are conceptualised and experienced. By going beyond studying these stimuli simply and searching routes experienced, it has contributed to a more nuanced and richer understanding of its significance to behaviour within organisations.

5.2.4. Consequences of occupational identity

The literature indicates that occupational identity can relate to the result whereby a favourable occupational identity must be established to produce a positive result, such as a favourable work engagement and a reduced employee turnover.

5.2.4.1. Work engagement

Previous studies (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004) have verified that a high level of work engagement leads to developed work performance in terms of positive reactions, the capability to organise resources, improved self-efficacy and elude workaholism. Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) multi-sample analysis specifies that work engagement mediates the relationship between available job resources and employees' loyalty. Employee loyalty is known as sharing the same commitment and approach to the quality of work that directs to higher performance (Salanova et al., 2005). In fact, the findings of the qualitative study indicated how a match between occupational identity and work engagement improved employees' perceptions of belonging to, and pride in the company, which in turn directed to more progressive assessments of employees' performance. Those results were consistent with prior research (Albrecht, 2010; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Christian et al., 2011; Harter et al., 2002; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010; Simpson, 2009). Focus group respondents and manager participants in the following comment have highlighted this

relationship:

“...the waiters in Michelin-starred restaurants, competence is an important factor. So, making sure that people feel that a certain level of competence is required to deliver a job. And being able to improve and to build competence over time, so, they will have the skills base that will make them feel like they’re engaged in the job ... we talked about autonomy and freedom to be themselves, so they can feel like they’re being individual within ... and express their own individuality in the job. And that’s going to be absolutely central to create motivated staff. So, probably these are the 3 things I’d mention” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

Additionally, a participant mentioned different elements of work engagement as below:

“It varies from person to person, but for me, it is the fact that I feel empowered and being able to be myself that is really important and keeps me engaged and again being respected by the people I work with and for, doing something different every day, that’s what keeps me going” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

Furthermore, one of the contributors within a management position stated that:

“I think the only thing that can influence the identity of waiting staff will be the assurance of development and career purpose if you didn’t get a chance to study” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

In general, work engagement is the external reflection of employee occupational identity; dedication, absorption and passion for work can influence the perceptions of an organisation’s employee and help employees to formulate a framework of expectations about the company’s nature of the work.

5.2.4.2. Turnover

Turnover intention is related to poor service and disintegrated organisational success (Karatepe and Ngeche, 2012). Bothma and Roodt (2013) have presented that intent to leave an organisation is one of the signs of turnover. From the organisation’s evaluation, turnover of employees tends to render costs rising from recruitment, selection and training (Morrell et al., 2004). Furthermore, turnover may have an impact on employee morale (Morrell et al., 2004) as

well as undermining the efficiency and productivity of the organisation (Agoi, 2015). It was found that some participants, such as the ones who had a different career background to waiting, mentioned that the job was not what they wanted to achieve in life, that they were feeling bored and that they were not focused on giving a good service any more. One participant for example, mentioned that:

“I need to find the job that I love and I don’t get bored. This job is burning me out and I don’t have patience any more. I take everything personally ... I can’t control myself and I answer them back” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

On the other side, employee retention and employee engagement are linked to each other (Frank, 2004). Turnover continues being an element of attention among management researchers. Empirical studies have established that a higher level of work engagement reduces employee turnover (Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Additionally, Cole and Bruch (2006) have denoted that the perceptions of a strong organisational identification and organisational commitment may impact on employees’ turnover intent in specific situations, varying on their level of responsibility within the workplace. Several studies have demonstrated that work engagement is positively related to the determination to continue to work with one’s firm (Harter et al., 2002; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Equally, the results of the current study illustrate that:

“Organisations recruit people not only based on skill but also on values, and make sure that they get a certain number of people into the organisation that they know will fit ... I think it may also be important not to talk about them as waiters anymore ... why call them waiters? ... People working in Michelin-starred restaurants they’re not really waiters, they provide service to the customers which goes well beyond serving dishes. They have to advise, they have to be incredible ... they need to have incredible level of empathy to understand customers’ needs, and desires ... It’s a highly skilled job. So, I think restaurants needs to recognise that they have to offer a development programme to the waiting staff, and insure they do. But that’s really important, they need to make sure they offer the chance to learn and to improve and to progress within the restaurant in some time. And if they do that, they manage to keep the people much longer than in a traditional waiting job” (Partner, 50 years old).

It is significant for companies to recruit people with an assured attachment element that they are more likely to continue practising at work. It is imperative for the organisation to prize dedicated employees by promoting them. The companies should therefore originate employees' job programmes in such a manner that they can uncover purpose and meaning in the work that they do.

5.3. SUMMARY

The qualitative study was completed by elucidating the data analysis and findings from the interviews and focus groups. The chapter examined the qualitative study that was required to address the research aim (to develop a comprehensive understanding of occupational identity, its antecedents and its consequences on work engagement and employee turnover) and the research questions. Firstly, the data analysis and findings from the interviews and focus groups were explicated. The outcomes were organised around the main subjects recognised from the related literature.

The final framework model (Figure 4.4) of the completion and factors of occupational identity was established based on the literature review and the findings of qualitative study, in which the interviewees highlighted as salience constructs, education, passion, stereotype and employer branding using them as the main factors influencing the development of their occupational identity. Furthermore this final framework was also based on content and face validity tests with the participation of academics who agreed that self-concept, interference and inter-group were part of extroversion, authenticity and stereotype. Therefore, these three constructs were withdrawn.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter specifies a detailed discussion and discloses the relationships between dependent and independent variables. As mentioned in Chapter 4, this included a multi-stage process. Section 6.2 illustrates the stages editing, coding, screening the data, explores normality, linearity, multi-collinearity, outliers of the collected data and presents non-responses bias. The subsequent explanations are then re-assessed using exploratory factor analysis as justified in Section 6.3. Section 6.4 details the structural evaluation of the model, which was used to examine the hypothesised relationships between the research constructs as included in the conceptual framework, and to judge whether the collected dataset and the proposed conceptual model fit. Section 6.5 presents a summary of the quantitative findings.

6.2. DATA PREPARATION

6.2.1. Data coding and editing

As per Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), to safeguard consistency and comprehensiveness of the data, data editing took place once it was collected. Absent data is one of the most persistent difficulties in data analysis and the pattern of absent data is more noteworthy than the quantity absent. Missing data is believed to be missing values. The gathered data was studied and all entries were coded and inserted into an SPSS data sheet (Hair et al., 2018; Vaus, 1996). After data coding, this study performed data editing to guarantee that the coding process was done properly. In addition, the value was double-checked where there was an out-of-range data.

6.2.2. Data screening

Following some researchers' recommendations (Malhotra, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) data screening and descriptive statistics were executed to ensure that the main analysis was credible and resulted in valid outcomes. The data was screened in four different stages (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007): (1) The dataset was examined for missing values and questionnaires with poor quality responses (14 questionnaires in total); (2) The descriptive statistics for all variables of interest were examined and calculated; (3) The normality of data distribution of the variables was reviewed; (4) The analysis of identifying outliers at the univariate and multivariate levels are assessed (Foroudi, 2012, p.194-195). All of these

examinations took place by utilising SPSS 21 software. The results of each procedure are briefly explained below.

6.2.3. Missing data analysis

Missing data or missing values take place when the valid values in one or more variables are not available in an observation (Hair et al., 2018). Missing data often occurs in data entry errors and data collection issues or when a participant omits one or more answers in the survey questionnaire. Hair et al. (2018) state that there are two different ways of gauging missing data: known processes can be “errors in data entry that create invalid codes, disclosure restrictions, failure to complete the entire questionnaire, or morbidity of the respondent” (Hair et al., 2018, p.46). In this condition, the investigator is less under control of the missing data processes, but some solutions can be appropriate if the missing data is originated to be random. The ‘unknown’ missing data procedure is difficult to identify and occurs when participants are not willing to respond to certain survey questions.

The missing value analysis method technique was completed with Expectation-Maximisation (EM) in SPSS. The findings demonstrate that this study has no missing data at any item or unit level (Appendix 6.1), as the rule of thumb ‘how much missing data is too much?’ “missing data under 10% for an individual case or observation can generally be ignored” (Hair et al., 2018, p.55). It was clarified that a total of 430 questionnaires were gathered. However, 398 were usable due to the fact that 14 were omitted due to huge volumes of missing information. In addition, another 18 cases with neutral or extreme responses were removed. What this shows is that the respondents had mostly understood the questions well and that they were suitable for the subsidiary’s circumstances.

6.2.4. Non-responses bias

During the data collection, the study must gather characteristics of the population as a whole. One of the most usual causes for non-response is when respondents show an unwillingness to answer every question in the survey questionnaire or refuse to participate in the research (Saunders et al., 2007). Persuading participants that the data will be preserved with the utmost discretion can reduce non-response to a minimum rate. Churchill (1979) maintains that the difficulty of non-response bias is usual in study exploration, which transpires when participants vary in consequential aspects from non-respondents.

Lambert and Harrington (1990) state that the likelihood of any possible non-response bias was calculated by measuring the variance through the Mann-Whitney U-test concerning early and late participants with regard to all the variables (Table 6.1). According to the proportion of the way in which survey questionnaires were handed back, the first half of opinions were taken as early respondents and the last half were taken as late respondents. Table 6.1 suggested that impact assessment in any variable is not less than or equal to .05 significance value, which is inconsequential; thus, there is no statistically major variance among early and late respondents (Foroudi, 2012, p.200-201). Therefore, in this study non-response bias is not an issue of concern.

Table 6.1: Mann-Whitney U-test observing non-response bias

	EBMean	PMean	EMean	EDMean	IMean	
Mann-Whitney U	18409.500	17617.500	17617.00	18449.000	19186.500	
Wilcoxon W	54455.500	28792.500	28792.500	54495.000	55232.500	
Z	-1.328	-2.001	-2.001	-1.288	-.663	
Asyp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.184	.045	.045	.198	.507	
	AMean	SMean	SAMean	OIMean	WEMean	TMean
Mann-Whitney U	19174.500	17673.500	18850.500	19951.500	19354.000	18187.500
Wilcoxon W	5522.500	53719.500	54896.500	55997.500	55400.000	54233.500
Z	-.673	-1.946	-.952	-.012	-.520	-1.511
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.501	.052	.341	.990	.603	.131

a. Grouping variable: Your gender

6.2.5. Outliers analysis

An outlier is described as “a case with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such an outlandish combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier)” (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p.72). To identify univariate outliers, the data values for each item were converted to standard scores. For research the standard score for sample size smaller than 80 is ± 2.5 , while for a larger sample size (398 this study’s sample size), a case is an outlier if its standard score is ± 3.0 or beyond (Hair et al., 2018). In this study, the findings show that fewer univariate outliers are contained in the dataset (Table 6.2). In other words, the

lowest numbers of outliers (e.g. one) were found in E and ED and the highest one (e.g. five) was found in constructs EB. Consequently, this study kept the outliers for additional analysis.

Table 6.2: Univariate outliers

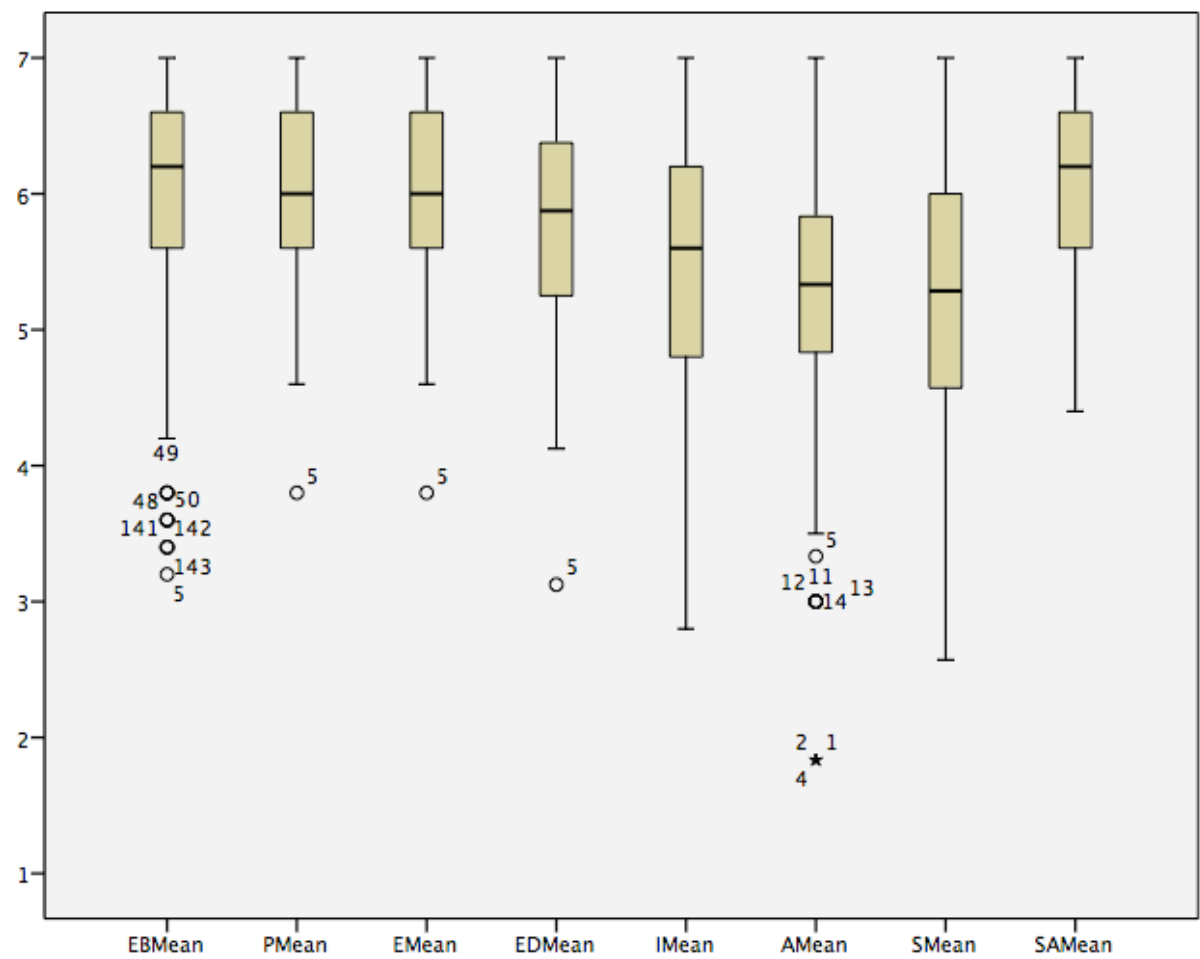
S.NO	Variable	Case of outlier	Standardised values e.g. z-scores >±3.0
1	EB (Employer branding)	1	-4.93318
		34	-4.32635
		89	-4.02293
		7	-3.41610
		254	-3.11268
2	P (Passion)	11	-3.73187
		37	-3.01004
3	E (Extroversion)	19	-3.08829
4	ED (Education)	13	-3.39417
5	I (Interferences)	307	-2.63390
6	A (Authenticity)	112	-3.41003
		87	-3.17811
7	S (Stereotype)	197	-2.75482
8	SA (Salience)	25	-2.43476
9	OI (Occupational Identity)	111	-2.73388
10	WE (Work Engagement)	78	-2.43476
11	T (Turnover)	45	-1.90899

Source: Analysis of survey data

Mahalanobis d-squared measurement was applied for multivariate finding. Mahalanobis d-squared distance is a multidimensional variety of a z-score (Hair et al., 2018). It is based on maximising a generalised measurement of the distance between the two closest groups (Malhotra, 2010, p.620). It calculates the distance of a case from the mean of the centre of all observations and provides a single value (Hair et al., 2018; Foroudi, 2012, p.201). If the value of D2 exceeds 2.5 in a small sample and 3 or 4 in a large sample, then it will be called a potential outlier. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested using a statistical test of significance with the Mahalanobis D2 measurement, where the larger D2 value for a case is likely to be considered as an outlier (Malhotra, 2010, p.620; Foroudi, 2012, p.201).

In this analysis, the linear regression method was applied to define the Mahalanobis d-squared value. A function of SPSS version 21 ‘1- CDF.CHISQ (quant, df)’ was employed to attain the t-value of significance, where quant = D2 and df = 13 (13 is the number of constructs). Furthermore, to identify multivariate outliers, box plot was applied (Figure 6.1). The box plot of univariate outliers was found in three cases, which are marked with an asterisk and this figure also demonstrates that almost every observation was discovered in the mild-outlier (inter quartile range (IQR)> 1.5) (Hair et al., 2018). Therefore, considering the results in Table 6.2 (univariate) and Appendix 6.2 (multivariate), the observations with outliers were preserved for the next stage.

Figure 6.1: Box-plot representing multivariate outliers



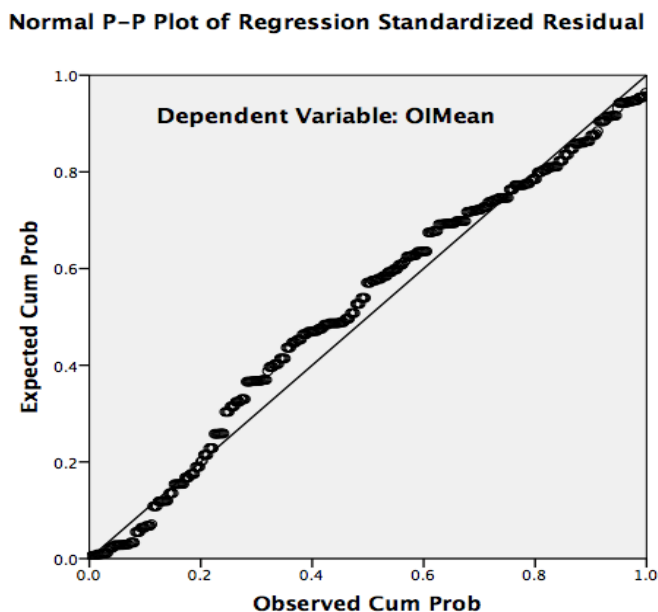
6.2.6. Normality, Linear, Homoscedasticity and Multicollinearity

6.2.6.1. Normality

To ensure that the data had not violated the normality assumption, a normality test was conducted once the data was coded. In structural equation modelling (SEM), normality is usually a main criterion in multivariate analysis. It is used in calculating the sample size, and serves as the basis for classical statistical inference (Malhotra, 2010). It is bell-shaped and symmetrical in appearance. Its measures of central tendency (mean, median and mode) are similar and its associated random variable has an infinite range (Malhotra, 2010). In this analysis, statistical means, graphical histogram and normal probability plot were used to study normality of variables. The normal probability plot is a graphical procedure for ascertaining if a dataset is roughly distributed normally or not (Foroudi, 2012; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The normal probability plot is a graphical technique for which the gradations are issued as a straight line (Foroudi, 2012; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). On the normal probability plots, the figures should be plotted either as individual data points or classified data, such as from a histogram plot. Founded on the graphical assessment, almost all of the items (listed in Appendix 6.3) and overall constructs (set out in Figure 6.2) clustered around a straight line; hence observation of the sample did not require any modification (or transformation) of the data.

Moreover, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Walk (K-S) is the principal test for the assessment of normality to define whether the underlying division is normal (Field, 2009). It reports whether the two distributions are the same or different (Malhotra, 2010, p.511). It takes into account any differences in the distributions, including median, dispersion and skewness (Malhotra, 2010, p.511). If the test is significant ($P < 0.05$), then the distribution in question is significantly different from a normal distribution (Foroudi, 2012, p.198).

Figure 6.2: Multivariate normal P-P plot of regression standardised residual



Source: Analysis of survey data

The results from this study, at both constructs level (Table 6.3) and items level (see Appendix 6.4), showed that K-S was not tenable. The test demonstrated that assumptions of K-S tests were not acceptable at construct or item level. Field (2009) has stated that a test with a large sample size (e.g. 398 in this research) is very sensitive, and a minimum deviation from normality is enough to bias any statistical process that we add to the data. Therefore, if the test is significant it does not mean departure from normality of data (Field, 2009, p.144).

Table 6.3: Test of normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
EBMean	.136	398	.000	.885	398	.000
PMean	.099	398	.000	.957	398	.000
EMean	.099	398	.000	.957	398	.000
EDMean	.096	398	.000	.968	398	.000
IMean	.094	398	.000	.962	398	.000
AMean	.086	398	.000	.965	398	.000
SAMean	.089	398	.000	.978	398	.000
OIMean	.123	398	.000	.929	398	.000
WEMean	.088	398	.000	.973	398	.000
TMean	.086	398	.000	.958	398	.000
	.088	398	.000	.979	398	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

In addition, Jarque-Bera's (skewness and kurtosis) statistic test (Hair et al., 2018) is another method used to analyse the data normality. Appendix 6.5 disclosed data screen outcomes for each single variable examined in this current research, which shows standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values. The analysis specified that a number of the variables were within the satisfactory range for values of skewness and kurtosis $< \pm 3$ (Hair et al., 2018). As stated, the value of skewness is between -3.471 (EB_1) and .629 (T_5), and the value of kurtosis is between -1.313 (OI_4) and 9.498 (EB_1) correspondingly. Consequently, the effect of kurtosis and skewness is moderated in larger samples, demonstrating that the deviation from normality could not be created. The findings show that the research data are in the acceptable level of normality assumption. Data does not violate the normality assumption if the skewness is lower than 3.00 and kurtosis is lower than 10.00 (Kline, 1998; Mohamad, 2013, p.159).

6.2.6.2. Linearity and multi-collinearity

Linearity accepts that there is a straight-line relationship between two variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Mohamad, 2013, p.159). Scrutinising variables relationships is crucial in recognising some differences that could influence the relationship (Hair et al., 2018): "Linearity is important in a practical sense because Pearson's r only captures the linear relationships among variables; if there are substantial nonlinear relationships among variables, they are ignored" (Foroudi, 2012, p.204; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p.84), and "linearity among latent variables is difficult to assess; however, linear relationships among pairs of measured variables can be assessed through inspection of scatter plots" (Foroudi, 2012, p.204; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p.682).

This study used Pearson's r or Pearson correlation coefficient at the .01 significance level (2-tailed) to establish the multi-collinearity and linearity of the constructs of occupational identity; the results in table 6.4 shows that all independent variables are noticeably positively correlated to the dependent variables. Consequently, all variables were linear with each other according to the indication of this assessment (Figure 6.3). Next, the results from the bivariate correlation were computed to examine the multi-collinearity between the variables. According to previous researchers, if the values between the constructs are 0.90 or above, it means they have a high level of multi-collinearity (Foroudi, 2012; Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The outcomes of the correlation matrix in this study, offered in Table 6.4, show that none of the

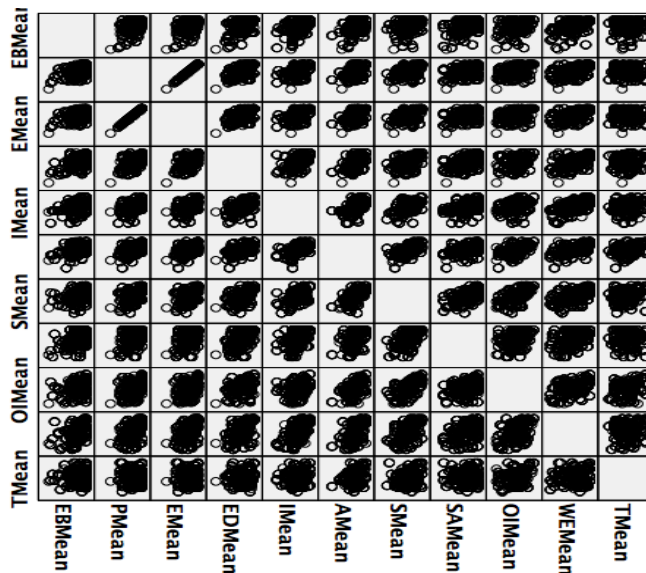
bivariate correlations were highly correlated ($\geq .90$) to another (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007), suggesting that there was no multi-collinearity between the variables.

Table 6.4: Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for the constructs

	EBM	PM	EM	EDM	IM	AM	SM	SAM	OIM	WEM	TM
EBM	1										
PM	.407**	1									
EM	.385**	.420**	1								
EDM	.475**	.594**	.453**	1							
IM	.384**	.497**	.400**	.479**	1						
AM	.340**	.287**	.307**	.440**	.433**	1					
SM	.324**	.406**	.381**	.491**	.571**	.581**	1				
SAM	.296**	.291**	.327**	.452**	.355**	.441**	.494**	1			
OIM	.306**	.367**	.292**	.380**	.384**	.530**	.435**	.362**	1		
WEM	.416**	.436**	.373**	.481**	.578**	.491**	.509**	.367*	.467**	1	
TM	-.020	-.039	.005	.038	.122**	.240**	.249**	-.077	.123**	.036	1

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 6.3: Occupational identity constructs scatter plot matrix



Source: Analysis of survey data

Additionally, this study also assessed the tolerance values and values of variance inflation factor (VIF) (Hair et al., 2018). The larger VIF (>10) or lower tolerance (<0.1), suggests that there is no multi-collinearity present between the variables (Pallant, 2007). The results in this study, as

shown in Table 6.5, showed that two of the constructs violated the assumption of multi-collinearity (Foroudi, 2012). Nevertheless, as far as tolerance effect goes, only IM and SAM were marginally lower than the assumption. The tactic for dealing with multi-collinearity is to delete the redundant variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this report, out of three suppositions for detecting multi-collinearity, two were fulfilled (e.g. bivariate person correlation and VIF value). Consequently, the researcher in this study did not delete any variable at this stage and retained all of them for further examinations of collinearities.

Table 6.5: Regression for observing VIF and tolerance effect

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.429	.376		3.806			
EBM	.048	.049	.046	.989	1.511	.989	1.539
EM	.060	.062	.046	.981	1.539	.981	1.829
EDM	.026	.057	.023	.459	1.829	.459	1.838
IM	-.152	.047	-.163	-3.202	1.838	-3.202	1.917
AM	.216	.048	.233	4.488	1.917	4.488	2.055
SM	.284	.046	.335	6.225	2.055	6.225	1.703
SAM	-.031	.058	-.026	-.531	1.703	-.531	1.811
WEM	.166	.039	.212	4.208	1.811	4.208	1.179
TM	.105	.026	.163	3.999	1.179	3.999	1.511

Source: Analysis of survey data

6.2.6.3. Homoscedasticity

According to Tabachnick and Fidel (2007), homoscedasticity is linked to the assumption of normality when the supposition of multivariate normality is met: the links between variables are homoscedastic (Foroudi, 2012, p.206). The assumption of homoscedasticity (unequal variances) is central to linear regression models. In other words, when the irregularity in outcomes for one constant variable is equivalent at all values of another constant variable and is replicated graphically, variables are homoscedastic.

Levene's test was used in this analysis to assess whether the variances of a single metric variable were equal across a non-metric variable such as gender (Pallant, 2007). Levene's test is a measure of homogeneity of variance and is significant at $p \leq .05$ (Foroudi, 2012, p.206). The result of Levene's test (Table 6.6) is not significant based on the value P was higher, and similarly, variances were found not to be different.

Table 6.6: Levene's test of homogeneity of variances

	Levene statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
EB	.015	1	415	.903
P	.437	1	415	.509
E	.437	1	415	.509
ED	.464	1	415	.496
I	3.465	1	415	.063
A	6.278	1	415	.053
S	3.493	1	415	.062
SA	.274	1	415	.601
OI	.586	1	415	.445
WE	1.258	1	415	.263
T	.021	1	415	.884

Source: Analysis of survey data

6.2.6.4. Respondent profile

The data was gathered from restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred guide exclusive to London, UK. Steps were taken to ensure that the data represented the overall population. Respondents were asked to specify characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, education level and income level. Profiles of the respondents, based on their age, gender, ethnicity and education, is summarised in Table 6.7. *This information was relevant to provide an overview of respondents' background. However, in this current study they were not considered to be applicable due to the nature of the research questions and objectives.*

Table 6.7: Waiter demographics

Sample size (398)		N	%
Gender			
	Male	140	35.2
	Female	258	64.8
	Total	398	100
Age			
	Less than 19 years or less	7	1.7
	20 to 29 years	270	67.9
	30 to 39 years	91	22.8
	40 to 49 years	22	5.8
	50 to 59 years	8	1.9
	More than 60	0	0
	Total	398	100
Education			
	Secondary school	150	37.4
	Undergraduate	155	39.3
	Postgraduate and above	94	23.3
	Total	398	100
Nationality			
	Australian	8	1.9
	Bangladesh	5	1.2
	Brazilian	8	1.9
	Bulgarian	1	.1
	Canadian	1	.2
	Chinese	1	.2
	Colombian	1	.2
	Ecuadorian	4	1.0
	English	49	12.2
	Estonian	7	1.7
	French	33	8.6
	German	1	.2
	Greek	16	3.8
	Hungarian	22	5.8
	Indian	9	2.2
	Irish	4	1.0
	Italian	100	25.4
	Korean	3	.7
	Lithuanian	8	1.9
	Moroccan	4	1.00
	Nepoli	5	1.2
	Polish	25	6.2
	Portuguese	5	1.2
	Rumanian	6	1.4
	Russian	4	1.0
	Scottish	3	.7
	Spanish	62	15.8
	Vietnamese	3	.7
	Welsh	1	.2
	Total	398	398

Source: The researcher

Demographic individualities are specified in Table 6.7, and this demonstrates that most of the respondents (64.3%) were female, and 35.7% were male. More than half (53.3%) respondents were between the ages of 20 to 29. In terms of education, a high percentage (60.7%) of the respondents had a graduate qualification or above. 25.4% of those taking part were students, and with respect to nationality, the findings show that only 12.2% of respondents were English while more than half of the respondents (74%) were from the European Community Countries with Italian as the highest number of respondents (25.4%), followed by the Spanish with 15.8%. However, 18% of respondents were non-European English mother language speakers.

6.3. EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis is frequently employed to reduce the data to a smaller group of principal summary variables or factors (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The set of variables created in the current study indicate the correlation between the variables in question. By searching for variables that highly relate with other variable sets, without correlating with variables outside that group facilitate to achieve this data reduction. More precisely, factor analysis facilitates the way to analyse the structure of the interrelationship between a large number of variables by specifying variable sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors (Hair et al., 2018, p.94). Field (2009) describes three key uses of factor analysis: “(1) to appreciate the configuration of a set of variables, (2) to create a questionnaire to gauge any underlying variables, and (3) to condense a dataset to a more manageable size while preserving as much of the original evidence as possible” (Field, 2009, p.619).

The principal reason for performing EFA in the current study is to determine the factor structure of a measure, to evaluate its internal reliability. It explores the underlying structure of the data and helps in developing a theory that leads to a proposed measurement model that can be tested using confirmatory factor analysis (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012). Thus, two principal kinds of rotation methods are used in this study to analyse the data for exploratory factor analysis, namely orthogonal and oblique (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this study, an extraction procedure was supplemented by rotation to develop the interpretability and scientific utility of the result (Table 6.8). The purpose of rotation was to maximise significant connections between factors and variables and minimise insignificant ones (Foroudi, 2012; Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

6.3.1. KMO and Bartlett's test

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test assesses the data adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity is suggested to obtain suitable factor analysis outcomes (Norusis, 1999). It examines the appropriateness of the factor analysis (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that when values are high (i.e. between .50 and 1.0), the factor analysis is suitable, while when values are low (i.e. below .50), this implies that the factor analysis may not be suitable.

After Hair et al.'s (2018) recommendations, the Bartlett's test of sphericity implies that the relationship between the measurement items is greater than .3 and is appropriate for EFA. In this research, the value was found to be higher than .70, as shown in Table 6.8, suggesting that factor analysis was highly appropriate for the study.

Table 6.8: KMO and Bartlett's test for waiters' occupational identity

Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy .820		
	Approx. chi-square	12186.350
	df	1326
	Sig.	.000

Source: Analysis of survey data

6.3.2. Communalities

After KMO, it is recommended by researchers to analyse communalities and eigenvalues (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Community is the amount of variance a variable shares with all the other variables being considered (Malhotra, 2010, p.638). Field (2009) stressed that a variable with no unique variance (or random variance), would have a communality equal to 1, while a variable that did not share anything with other variables would have a communality equal to 0 (Field, 2009, p.630). Various researchers suggested (Hair et al., 2006; Pallant, 2007; Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012) that communality should be above 0.5, and that a large sample size of 300 cases or more will require otherwise. Furthermore, when the items have different frequency distributions, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) follow Comrey and Lee (1992) in suggesting using more stringent cut-offs going from .32 (poor), .45 (fair), .55 (good), .63 (very good) or .71 (excellent) (Nimon, 2012, p.10). This analysis shows communality values of above .55 (Table 6.9), with a high variation from .548 for E_4 to .781 for WE_4. All the items share above .6 communalities with their components and indicate that items fit well with other items in the same component (Hair et al., 2018).

Table 6.9: Communalities shared by individual items

Variables	Initial	Extraction	Variables	Initial	Extraction	Variables	Initial	Extraction
EB_1	1.000	.664	ED_7	1.000	.704	SA_1	1.000	.673
EB_2	1.000	.555	ED_8	1.000	.693	SA_2	1.000	.696
EB_3	1.000	.622	I_1	1.000	.696	SA_3	1.000	.620
EB_4	1.000	.624	I_2	1.000	.706	SA_4	1.000	.700
EB_5	1.000	.572	I_3	1.000	.656	SA_5	1.000	.648
P_1	1.000	.624	I_5	1.000	.621	OI_1	1.000	.672
P_2	1.000	.587	A_1	1.000	.709	OI_2	1.000	.667
P_3	1.000	.728	A_2	1.000	.597	OI_3	1.000	.722
P_4	1.000	.736	A_3	1.000	.587	OI_5	1.000	.655
P_5	1.000	.719	A_4	1.000	.670	WE_1	1.000	.745
E_1	1.000	.617	A_5	1.000	.610	WE_2	1.000	.781
E_2	1.000	.682	A_6	1.000	.631	WE_3	1.000	.699
E_3	1.000	.548	S_1	1.000	.723	WE_4	1.000	.689
E_4	1.000	.701	S_2	1.000	.681	WE_5	1.000	.583
E_5	1.000	.602	S_3	1.000	.650	T_2	1.000	.720
ED_1	1.000	.632	S_4	1.000	.675	T_3	1.000	.628
ED_3	1.000	.664	S_5	1.000	.767	T_4	1.000	.673
ED_4	1.000	.555	S_6	1.000	.701	T_5	1.000	.696
ED_5	1.000	.622	S_7	1.000	.704			

Extraction method: principal component analysis

6.3.3. Eigenvalue

Eigenvalues show how many factors are extracted in the overall factor analysis. They represent the amount of variance attributed to each factor (Malhotra, 2010). If the component analysis variance of each variable that adds towards the principle factor extraction is one or higher, it is counted as significant, while a factor with an eigenvalue of less than 1 is counted as disregarded and insignificant to the research (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

The total variance described by each component was put forward in Table 6.10. Only the quantity of factors that contributed eigenvalue >1 were significant and the rest were overlooked (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Principal component analysis displayed the presence of 11 components with eigenvalues exceeding one. Table 6.10 demonstrates that the highest variance extracted by items into a construct was 16.154% and the lowest one was 3.465%. In total, 11 components clarified a total variance of 69.36% (column cumulative %), which is more than the recommendations (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Table 6.10: Total variance explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.400	16.154	16.154	8.400	16.154	16.154	3.862	7.426	7.426
2	4.146	7.972	24.126	4.146	7.972	24.126	3.821	7.349	14.775
3	3.970	7.634	31.760	3.970	7.634	31.760	3.380	6.500	21.275
4	3.301	6.348	38.108	3.301	6.348	38.108	3.361	6.463	27.738
5	2.894	5.565	43.673	2.894	5.565	43.673	3.360	6.462	34.199
6	2.690	5.173	48.846	2.690	5.173	48.846	3.347	6.437	40.637
7	2.498	4.805	53.651	2.498	4.805	53.651	3.237	6.224	46.861
8	2.290	4.403	58.054	2.290	4.403	58.054	2.981	5.734	52.595
9	2.120	4.077	62.131	2.120	4.077	62.131	2.956	5.684	58.279
10	1.961	3.771	65.902	1.961	3.771	65.902	2.887	5.551	63.831
11	1.802	3.465	69.368	1.802	3.465	69.368	2.879	5.537	69.368
12	.939	1.806	71.174						
13	.846	1.627	72.801						
14	.782	1.505	74.306						
15	.706	1.358	75.664						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis (A total of 56 items were inspected, nonetheless, the table presents only 20 observations).

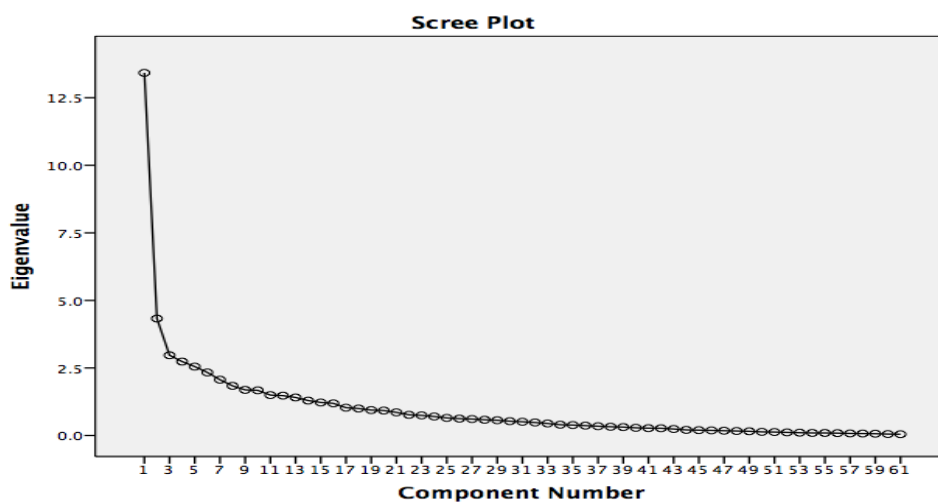
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Rotation converged in 46 iterations.

6.3.4. Scree plot

The scree plot was another criterion utilised to decide the sum of factors. A scree plot is a plot of the eigenvalues against the number of factors in order of extraction (Malhotra, 2010). The shape of the scree plot determines the number of factors. The plot has a distinct break between the steep slope of factors, with large eigenvalues and a gradual trailing off associated with the rest of the factors (Malhotra, 2010). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that the scree plot is always higher for the first factor, reasonable for the middle factors and smaller for the very last factor. Anecdotal evidence suggests that there can be 1 or a few factors than that given by the eigenvalue condition (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012). Figure 6.4 displays the scree plot test on data to corroborate the extracted factors through eigenvalues, and it established an equal sum of factors extracted employing KMO's latent root criteria e.g. eigenvalue>2.5. The figure showed a relatively clear breakdown between 9 and 11. Components 1 to 10 captured or clarified much more of the variance than the residual components.

Figure 6.4: Scree plot for waiters' occupational identity



Source: Analysis of survey data

Academics (Hair et al., 2018; Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) maintain that identifying the appropriate loading for each variable onto each factor is necessary. After the extraction of the factors, a rotated loading matrix was used in this study to determine the number of variables that load on each factor. The rotated loading matrix contains a factor matrix, which contains the coefficients used to express the standardised variables in terms of the factors (Malhotra, 2010, p.644-645). These coefficients represent the correlations between the factors and the variables. A factor with high value shows that the factors and variables are strongly correlated, while a low value shows that they have a very weak correlation (Hair et al., 2018; Malhotra, 2010). Previous researchers have suggested deleting variables with low values (Hair et al., 2018; Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012). Matsunaga (2015) suggested that 0.50 was a sophisticated value, which is frequently used and recommended by a number of social science researchers. In this study, five items were detached from the constructs (ED_8, A_6 and S_5, S_6 and S_7) because of cross loadings and most of the items were loaded on their equivalent constructs (Appendix 6.6 for EFA analysis before deleting). After factors derived from the EFA, as shown in Table 6.11, the rotated component matrix for the other constructs and the outcomes demonstrate that items were loaded on 11 factors ranging from .515 to .869 and satisfied the minimum factor loading criteria (Churchill, 1979; Hair et al., 2018; Pallant, 2007; Cronbach, 1951; Nunnally, 1978). Cronbach's alpha for each factor confirmed that the items in each factor were internally consistent (Foroudi, 2012, p.212; Nunnally, 1978).

Table 6.11: Factor loadings

Components											
Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
EB 1	.777										
EB 2	.783										
EB 3	.787										
EB 4	.794										
EB 5	.776										
P 1		.716									
P 2		.760									
P 3		.809									
P 4		.775									
P 5		.775									
E 1			.775								
E 2			.772								
E 3			.824								
E 4			.830								
E 5			.756								
ED 1				.766							
ED 3				.748							
ED 4				.708							
ED 5				.814							
ED 6				.823							
ED 7				.771							
I 1					.772						
I 2					.813						
I 3					.835						
I 5					.840						
A 1						.789					
A 2						.832					
A 3						.846					
A 4						.832					
A 5						.812					
S 1							.790				
S 2							.842				
S 3							.855				
S 4							.800				
SA 1								.790			
SA 2								.852			
SA 3								.829			
SA 4								.720			
SA 5								.732			
OI 1									.781		
OI 2									.814		
OI 3									.789		
OI 5									.838		
WE 1										.741	
WE 2										.733	
WE 3										.778	
WE 4										.804	
WE 5										.733	
T 2											.824
T 3											.801
T 4											.871
T 5											.810
Cronbach's a	.865	.857	.851	.870	.851	.912	.861	.734	.846	.874	.856

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Source: Analysis of survey data (SPSS file)

Rotation method: Varimax with KMO normalisation

A rotation converged in eight iterations.

Note: EB = employer branding, P = passion, E = extroversion, ED = education, I = interaction, A = authenticity, S = stereotype, SA = salience, OI = occupational identity, WE = work engagement, T = turnover

6.4. STRUCTURAL EVALUATION OF THE MODEL

6.4.1. Basic concepts of structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used in this study to assess the measurement and structural models. The study followed a two-step approach to study SEM that permitted scrutinising in this study of the significance of all pattern coefficients and offers a valuable framework for formal comparisons of the substantive model of interest with future prospective theoretical options. Initially, assessing the measurement model by using (AMOS 21 was conducted to pinpoint the causal relations between the observed items and the latent construct (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). In this stage confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the construct validity (Hair et al., 2018). Then, assessing the structural model clarified the causal associations between the perceived constructs and how the constructs are related to each other, often with multiple dependence relationships (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra et al., 2012).

6.4.2 Step one: Confirmatory factor analyses

The measurement model was the first stage of testing the model. The CFA technique was employed to assess validity and reliability. CFA normally denotes which variables outline the construct. If the number of factors and the loadings of variables on them match what is predictable on the basis of the theory, this allows researchers to test the hypotheses that a relationship between variables and their latent constructs exists (Malhotra, 2010, p.725). It helps in removing items that do not cluster with other items.

6.4.2.1. Measurement of reliability (item/construct level)

Reliability was the first assessment of the measurement model. Measurement of reliability at the items level and constructs level were both applied (Hair et al., 2018). Reliability at the items level tested the internal consistency of the measuring of observed items to signify a latent construct and neglect additional dimensions occurred by factor analysis due to the rejected items (Churchill, 1979; Foroudi, 2012). “Internal consistency is defined as an approach assessing the internal consistency of the set of items, when several items are summarised in order to form a total score for the scale” (Malhotra, 2010, p.319; Malhotra et al., 2012). In a

scale of this type, each item measures some aspect of the construct measured by the entire scale, and the items should be consistent in what “they indicate about the characteristic” (Malhotra, 2010, p.319). Tables 6.12 to 6.22 demonstrate that the total correlation between the construct and its assessing manifest items was more than the minimum threshold conditions of .4. The factor loading varied from .571 (ED_4 <--- ED) to .846 (A_3 <--- A) and fulfilled the reliability requirements (Churchill, 1979).

The construct-level consistency, sometimes known as ‘composite reliability’, guaranteed that items allocated to the same constructs exposed a greater affiliation with each other. The measurement model suitability involves scrutinising the statistical importance of each factor loading and calculation of the composite reliability. Construct reliability or composite reliability evaluates the indicators’ internal consistency, showing the amount to which they show the common latent construct. Previous researchers have recommended the use of composite reliability of .7 or higher (Nunnally, 1978; Hair et al., 2012); however, estimates between .6 and .7 can also be considered acceptable, if the estimates of model validity were good. The results from this study suggested that composite reliability for each construct was higher than .7.

The squared multiple correlations (SMC) was used in this analysis to gauge the reliability of the construct and is denoted by an item reliability coefficient. SMC is the association between the construct it measures and a single indicator variable. The SMC for an observed variable is the square of the indicator’s standardised loading. According to the measurement analysis, “the squared multiple correlations between its quantifying manifest items and the construct were greater than the minimum level criteria of .5. An SMC of .5 is approximately equal to a regulated load of .7” (Foroudi, 2012, p.224; Holmes-Smith et al., 2006)

Table 6.12: The employer branding construct

				Composite reliability = .90				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable employer branding(EB) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5589
EB 1	<---	EB	.789	.225	.021	10.899	***	.622	
EB 2	<---	EB	.739	.307	.026	11.766	***	.546	
EB 3	<---	EB	.762	.268	.023	11.416	***	.580	
EB 4	<---	EB	.722	.338	.028	11.983	***	.522	
EB 5	<---	EB	.724	.334	.028	11.957	***	.525	

Table 6.13: The passion construct

				Composite reliability = .86				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Passion (P) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5545608
P 1	<---	P	.739	.429	.036	11.765	***	.546	
P 2	<---	P	.695	.551	.045	12.288	***	.493	
P 3	<---	P	.792	.317	.029	10.936	***	.627	
P 4	<---	P	.787	.307	.028	10.830	***	.619	
P 5	<---	P	.705	.521	.043	12.185	***	.497	

Table 6.14: The extroversion construct

				Composite reliability = .93				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Extroversion (E) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5136214
E 1	<---	E	.678	.221	.018	12.227	***	.559	
E 2	<---	E	.663	.240	.019	12.376	***	.539	
E 3	<---	E	.697	.199	.017	12.020	***	.585	
E 4	<---	E	.738	.157	.014	11.445	***	.545	
E 5	<---	E	.799	.106	.010	10.191	***	.638	

Table 6.15: The education construct

				Composite reliability = .89				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Education (ED) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5315
ED 1	<---	ED	.768	.273	.023	11.600	***	.559	
ED 3	<---	ED	.795	.228	.021	11.098	***	.584	
ED 4	<---	ED	.571	.811	.061	13.266	***	.600	
ED 5	<---	ED	.774	.262	.023	11.496	***	.526	
ED 6	<---	ED	.696	.419	.034	12.482	***	.633	
ED 7	<---	ED	.747	.343	.030	11.610	***	.590	

Table 6.16: The interferences construct

				Composite reliability = .89				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Interferences (I) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5926
I 1	<---	I	.761	.265	.024	11.180	***	.579	
I 2	<---	I	.760	.367	.024	11.198	***	.577	
I 3	<---	I	.770	.250	.023	10.996	***	.593	
I 5	<---	I	.788	.222	.021	10.603	***	.621	

Table 6.17: The authenticity construct

				Composite reliability = .91				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Authenticity (A) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.6773
A_1	<---	A	.809	.335	.049	11.736	***	.655	
A_2	<---	A	.795	.370	.029	11.961	***	.632	
A_3	<---	A	.846	.254	.031	10.968	***	.715	
A_4	<---	A	.841	.264	.023	11.090	***	.707	
A_5	<---	A	.820	.310	.027	11.545	***	.672	

Table 6.18: The stereotype construct

				Composite reliability = .89				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Stereotype(S) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.6448
S_1	<---	S	.783	.596	.052	11.352	***	.612	
S_2	<---	S	.840	.393	.040	9.921	***	.705	
S_3	<---	S	.791	.565	.050	11.198	***	.705	
S_4	<---	S	.797	.542	.049	11.070	***	.635	

Table 6.19: The salience construct

				Composite reliability = .86				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Salience (SA) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5740
SA_1	<---	SA	.760	.187	.016	11.617	***	.578	
SA_2	<---	SA	.788	.156	.014	11.126	***	.621	
SA_3	<---	SA	.802	.141	.013	10.810	***	.644	
SA_4	<---	SA	.688	.285	.023	12.465	***	.573	
SA_5	<---	SA	.745	.205	.017	11.838	***	.555	

Table 6.20: The occupational identity construct

				Composite reliability = .88				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Occupational Identity (OI) Standard factor loading				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5741
OI_1	<---	OI	.789	.111	.011	10.334	***	.623	
OI_2	<---	OI	.738	.153	.013	11.384	***	.544	
OI_3	<---	OI	.745	.156	.017	11.405	***	.565	
OI_5	<---	OI	.758	.135	.012	11.021	***	.575	

Table 6.21: The work engagement construct

				Composite reliability = .90				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Work Engagement (WE)				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.5668
Standard factor loading									
WE_1	<-- -	WE	.774	.518	.045	11.412	***	.617	
WE_2	<-- -	WE	.799	.440	.040	10.929	***	.495	
WE_3	<-- -	WE	.736	.654	.055	11.977	***	.542	
WE_4	<-- -	WE	.703	.790	.064	12.345	***	.638	
WE_5	<-- -	WE	.785	.481	.043	11.200	***	.599	

Table 6.22: The turnover construct

				Composite reliability = .88				Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted
Favourable Turnover (T)				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.6181
Standard factor loading									
T_2	<-- -	T	.808	1.220	.117	10.448	***	.522	
T_3	<-- -	T	.761	1.664	.145	11.441	***	.688	
T_4	<-- -	T	.829	1.039	.106	9.819	***	.579	
T_5	<-- -	T	.723	2.094	.175	11.999	***	.652	

This study uses both incremental fit indices and absolute fit indices for the measurement model. Absolute fit indices suggest the level to which the hypothesised model reproduces the sample data and incremental fit indices calculate how appropriate the specific model is relative to alternative baseline models (Hair et al., 2018). Additionally, the model fit indicators were employed in model validation so as to determine the probable issue of an unreliable Chi-square static and standard error due to ML application (Bentler and Chou, 1987; Foroudi, 2012, p.229) (Table 6.23).

Table 6.23: Model fit-measurement model

Model fit indicators								
Chi-square/X2	DF	RMSEA	GFI	NFI	CFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI
586.8	367	.056	.844	.838	.930	.789	.932	.912

Source: Analysis of survey data

The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and comparative fit index (CFI) give adequate distinctive evidence to appraise a model (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2018). Founded on these conditions, the CFI and the RMSEA .056 (<.08 denotes good fit) (Garver and Mentzer, 1999). CFI .930 (>.90 denotes good fit) is an incremental table that evaluates the model fit with the null baseline model (Malhotra, 2010; Hair et al., 2018). CFI is an improved version of normated fit index (NFI). The NFI assesses the percentage by which a model is enhanced regarding fit in comparison with the base model (Hair et al., 2018). Nonetheless, the NFI does not check for quantities of independence and it underestimates fit in lesser samples (Hair et al., 2018; Malhotra, 2010) (.838 >.80 denotes acceptable fit) (Gerbing and Anderson, 1992; Hair et al., 2018). The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) calculates the fitness of a model in comparison to another model (Hair et al., 2018). GFI .844>.90 shows beneath the satisfactory cut-off level. Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) amends model complexity (.789>.90). The AGFI is lower than the conventional cut-off level. Hair et al. (2018) maintain that no particular importance on any index can divide models into standard and non-standard fits. Hair et al. (2018) recommends that the researcher should account for at least one absolute index and one incremental index and also the independence associated degrees and values. The model stipulations may have an effect on model fit. The investigator should be certain that all model stipulations should be done to best estimate the notion to be verified instead of increase model fit (Foroudi, 2012, p.230; Hair et al., 2018). Subsequently these measures denote that it is hard to deliver an agreeable fit for the model, and these outcomes could only be a supplementary indication.

Hair et al. (2018) state that the Tucker-Lewis index (also named the non-normed fit or NNFI), likens the χ^2 value of the model to that of the independence model and takes quantities of independence for the model into account (Byrne, 2001; Foroudi, 2012, p.230; Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Consequently, the calculation model of these three factors was nomologically effective (Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991). Furthermore, the incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) were .932 and .912 individually. All were close to the recommended limit of .90 (Hair et al., 2018), and each condition of fit thus designated that the proposed measurement model's fit was adequate.

Discriminant validity or divergent validity denotes the degree to which measures deviate from other operationalisations where the construct is really separate from other constructs (Peter and Churchill, 1986); it is the matching theory to convergent validity. Table 6.24 demonstrates that

the average variance extracted outcomes would be more than the squared correlation approximations (Hair et al., 2018). A substitute discriminant validity check is to calculate the average variance extracted (AVE) for every construct and compare it with the square correlation concerning them. In this study, the AVE was greater than any squared correlation of the latent variables (LV) within the framework of that consideration, which backs discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2018; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Further discriminant validity confirmation is that probable associations among features were fewer than the recommended value of .92 (Kline, 1998). Thus, the adjusted measurement mode reveals discriminant validity in all latent constructs. In the discriminant validity event, the predicted associations were statistically significant ($p < .05$) (Hair et al., 2018).

Table 6.24: Inter-construct correlation and AVE for basic model

	AVE	P	E	ED	I	A	S	SA	OI	WE	T
EB	.55	1.00									
P	.55	.14	1.00								
E	.51	.06	.41	1.00							
ED	.53	.13	.59	.44	1.00						
I	.59	.05	.50	.39	.50	1.00					
A	.67	.18	.29	.31	.44	.44	1.00				
S	.64	.14	.41	.38	.51	.56	.51	1.00			
SA	.57	.05	.29	.32	.45	.34	.30	.49			
OI	.57	.23	.037	.30	.39	.39	.43	.44	1.00		
WE	.56	.21	.43	.36	.47	.58	.40	.51	.36	1.00	
T	.61	.08	.04	.08	.04	.10	.24	.22	.08	.33	1.00

Source: Analysis of survey data

The final type of validity test used on the measurement model was that of nomological validity. Nomological validity is used to assess the relationships between theoretical constructs. It seeks to confirm significant correlations between the constructs as predicted by the theory (Malhotra, 2010, p.321). The fit measures are usually used as the sufficient conditions to assess nomological validity (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991; Foroudi, 2012, p.227). Goodness-of-fit indices indicate how well the specified model fits the observed or sample data, and so higher values of these measures are desirable; on the other hand, badness of fit indices measure error or deviations in some form, and so lower values on these indices are desirable (Malhotra, 2012). Nomological validity is centered on the construct correlation matrix essentials that are assumed to be connected (Table 6.25) concerning the degree to which the scale envisages the data based on the theory (Hair et al., 2018) and the soundness of the whole model (Eriksson et al., 2001; Pressgrove, 2017).

6.4.2.2. Configure and metric invariances

Due to the moderated data in this research (high and low salience groups), configure invariance and metric invariance tests have been measured. To complete the configurable invariance for salience, the model fit has been studied (Table 6.25). Outcomes found from each of the model fit demonstrated an adequate goodness-of-fit (apart from GFI and AGFI), implying that there was good configural invariance (when analysing an estimated model across two groups) for salience.

Table 6.25: Configural invariance for moderated factors - Configural invariance for salience

Chi-square/X2	DF	RMSEA A	GFI	NFI	CFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI
1463.8	756	.049	.819	.783	.878	.763	.882	.850

Source: Analysis of survey data

Furthermore, this study has been focused on the examinations of the metric invariance test to observe if forcing two or more groups together were substantially different than estimating them freely. As can be seen by the values, the measurement model in high and low salience both fit the data adequately. Table 6.25 summarised the outcomes of model-data fit for two nested models assessed for metric invariance.

Additionally, the metric invariance test had been performed to examine if forcing two or more groups together were substantially different than estimating them freely. Therefore, a chi-square difference test between the fully constrained model and the unconstrained model was conducted (Table 6.26). The outcomes demonstrated that the models were not significantly different, which did not require further analysis.

Table 6.26: Metric invariance test for salience

Unconstrained	1463.8	756	
Fully constrained	1452.9	763	.143
Number of groups		2	
Difference	10,9	7	

Source: Analysis of survey data

6.4.2.3. Common method bias

According to Podsakoff et al. (2003, 2012) common method bias is a measurement error that affects a conclusion validity founded upon statistical outcomes. Common method bias may increase relationships between variables measured by self-reports (Conway and Lance, 2010). When self-report measures are gained from the same sample, they instigate concerns regarding general method variance (Conway and Lance, 2010). Organ and Ryan (1995) suggest that studies using dispositional and attitudinal variables also induce common method bias.

A single factor test was conducted in this study to explain the occurrence of common method bias (Harman, 1967). All the items were included within a varimax rotation main component analysis: “If a single factor occurs that is less than 50% of covariance, the results indicate that there is no common method bias” (Podsakoff et al., 1984, p.35). In this research, the outcomes demonstrated 46% variance, therefore less than the common method bias value (Podsakoff et al., 1984). As a conclusion, this study did not show any presence of common method bias.

Additionally, the VIF test (shown in Table 6.5) was also considered. Outcomes showed that there would not be any problem with the common method bias. Lastly, a common latent factor test was conducted. Academics frequently propose utilising a marker variable (Simmering et al., 2015; Williams and Connel, 2010). As no marker variable had been utilised, a common latent factor test was therefore conducted (Hultman et al., 2009). A chi-square difference test between the original model (or unconstrained model) and the CMB-adjusted model (or fully constrained model) was conducted. The outcomes, as specified in Table 6.27, demonstrated that the two models were significantly different and shared a variance. As a consequence, the unconstrained model was kept and further imputed. The new data had accounted for the shared variance described by the common latent factor. This data set was utilised for further analyses in the research.

Table 6.27: Chi-square test between unconstrained and fully constrained models – common method bias

Models	χ^2	Difference	p-value
Unconstrained	2017,719	912	
Fully constrained	2283,122	958	
Difference	265,403	46	.000

The model fit with the existence of common latent factor were also examined. The results in Table 6.28 demonstrate that the model had an adequate model fit.

Table 6.28: Model fit for common method bias

X ²	Df	RMSEA	GFI	NFI	CFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI
2017,719	912	.060	.818	.816	.888	.785	.890	.873

6.4.3. Step two: structural model results – hypothesis testing

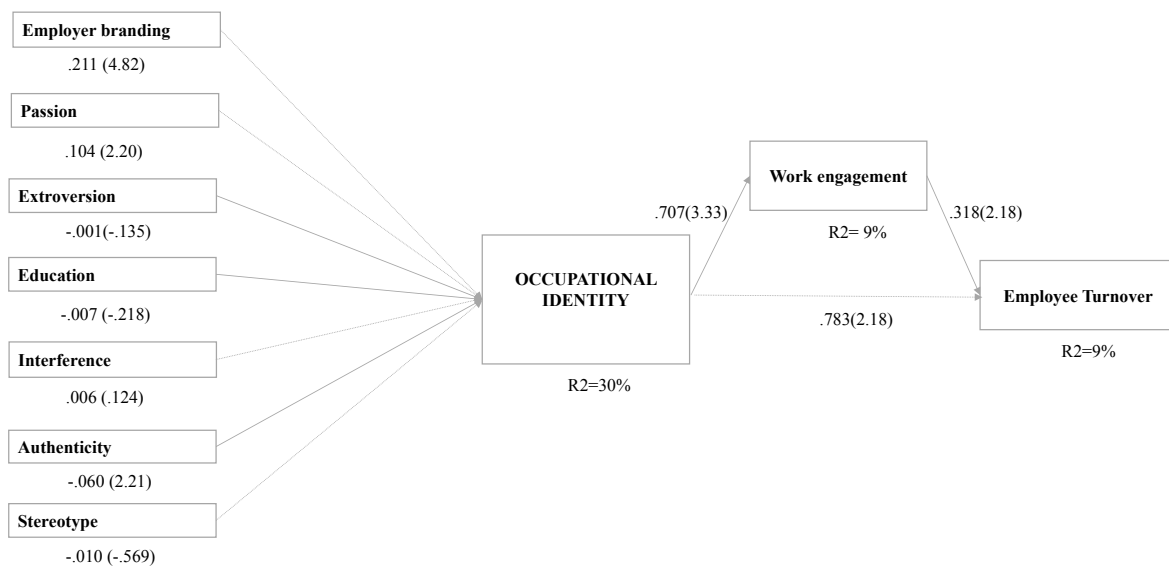
This step approximates an anticipated covariance and causal linear correlation between the endogenous and exogenous variables. The structural model permits the evaluation of the inner model. In Figure 6.5, the operational model of occupational identity is elucidated. The causal associations among theoretical constructs (Anderson and Gerbing, 1982; Chau, 1997) are detailed in the structural model. For instance, this investigation hypothesised that the more positive the approach waiters have towards developing their own occupational identity, the more favourable the waiters’ perception of the restaurant companies. The research hypotheses were evaluated, using the structural model with the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) for Windows software 21, from the critical ratio and standardised estimate. The unique fit index is Chi-square for structural models as it develops precisely from the fit function (Hair et al., 2018). The outcomes of Chi-square in this operational model is 715.7 (df = p < .001); the CFI value at .899 processes the ratio whereby the model is enhanced with regards to fit in comparison to the base model (Hair et al., 2018). The NFI value at .802 corroborates that the predicted model proffers an acceptable fit for this study’s empirical data (Table 6.29).

Table 6.29: Model fit of structural model

Model fit indicators								
Chi-square/X2	DF	RMSEA	GFI	NFI	CFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI
715.7	396	.065	.818	.802	.899	.772	.901	.881

All the results in Table 6.29 demonstrate that each of the model-fit indices surpass the corresponding collective levels of acceptance and establishes that the model displayed an acceptable fit with the statistics amassed (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2018). Additionally, the GFI, the alternative absolute measure of fit, denoted a suitable fit (.818). The AGFI is an enlargement of the GFI index of .772 and intimates that the model fit is borderline. NFI value of .802 is the limit for a realistic model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). RMSEA of .065 was employed to ascertain the model fit (a tolerable level <.08 (Kline, 1998)). Gerbing and Anderson (1992), state that, as there is an absence of understanding about the most appropriate GFI and because the size of the sample can impact on some indices, the paramount policy is to implement diverse GFI indices.

Figure 6.5: Conceptual model (results based on direct hypotheses)



Note: EB (Employer branding), P (Passion), E (Extroversion), ED (Education), I (Interferences), A (Authenticity), S (Stereotype), SA (Salience), OI (Occupational Identity), WE (Work Engagement) and T (Turnover).

The benchmarks for satisfactory fit suggested that the planned structural model fit was acceptable. Each of all fit indices in the current report are inside the satisfactory parameter (Hair

et al., 2018; Loehlin, 1987). A key setback encountered by this study employing CFA is that there are no totally recognised benchmarks for what comprises a satisfactory fit (Byrne, 2001; Tanaka and Huba, 1985). Hence, the suggested model keeps a satisfactory fit from the empirical data, there is an opportunity for discussing the findings of the analysis in AMOS.

Ten hypotheses were examined and the consequences of these outcomes are further considered in Chapter 7. The path coefficients represent standardised regression coefficients or beta coefficients. The SEM replicates the expected linear, causal correlations concerning the constructs, and was verified with the empirical data collected in the main survey (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Malhotra, 2010). The square multiple correlation for the structural equations index indicated that the highest variance was shared by independent variables into dependent was in occupational identity (e.g. $R^2 = .30$), followed by employee turnover (e.g. $R^2 = .09$). The findings regarding causal paths (standardised path coefficients (β), standard error, p-value and hypotheses results) and the parameter estimates corresponding to the hypothesised SEM paths and the resulting regression weights are presented in Table 6.30. The standardised regression path between employer branding (EB) and occupational identity (OI) was statistically significant ($\gamma = .211$, t-value = 4.824), which meant that H1 was supported. Similarly, H2, e.g. the relationship between passion and occupational identity was also supported ($\gamma = .104$, t-value = 2.206;). Furthermore, occupational identity's relationship with authenticity was significant, however the regression path surprisingly exhibited a meaningful negative association between these two variables ($\gamma = -.60$, t-value = 2.218). In contrast, occupational identity's relationship with extroversion was non-significant with the regression path showing a significant negative relationship between these two variables ($\gamma = -.001$, t-value = .893).

To reiterate, the regression weight for OI in foreseeing E is pointedly dissimilar from 0 at the significance level of .050; consequently, hypothesis 3 was rejected. Likewise, the hypotheses H4, H5, H7 were precluded because they were not statistically substantial ($\gamma = -.007$; .006, -.010, respectively). The path from OI to WE (H9) was significant ($\gamma = .707$, t-value = 3.337). Hypothesis 9, which describes the correlation between work engagement and employee turnover, was discovered to be significant in the hypothesised direction ($\gamma = .318$, t-value = 2.180). The hypothesised correlation between occupational identity and turnover of employees was found to be significant ($\gamma = .783$, t-value = 2.183). In the result shown in table 6.30, it has been demonstrated that H1, H2, H6, H9, H10 and H11 hypotheses were statistically significant

($\gamma = .211$, t-value = 4.824; $\gamma = .104$, t-value = 2.206; $\gamma = -.060$, t-value = .027; $\gamma = .707$, t-value = 3.337; $\gamma = .318$, t-value = 2.180 and $\gamma = .783$, t-value = 2.183), and then admitted.

Table 6.30: Results of direct hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	Standardised regression paths	Estimate	SE	CR	P	Results
H1	EB--->OI	.211	.044	4.824	***	Supported
H2	P--->OI	.104	.047	2.206	.027	Supported
H3	E--->OI	-.001	.007	-.135	.893	Not Supported
H4	ED--->OI	-.007	.033	-.218	.828	Not Supported
H5	I--->OI	.006	.033	.124	.901	Not Supported
H6	A--->OI	-.060	.027	2.218	.027	Supported
H7	S--->OI	-.010	.021	-.462	.644	Not Supported
H9	OI--->WE	.707	.212	3.337	***	Supported
H10	WE--->T	.318	.146	2.180	.029	Supported
H11	OI--->T	.783	.359	2.183	.029	Supported

In the next step, the moderation effect was tested in the context of chi-square test (Table 6.31). In the first hypothesis (H8d), education was examined to check if it was re-salient when it was congruent to occupational identity. The outcomes of the chi-square difference comparison showed that education made no significant difference to the effect of the construction of occupational identity when it is congruent ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 3.333$, $df = 1$, not supported), which denoted that no further sub-group analysis was essential (Byrne, 2001). Similarly, in the hypotheses H8e, H8f and H8g, the researcher tested whether the effects of interference, authenticity and stereotype were re-salient when they were congruent to occupational identity. The results of the chi-square difference comparison demonstrated that salience made no significant difference to the effects of interference ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 3.005$ not supported), authenticity ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 2.458$, $df = 1$, not supported) and stereotype ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = .013$, $df = 1$, not supported) which denoted that no further sub-group analysis was required (Byrne, 2001). However, the hypotheses H8a, H8b and H8c (e.g. employer branding, passion and extroversion) are re-salient when they are congruent with occupational identity. The result

showed that employer branding, passion and interference, when they are re-salient, made a significant difference to the effect of occupational identity ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 13.502$; df:1, $p < .05$), ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 10.460$; df:1, $p < .05$) and ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 4.393$; df:1, $p < .05$).

Table 6.31: Moderated hypotheses

H	DF	CMIN	P	Result
H8a	1	13.502	.000	Supported
H8b	1	10.460	.001	Supported
H8c	1	4.393	.036	Supported
H8d	1	3.333	.068	Not supported
H8e	1	3.005	.083	Not Supported
H8f	1	2.458	.117	Not Supported
H8g	1	.013	.910	Not supported

6.5. SUMMARY

The objective of this investigation was to respond to the foremost study investigation and to quantitatively assess the study suppositions. To accomplish these intentions, the data was studied in three phases. All these phases were used to refine the data, perform reliability and validity tests, and finally examine the hypotheses. SPSS 16.0 and AMOS 21.0 were used for all these purposes.

Phase one surveyed the data and encompassed an explanatory investigation of the demographic characteristics of this model. At first the researcher used the missing data technique to ensure that there was no non-response bias and that the data was refined, which displayed very minor levels of absent figures and that was utterly at random, but some skewness and kurtosis existed in the responses. The precision of the data was judged through linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, and non-response bias assessments to deduce exact conclusions presented by the data. Some skewness and kurtosis existed in the responses and implied that data was not unusual at a univariate level. Mahalanobis D2 was used; the results showed a low that only seven multivariate outliers existed. Levene's examination of similarity is non-important (e.g. $> .05$) and the variances are not statistically distinctive or noteworthy. Multi-collinearity, inspected using bivariate Pearson correlation, determines that r and value of VIF was within scope, which implied its absence. Mann-Whitney-U was examined for non-response error from

respondents and the outcomes were irrelevant with no disparity between the first and latter respondents.

In the second phase, an experimental factor analysis method was employed to demonstrate the connection of variables to factors. The factors were isolated with the aid of eigenvalues and scree plot. Using Varimax of orthogonal procedure as the main component, factors that illustrated greatest variance of factor loading were interchanged. After overseeing the reliability and EFA test, a decision was made to remove four items, as they were decidedly cross-loaded on other factors that could not be supported theoretically, and displayed low communalities or low reliability. Factors extricated according to EFA were examined in parallel using scree plotting. Each variable displayed AVE values of more than .5, demonstrating ample convergence and discriminant validity for the dimensions. Further analysis of nomological validity was founded on the correlation matrix of the constructs. Consequently, a correlation evaluation was applied to the interrelationships between investigation variables to predict the possibility of multi-collinearity.

The investigation entailed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of several measurement models to examine goodness-of-fit. By utilising the study of moment structures (AMOS 21) based on 398 cases, this argument calculated confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of several measurement models and a structural model of the planned occupational identity model. For the first stage, employing a CFA in order to analyse goodness-of-fit, assessed the fit of the measurement model. All markers were highly loaded on their quantified factors and the whole goodness-of-fit indices, recommending acceptance of the model. At this point, each construct was tested for consistency and soundness, Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability and average variance extracted. The findings of this analysis intimate the good reliability and validity of the mechanism. Furthermore, convergent, discriminant and nomological validity for each construct were confirmed. Crucially, confirmatory factor analysis offered the practical verification of construct validity according to an appraisal of the psychometric properties and measurement model fit for this analysis.

The third phase was to examine the structural model or hypotheses. The first stage was to assess the model fit. The results showed that there was an adequate model fit. The second stage was to assess the hypotheses, both direct and moderated. The outcomes demonstrate that six of the direct hypotheses were supported, while most of the moderated hypotheses were rejected except

three (H8a H8b and H8f), which demonstrated that more than half of the hypotheses were supported. Figure 6.5 illuminated the conclusive model. The next chapters contain a discussion and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

7.1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to develop a comprehensive understanding of occupational identity, its antecedents and its consequences on work engagement and employee turnover; Chapter 6 provided the results of this study. Chapter 7 will discuss the results in more detail following the research objectives and questions along with the relationships tested in the conceptual framework proposed. Section 7.2 summarises an overview of the study. Section 7.3. examines the focal construct of this study in detail. Section 7.4 is an appraisal of the occupational identity scale. Section 7.5 discusses the research hypotheses and their implications. Section 7.6. presents the summary of this chapter.

7.2. OVERVIEW OF STUDY

This thesis investigates the antecedents of waiters' occupational identity, which includes the most important aspects that affect occupational identity. In addition, the consequences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover are explored. Saliency is used as a moderator of this relationship, in order to explain the prominence of the stimuli. The significance of this topic to the restaurant sector can be seen from the contribution of occupational identity to organisational performance and consequent ability to reduce employee turnover. Managers need to work with and appreciate the inherent individual framework of waiters in job roles because these have an impact on the main concerns, such as work engagement and turnover of waiting staff. Moreover, within the hospitality sector, there has been a tendency to focus more on chefs than waiting staff (Buford, 2012; Hennessy, 2000; Hopper and Humphries, 2017; Newkey-Burden, 2009; Ramsay, 2006; 2007; Simpson, 2006; White, 1990; 2006). Occupational identity was claimed to affect work engagement and employee turnover intention (Bothma and Roodt, 2012; Dheer and Lenartowicz, 2018; Fernet et al., 2017). Consequently, the interest in occupational identity has increased at a surprising rate. However, up to now, limited empirical studies have been conducted in this subject to understand the real significance of the concept (Nelson and Irwin, 2014).

To research this issue the case for the application of mixed methodologies was applied, where qualitative and quantitative methodologies were employed to recognise employees' perceptions, unencumbered by "what we expect to find or what we have read in the literature"

(Creswell, 2013, p.48; Wild et al., 2017). It is essential to explain and understand what constitutes a phenomenon, so qualitative methodology is more appropriate (Carson et al., 2001; Khan, 2014). Three focus groups were conducted - two in Michelin-starred restaurants and one in the restaurant of a 5-star hotel in London - which included discussions with waiters; each group consisted of six participants (Krueger, 1994; Ryan et al., 2013). Semi-structured in-depth face-to-face interviews were organised involving restaurant managers, hospitality lecturers, and waiters in the UK (11 interviews). These two methods contributed to the investigation of waiters' sense of self and to comprehend how waiters construct their own occupational identity on the underpinning of an individual framework stimulated by its antecedents.

The main research technique in this study is the survey as the quantitative tool, which was directed to measure the research hypotheses and the proposed conceptual model. The mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods provided a richer scenario concerning the procedure of identity construction and the work environment of waiters by gaining their thoughts and comments about their own performance, as well as more reliable and precise information from the participants (Malhotra et al., 2012).

As discussed in Chapter 5, the self-administered questionnaire was utilised to gauge each of the constructs of the research and was determined on the foundation of the literature reviewed and of the qualitative research. To assess the face and content validity of the items the first form was examined among academics (Bearden et al., 1993; Chen and Raab, 2017; Zaichkowsky, 1985). Then, the developed scale was assessed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS 21.0) was employed to test the measurement model and the hypotheses of research and the results showed that occupational identity is an unidimensional construct in this research. Furthermore, all the constructs showed a high degree of reliability, convergent, nomological and discriminant validity. Measurement and structural models had a satisfactory fit index, with an amount of statistically significant paths being validated between occupational identity and other constructs. A sample of waiters from London restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred restaurant guide, with a total of 398 cases, was collected to test the developed model. In the confirmatory analysis (CFA) the data presented a significant fit. The chi-square (χ^2) = 586.8, df = 367, P-value = .000, CFI = .844, TLI = .912, GFI = .844, AGFI = .789, NFI = .838 and RMSEA = .056 were within the

permissible level recommended (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Sweeney 2000; Tabachnick and Fidell 2007).

Finally, the hypothesised model assessed shown in Table 6.30 demonstrates that the hypotheses H1, H2, H6, H9, H10 and H11 were supported. Conversely, hypotheses H3, H4, H5 and H7 were not statistically significant, and they were rejected ($\gamma = -.001, -.007, .006$ and $-.010$ respectively). The next section assesses the conceptual framework model by summarising the supporting evidence for the hypotheses.

7.3. OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY (FOCAL CONSTRUCT)

Despite the growing popularity of occupational identity, empirical research on the topic is limited within the hospitality literature (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004; Cable and Turban, 2001; Davies, 2008; Priyadarshi, 2011). An introductory definition of ‘occupational identity’ was explained in Chapter 2 and a breakdown of those concepts was presented in Chapter 6. This doctoral thesis has attempted to investigate a specific understanding of the relationship between waiters’ occupational identity, work engagement and employee turnover within restaurant organisations.

The outcomes of the qualitative research were considered as suggestive only, because of the qualitative approach of the research, and additional quantitative research was conducted to corroborate the results of the qualitative research. The results reinforced the recommended conceptualisation that the measurement instrument should enable a ‘customisation’ of the scale. Five related items scale to occupational identity were surveyed and established in the context of London restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred restaurant guide. The outcomes permitted the occupational identity scale to be simplified and modified. The empirically tested scale supported: (OI_1) “Being a waiter is more than just carrying plates and delivering food”; (OI_2) “The occupational identity has to fit with your work expectation” (Goldent and Veiga, 2005); (OI_3) “My culture helps me to be a good waiter”, and (OI_5) “OI has to fit with the profession”. The factor loading ranged from .738 (OI_2 <--- OI) to .789 (OI_1 <--- OI) and .758 (OI_5 <--- OI) and meets the reliability criteria (Churchill, 1979) (Table 6.20 for the indicators and occupational identity latent variables reliability). This section describes the importance of the relationship between the indicators of occupational identity (established by quantitative research) and occupational identity latent variable from the outcomes of qualitative research. The quantitative research, particularly, confirmed four characteristics of the

occupational identity latent variable in the context of Michelin-starred restaurants in London. The following comments from participants continues the discussions above in stating that waiters need to develop their occupational identity because there is more to it than “just carrying plates and doing food orders” (OI_1 <--- OI). One example is:

“It’s not very much seen as a career anymore, so what helps to contribute build the identity of this occupation is the fact that there is a personal appreciation for the role, you actually may potentially [get a] career out of it, a real long-term commitment to this occupation, you personally are there with the restaurant employer developing this role as well because there is a lot more to it than just carrying plates and doing food orders....” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

This analysis consequently demonstrates the view that occupational identity is a complex multidimensional phenomenon and has been related to concepts such as occupation involvement (Zigarmi et al., 2009). As argued above, it can be confirmed that occupational identity is described as the well-defined understanding of occupational values, interests, goals and abilities and the structure of the meanings that relate this self-understanding to career roles (Ibarra and Barbulescu, 2010; Vondracek, 1992). Furthermore, Bar and Jarus (2015) state occupational identity is a combination feeling of who individuals are and wish to develop as an occupational being. Occupational skills represent the capability to actualise a wished occupational identity in a means that meets environmental demands and provides satisfaction (Soderback, 2015). Therefore, “your occupation [waiter] has to fit with your expectations” (OI_2) is recognised as an item to measure ‘the occupational identity’ construct (OI_2 <--- OI).

Another component of the occupational identity in this research is the ‘socio-cultural perspective’ (OI_3). As stated in previous studies, identities are shaped, formed and reshaped through social-cultural understandings (Berger and Luckman, 1966; Gergen, 2009; Phelan, 2011; Phelan and Kinsella, 2014). Interviewees referred to the socio-cultural on the construction of occupational identity. Berger and Luckman (1966) argue that identity is socio-culturally constructed; it is continuously produced through social interactions and processes. They suggest an interaction between people and society that creates and recreates identity. Such thoughts extend the concept of identity construction beyond that of contribution in occupations that are socially respected within a society and direct to the ways in which participation in society, social relationships and culture may form, shape or even generate occupational identity (Phelan and Kinsella, 2014). Such a perception goes to deeper contemplation of the idea in which

occupational identities may be socially built, increasing practical and moral interests about how societies are developed and organised. The implication of occupations that are socially respected and that individuals are allowed to contribute in, show the moral obligations of societies and communities, stressing individuals' collective obligations. The socio-cultural element is also highlighted in the results of this qualitative and quantitative research, as demonstrated below:

“The waiter needs to feel and understand the culture of the food and the culture behind the food, he really needs to have passion for it. So, in this case, in this specific restaurant the waiters need to fully understand, feel passionate for this specific Spanish food that we serve in the restaurant” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

This statement is parallel with previous research in social literature such as Mars and Nicod (1984) and hospitality literature that denoted to experiencing culture as the distinguishing value and belief structure, and the procedures through which new employees were incorporated into the occupational framework of the restaurant sector.

Furthermore, the qualitative study captured another significant element of occupational identity, which was corroborated by the quantitative research: *“The interactive experience which exemplifies the experience of having [been] myself with the profession”* (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old), which involves “an individual negation of professional identity and identification” (Barbour and Lammers, 2015, p.14). One consultant participant working within a management position commented that:

“I try to tell them: you are not a waiter that carry plates, you are a food advisor ... Because you know, we want true personality when we recruit waiters ... I don't want you to carry plates I want your personality to be there and advise the customer and you're going to deliver good experience. To manage, advise and ... your personality and your beautiful experience and you should be proud of that” (Vice president, sales, 45 years old).

After inspecting the occupational identity as the focal construct of this study, the antecedents that are most likely to have an implication on the construction of occupational identity and the influences are examined. In the following section the findings for the antecedents are discussed.

7.4. APPRAISAL OF THE OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY SCALE

The measures of occupational identity call for the adaptation of an extensive variety of activities. The range of the occupational identity construct, as defined in this thesis, relates intentional direction with explicit concrete procedures, which must be assimilated and coherent within an organisation. The occupational identity is a vital constituent of the profession of waiters. Employees use occupational identity to develop emotions, express meaning, or increase identification with the product (food) and organisation (restaurant) to express engagement with the company and relate to reduce the employee turnover intention. This thesis recommends that occupational identities are most often used in an unchanged procedure when employees are going into a new job to complete their goals or achievement.

The occupational identity scale emphasised that occupational identity is a meaning, activity, cognition, knowing and learning being supported by fundamental procedures of social negotiation of implication within a culturally and socially structured world. The scale thus supports the occupational identity as a useful tool for accomplishing the goals of organisations and maintains that it should be an even more important role for restaurant managers.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, individuals are important actors in the formation of her/his own occupational identity, but the procedure is not completely personal. Instead, people and their relationship with others are relatively constrained by the process and structures of the groups of practices in which these occur, but that these relationships over time can precede to the stage of modifying groups of practice. Founded on the literature and the empirical research of this thesis, an amended definition of the occupational identity can therefore be suggested.

Occupational identity is a set of perceptual components, such as goals, abilities, occupational interests and meanings connecting the individual's identity to their career perspectives as generated by previous experience (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009; Delanty, 1995; Hirschi, 2012; Ibarra, 1999; Jenkins, 1996; Pratt et al., 2006; Snow and Anderson, 1987).

Appendix 6.2 shows that the occupational identity construct was contained in a model that determined causal relationships between occupational identity and other constructs. The next sections explain the antecedents and consequences of the occupational identity, founded on this study's outcomes from hypothesis testing, with the underpinning from the current literature and

qualitative outcomes.

7.5. DISCUSSION OF THE HYPOTHESES TESTS

The research hypotheses testing outcomes and presentation to meet the research objectives to direct the following goals are discussed in this section: (1) The perception of occupational identity is explored. (2) The factors that are most probable to have an important effect on occupational identity are identified. (3) A conceptual framework is developed and empirically assessed regarding the relationships between occupational identity, its antecedents and its consequences. (4) The impact of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover is acknowledged. Founded on the research objectives of this study, the two research questions within the context of Michelin-starred restaurants recommended by the Michelin guide in London are aimed to be answered by this research: (RQ1) ‘What are the factors that influence occupational identity?’ and (RQ2) ‘What are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?’

Subsequent exploration of occupational identity as a focal construct, the antecedents, and finally the consequences are studied. The discussion continues with the effects as to how occupational identity influences work engagement and employee turnover. The reason to segregate the hypotheses into a number of relationships was to gain a deeper comprehension of the exploratory effect of each relation of construct as the occupational identity on the work engagement and employee turnover. Table 6.30 shows a summary of the first 10 paths. In the conceptual model originally, a total of 10 hypotheses with 10 paths signified the relations. In the following section the outcomes for the antecedents and consequences of occupational identity are discussed.

Generally, as an outcome of the measurement scale purification procedure examined earlier, the occupational identity construct was involved in a model that recognised causal relationships among occupational identity and other constructs. The outcomes of the hypotheses tests are studied based on the foundation built from the previous studies. Due to showing superior aspects considering the research phenomena, the outcomes of the qualitative study acquired in the exploratory phase will be employed as a sample of the facts being studied.

Referring to the hypothesis tests, most of the research hypotheses (H1, H2, H6, H9, H10 and H11) were supported. However, an unexpected outcome was found and H3, H4, H5, and H7

were not supported. The outcomes of the current study showed that extroversion, education, interferences and stereotype are not essential factors to have an effect on occupational identity. Furthermore, the results show that they are significant consequences of occupational identity. More specifications of the unexpected outcomes will be discussed in this chapter. In the next sections, the discussions of the hypothesis tests will be explicated with support from the current literature and the qualitative results more specifically.

7.5.1. Antecedents of occupational identity

The findings of testing the research hypotheses are reviewed in this section. The qualitative study shows that there were some antecedents that will contribute to the waiter in constructing her/his occupational identity, such as: employer branding and stereotype. Conversely, the qualitative findings demonstrate that self-concept, inter-groups, interference, extroversion authenticity and interaction are not an important consideration in the occupational identity construction. Other elements have been found from the qualitative study to strongly influence occupational identity and contribute to congruent (or incongruent) construction: these involve passion, and education. Those antecedents were represented as latent exogenous variables in the structural model. A measurement model for those latent variables was shown and estimated good fit indices. Every single item was loaded on to the expected constructs targeted, although some items were deleted in the scale purification process (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991).

This study supports the idea that occupational identity is a key driver of waiter experience. Prior research has established occupational identity to be an antecedent to group identity in social psychology such as occupational commitment or as a mediator between role ambiguity and strain (McKenna and Green, 2002; Weis et al., 2003). Despite the growing popularity of employee identity, empirical research on the topic is limited within the hospitality literature (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004; Cable and Turban, 2001; Davies, 2008; Davies, 2016; Priyadarshi, 2011). This study, therefore, is one of the first to empirically assess the relationship between occupational identity and its antecedents such as: employer branding, passion, extroversion, education, interference, authenticity and stereotyping.

The results showed that extroversion (H3), education (H4), interaction (H5) and stereotype (H7) were totally rejected and were not relevant to the occupational identity assessment of waiters, while other factors (employer branding(H1), passion (H2) and authenticity (H6)) have been found to effectively influence the occupational identity and fully accepted. These outcomes are

appropriate to the context of this research. These factors were assessed and presented a good fit of indices in the measurement model. These constructs were showed as latent exogenous variables in the structural model. These factors (employer branding(H1), passion (H2) and authenticity (H6)) have been noticed to clearly have a positive influence on occupational identity and support in enhancing the waiters' perception. This study contributes to the knowledge that the factors, such as employer branding, passion and authenticity are the key drivers of occupational identity.

Factor one - employer branding- signifies a distinct image of a potential employer, which is demonstrated in the prospective employees. Certainly, it has been stated that the employer branding should underline the significance of organisations competing for the best talent and creating reliability (Alshathry et al., 2017). Employer branding is one phenomenon contemplated as a basis of competitive advantage by organisations in attempting to present the employment situation (Sullivan, 2004; Tanwar and Prasad, 2016; Wallace et al., 2014). The employer branding concerns an organisation's reputation as an employer (Ashcraft, 2007), and it is in the mind frame of occupational identity creation within the organisation that has an impact on potential and current employees, which enforces an attitude non-favourable/favourable to the employer (Ambler and Barrow, 1996).

Regarding the employer branding construct, this aspect institutionalises the identity of the organisation as an employer in order to comprehend the organisation's values, policies and behaviour, and aids in the encouragement and retention of current and potential employees. Items such as the following express the coherence of the employee unit: EB_1: "do your best to represent the restaurant where you work" (qualitative studies), EB_2: "restaurant and sense of belonging" (qualitative studies), EB_3: "engage with the concept of the restaurant" (qualitative studies), and EB_5: "the restaurant communicates its vision to the employees" (Bendaraviciene et al., 2014; Berthon et al., 2005; Hillebrandt and Ivens, 2013).

In relation to an organisation's employees, coherence relates to the development of the stability of occupational identity creation. In addition to the statistical findings, interviewees commented during the exploratory stage, which presented a clear understanding of the relationship between occupational identity and employer branding. A partner of a company established the importance of employer branding as a big task for the restaurant owner or managers. Human resources and marketing managers demonstrated that they intend to highlight their organisation

as an “employer of choice” in the challenge of low unemployment and skills shortages. Moreover, there is a lot of rivalry for good applicants; those with a superior employer branding will select and recruit from the best applicants. Individuals are tending more to search for roles where the company’s values are aligned with their own. The following is an example from a partner of a marketing consultant organisation:

“... it’s the job of the restaurant owner or manager to define the values ... these values will probably be about food or service but they need to be a lot more specific than that to create a sense of belonging. And these values will need to define how the organisation recruits waiters. So that the organisation gets the type of waiter that goes very well with its values and creates a strong sense of belonging” (Partner, 50 years old).

Consequently, the SEM outcomes in Table 6.30 showed the empirical evidence, which supports the positive relationship between employer branding and occupational identity. The hypothesis H1 was fully supported ($\gamma = .211$, t -value = 4.824). In parallel, it provides statistical support as evidence to this claim; there is a positive relationship between employer branding and occupational identity.

Factor two - passion - included occupational identity characters that are related to both self-concept and career identity and are more easily understood and accepted across social groups and institutions. Occupational identity is the key element of the work world to reduce the kind of identity confusion that arises when people define themselves based on more fluid associations outside of the workplace. Another characteristic of occupational identity is when this identification represents the robust predisposition or strong relation that individuals have toward his or her occupation (Afsar et al., 2016; Anagnostopoulos et al., 2016; Swanson and Kent, 2017; Vallerand and Houliort, 2003). For instance, the following items are specific actions for passion in the workplace: (P_2), “This profession is not about money but it is about feeling” (P_3), “The whole idea of the passion for food, serving food keeps me identified with the group of waiters” (P_4), “My job is a beautiful experience and I am proud of it” (P_5), and “This job reflects the qualities I like about myself”. These elements support the idea that passion is an important aspect of occupational identity (Afsar et al., 2016; Neumann, 2006; Swanson and Kent, 2017) and its implementation is thus crucial to support other elements of career identity approach (James, 2015). There is also a fit with the perspective advocated by Afsar et al. (2016) that employees’ passion aids engagement in their occupation because it develops in

the employees as an essential joy. Individuals have a sense of control over their occupation as well as being in harmony with their other activities in life (Afsar et al., 2016). This may involve practical actions. As one interviewee explained:

“... because I couldn't personally work as a robot. I need to impose my personality on to my job to a certain extent ... I need to feel like I am not forced to do something - I want to do it - what I have to do and do it. I need to have passion for what I am doing if I don't have passion I can't develop my occupational identity” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

This aspect was also emphasised in the following comment interview as an important aspect of the employee to maintain. A manager interviewee mentioned:

“You need to have passion for the profession and if you do not have this feeling you will leave soon” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

The citations above denoted the direct relationship between passion and occupational identity. Thus, regarding the first research question, the H2 test supports the allegation that there is a positive relationship between self-concept and occupation identity. The standardised regression path between passion (P) and occupational identity (OI) is statistically significant ($\gamma = .104$, t -value = 2.206).

Factor three - authenticity – there were five items from the preliminary scale of authenticity, although reduced numbers of items, as per factors one and two. Authenticity represents a ‘true self’ element of occupational identity and it is influenced by the organisation’s values, policies and standards; it is interpreted to be one of the principal factors of positive occupational identity (Kreiner and Sheep, 2009; Buckman, 2014; Sheldon, 2004), reflected on enhancing the organisational experience. Therefore, it is likely to be the most exclusive for personal in nature, for example, A_1: “I feel I can be myself at work” (from qualitative study), and A_2: “When I am at work, I feel the restaurant is the stage and I am an actor” (from qualitative study). These items also support the idea about being completely yourself while growing and developing beyond your comfort zone (Chaya et al 2015). Therefore, it is possible to be the most practical aspect of occupational identity. As well as personality, companies need to acknowledge that the authenticity influence develops more consistent overall feelings. In a company environment, employment duties, cultural norms and constant every day expectations motivate people to

create established routines (Buckman, 2014). Consequently, although occupational identity varies with different aspects, these interactions and daily routines prevail in the feelings of authenticity at work (Van den Boshch and Taris, 2014) and its application is therefore crucial.

This research also fits with the perception supported by Buckman (2014). Emotional labour might have an effect on some efforts for the individuals, but the option of not following the rules could develop to be more harmful for the company. This is mainly true in service industries, which usually determine emotional display rules that involve the requirement to simulate positive emotions as well as hide or suppress negative emotions (Bhowmick and Mulla, 2016). Moreover, all companies have their own informal and cultural social standards that lead typical interactive leanings and conduct correct interpersonal behaviours. Reducing such rules for the advantage of permitting individuals to be their true authentic selves can have completely negative results on company performance as well as its climate and culture (Leary and Allen, 2011). Related to this point two interviewees observed:

“You need to enjoy your job but it is not a holiday, it is a job and you need to reflect on what image your organisation wants to have as well... you need to have a certain amount of professionalism, you also need to reflect the face of that organisation at the end of the day... so it’s a very good balance between the two... you need to have standards and you have a choice, but they can’t be too different in what you believe in as a person” (Waiter, focus group 3).

“I think it’s a mix, but being themselves is more important. Yeah nowadays but, standards are important though. But being themselves is more ... for the personality to be who they are and not feeling like a (lamb?) Everyone the same, but standards are important because otherwise you’re going to be, you know too chaotic” (Waiter 1, 25 years old).

The explanations from interviewee participants also maintain that authenticity is a significant component of occupational identity. Individuals who can be their true, authentic selves at work are more likely to have their occupational identity valued and verified by their colleagues. Consequently, employees feel positively about and are interested in peers who are able to accept and see them for who they truly are, and are more disposed to develop relationships of intimacy and trust. The relationship between authenticity and occupational identity (H6) was fully significant and the regression path shows a positive relationship between these two variables ($\gamma = .284$, t -value = 5.087) and hypothesis 6 is therefore statistically significant. The results

demonstrated the importance of authenticity as a key predictor of occupational identity: authenticity has a positive relationship with occupational identity.

In the following factors, the results showed that extroversion (H3), education (H4), interference (H5) and stereotype (H7) were totally rejected and were not relevant to the occupational identity assessment of waiters.

Factor four - extroversion: the results illustrate no support for the hypothesised antecedent influence of extroversion on occupational identity (Chapter 6). The quantitative finding showed that extroversion is significantly different from 0 at the .001 significance level and it might not be mainly effective concerning an employee's perception. The regression path unexpectedly presented a significant .893 negative relationship between these two variables ($\gamma = -.001$, t -value = $-.135$).

This is a relatively unpredicted finding, especially in the line of previous studies (Espegren and Panicker, 2015). According to Huczynski and Buchana (2013), extrovert employees have a number of different characteristics such as talkative, sociable, positive and dominant (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2013) across different environments. Extroversion has a positive relationship to preference for social occupations and Espegren and Panicker (2015) recommend that extroverts should choose social occupations. At large, other rationalisations could be obtained from some of the interviewees' comments that:

“For me an extroversive person, non-necessary do a good waiting job, they normally laugh a lot, ask a lot of questions, and maintain superficial conversations with the other purpose of connecting with their customer and earn some tips or close a sale. I am an introvert and I am not interested in this kind of behaviour. I like to be more genuine and I try to understand my customers as a person instead of just being a patron of my organisation” (Waiter 2, 35 years old).

The observation above meant a negative finding of extroversive characteristics, which can be the main distinctive feature among a set of different occupational identity aspects. Consequently, this is a reminder that bias might have an impact on this approach because it might have been combined with other affecting perceptions. With regard to the hypothesis H3, there is no relationship between the employees' extroversion behaviours in the workplace and

construction of their occupational identity. The relationship between extroversion and occupational identity was non-significant (E--->OI), and the regression path unexpectedly demonstrated a significant negative relationship between these two variables ($\gamma = -.001$, t -value = $-.135$). Therefore, hypothesis H3 was rejected because it was not statistically significant ($p = .893$).

This unexpected outcome could be linked to the restaurant type that the case organisations belong to. Additionally, the adopted scales of measurement from qualitative research and existing literature might generate the unforeseen insignificant relationship between extroversion and occupational identity. For a more critical reflexion of the developing insignificant relationship, the literature and the qualitative data were reassessed. The structural model valuation maintained the discriminant validity of the constructs, and confirmed the measures of the constructs were accurately different. The estimated correlations of discriminant validity were statistically significant ($p < .05$) (Hair et al., 2018) and the estimated correlations among factors were less than the recommended value of .92 (Kline, 1998) (Table 6.30).

Factor five - education: founded on the literature review, restaurant companies operate in a competitive market, creating a differentiation strategy with a focus on deliberately accommodating their employees' learning preferences, while endeavouring to maintain general training programmes as a secondary stage (Mellinger, 2014; Philips and DeLeon, 2017; Reeve et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2005). This assures that all employees have the competence necessary to perform to their fullest potential in support of the organisation's goals. Development training accelerates learning and encourages the routine of learning for life and also develops individual occupational identity, which have been linked to a higher degree of future potential and promotion of employees. This is what participants mention:

"I used to work for XX hotels and they have got a very good ethic behind them. It is a programme that is 'Yes I can do it' (YICDI) used for ethical training purposes. The training programme that they give you (YICDI) empowers you as an individual, teaches you lots [of] skills, how to deal with difficult situations and how to handle complaints. Even the skills to manage changes in the mood in the customer and it gives you the freedom to do a lot but not in all companies..." (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

However, the quantitative study presents no support for hypothesis H4 regarding the positive relationship between education and occupational identity ($\gamma = -.007$, t -value = $-.218$). That is to say, hypothesis H4 was rejected ($p .828$).

Reviewing the findings from the qualitative phase of this study, the participants provided some explanations:

“A harder business recruiting environment will hurry the development of those things [learning linked to individual development] because restaurant organisations are in search of any strategy to develop occupational identity and this is one of those ways” (Deputy general manager, 45 years old).

Another participant considered that *“if the competitors started doing it [learning development] that would be the cause”* (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

Furthermore, one corporate marketing consultant stated his judicious view on the proposed relationship between education and occupational identity, arguing that learning and being perceived as a continuous learner were important elements of occupational identity. However, when comparing the effects of learning with self-efficacy, or individuals’ belief measures of socioeconomic contexts, education effects were modest.

The same participant also declared that the awareness of restaurants about potential benefits of the employees’ education would increase over time and *“as employees become more educated they may demand more and more the employee training and development”* (Deputy general manager, 45 years old). Following this view, the results of testing the proposed relationship might result in diverse findings in the future, when the implementation and management of education learning programmes have been established more widely.

Factor six - interference - the direct effect of interference on occupational identity (H5) seems to make sense. However, limited research has been accomplished to relate employees’ multiple identity interference characteristics to some measure of occupational identity construction (Settles, 2004). The quantitative findings established that interference is a direct antecedent of occupational identity as proposed by Leong and Ward (2000). This relationship has a direct but negative effect on occupational identity construction, which is not supported and not in line

with prior studies on occupational identity that establish positive relations ($\gamma = -.006$, t -value = .124). Therefore, hypothesis H5 was rejected ($p .901$).

This is a slightly surprising outcome, and it is mainly connected to contextual issues. There are aspects of interference that might increase the relationship in one context, but might not be applicable or are defective in another context (Luchetta, 1995; Martire et al., 2000; Settles, 2004). Moreover, Luchetta (1995) also found that a variety of characteristics of interference of multiple identities were negative effects on occupational identity and diminished wellbeing. One participant mentioned:

“But, certainly the uniqueness of working in a restaurant or working in other businesses or occupations is that your working hours don’t allow you to be with your family during key times and that’s certainly fundamentally the issue with being a waiter. Especially, Michelin- starred restaurants that have most work in evening times and during weekends” (Vice president, sales, 45 years old).

Based on the above Vice president’s observation, when two or more identities are noticed to be in conflict, identity interference can appear. Since the data was collected from 238 different restaurants, the findings may also be affected. This study, however, is one of the first to find negative relationships between multiple identity interference and occupational identity. The result also supported the argument of Martire et al. (2000), who established there is consensus on the relationship between interference and occupational identity. Thus, this result emphasises the requirement for more research to endorse the positive effects of interference on occupational identity.

Factor seven - stereotype - Previous studies (Bargh et al., 1996; Dumas and Dunbar, 2014; Hoyt et al., 2010; Kray et al., 2001; Logel et al., 2009) highlight how this element can generate an improvement in an employee’s performance when it makes them be notable from those who have not been influenced by the stereotype or when individuals respond with ‘stereotype reactance’, working harder to establish the opposite; however not all the interviewee participants agreed with this theory:

“It [stereotyping] has a negative impact and that is why no one wants to have this profession in the long-term” (Waiter, focus group 2).

“It is not good, people look at us like someone without qualifications and very basic general knowledge” (Waiter, focus group 1).

These comments denote a negative outcome of stereotype features and how the waiters’ stereotyping by society has had a very negative impact on them, and to some of them these thoughts forced them to resign and search for new career sectors (Sachett, 2003). Thus, this study demonstrated that waiters’ occupational identity can be affected both negatively and positively without any specific instructions. Therefore, more attention may need to be paid to sociocultural influences. Regarding hypothesis H7, there is no positive relationship between stereotype and occupational identity. The relationship between stereotype and occupational identity was non-significant (E --->OI), and the regression path demonstrated a significant negative relationship between these two variables ($\gamma = -.010$, $t\text{-value} = .462$). Therefore, hypothesis H7 was rejected because it was not statistically significant ($p .644$).

7.5.2. Construct effects on occupational identity based on salience as a moderator

The findings of the qualitative study supported that the constructs were re-salient when they were congruent to occupational identity. These findings were consistent with those in the previous literature (Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Guido 1995; 1996; Krutzler, 2015; Nolan and Harold, 2010; Shaker and Ahmed, 2014; Veer et al., 2010; Wallace et al., 2014; Wilden et al., 2010) which stated that the constructs were re-salient when they were congruent to occupational identity and they were in-salient when they were not congruent to occupational identity. Moreover, the findings from the qualitative study supported by the literature state that waiters’ occupational identity has an influence on a range of stimuli at the workplace. However, the salience of these stimuli increases at work in different key ways: employer branding, passion, education and stereotype. Understanding their influence can aid in the procedure of developing more complete workplaces and improving support to the career development of waiters. Going beyond studying these stimuli simply and searching routes actually experienced has contributed to a more nuanced and richer understanding of its significance to behaviour within organisations.

Conversely, most of the findings based on the results of the quantitative study H8d ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 3.333$, ns), H8e ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 3.005$, ns), H8f ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 2.458$, ns), H8g ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF =$

.013, ns) were not supported in this research. Only three hypotheses were statistically significant and supported. They were H8a (Employer branding is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 13.502, p < .05$), H8b (passion is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity: ($\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 10.460, p < .05$), and H8c (extroversion is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity: $\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta DF = 4.393, p < .05$).

7.5.3. Employee turnover as a consequence of occupational identity

The results answered the question as to what are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover. From the evaluation, it has been obtained that the construction of occupational identity relates to consequences such as a positive relationship to work engagement (Popova-Nowak, 2010). The direct effect of occupational identity on a positive relationship to work engagement was tested. Table 6.30 shows the direct influences and illustrates that the impact of occupational identity was also significant on work engagement. Previous researchers (Christensen et al., 2016; Rodriguez-Munoz et al., 2014; Zigarmi et al., 2009) support the current findings of this thesis. A comment from a hospitality lecturer interviewee participant highlights the importance of occupational identity in enhancing the work engagement and added as:

“Both work identities and work engagement improve organisational outcomes, for instance through increasing employee motivation” (Hospitality lecturer, 50 years old).

The hypotheses testing illustrated that the relationship between work engagement and employee turnover was statistically significant (which is in line with the qualitative study and theoretical expectation). Regarding the structural model evaluation, it can be suggested that occupational identity influences work engagement. Thus, work engagement (WE) has a significant impact on turnover.

Additionally, in the relationship between occupational identity (OI) and work engagement (WE); work engagement (WE) and employee turnover (T) and occupational identity (OI) and turnover (T) were significantly related, where the hypotheses H9 (OI \rightarrow WE $\gamma = .707$), H10 (WE \rightarrow T $\gamma = .318$), and H11 (OI \rightarrow T $\gamma = .783$) were fully supported (Table 6.27). In parallel, it provides statistical support as evidence to this claim (Table 6.31). These assumptions were examined and reported in the previous chapter.

In connection with the research hypothesis H9, the test indicated that there is a positive relationship between occupational identity and work engagement. Zeijen et al.'s (2018) work on the effects of occupational identity on work engagement illustrates that in organisations with an implemented work engagement, employees tend to improve performance, organisational commitment and well-being and understanding of occupational construction. Additionally, from the qualitative study, participants also defined from their perception in this respect:

“It varies from person to person, but for me, it is the fact that I feel empowered and being able to be myself that is really important and keeps me engaged and again being respected by the people I work with and for, doing something different every day, that’s what keeps me going” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

This means that an employee’s engagement towards his/her occupation varies from employee to employee, but what they recognise is that work engagement has a significant impact on employees’ perception as a positive psychological state involving dedication, vigour and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Based on this research, the thesis proposes that it is through work engagement that employees situate and contextualise their occupational skills and negotiate and articulate their occupational identities. Another suggestion is that occupational identity and work engagement are related and are a vital part of work processes within organisations. From this standpoint, the relationship between occupational identity and work engagement is similar to a framework of rules, roles and procedures that facilitate interaction patterns that stabilise the implication making process as explained by Weick (1993), where identity works as engagements and frameworks and engagement purposes as implications and consequences.

Regarding hypothesis 10 (there is a positive relationship between work engagement and employee turnover), the direct impact of employees’ work engagement with the employee turnover intention was examined. In line with Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), a higher level of work engagement decreases employee turnover (Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Therefore, the more capable the occupation, the higher the levels of engagement, and the lower the level of intention to leave. Not surprisingly, for engaged individuals work is fun, which is exactly the reason why they work so hard, as was demonstrated during the qualitative interview study:

“... straight work I think I mentioned, there has to be an element of fun, respect within the team, that's one ... And engagement in terms of ... there had to be consistent learning in terms of”
(Chef, 35 years old).

“The work can become a tool to be really concentrated and then someone can really enjoy ...”
(Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

“Fun element of it, it was the fun element for me ... that I would meet people, the odd celebrity, etc. ... it was very much part of me it is what has kept me in this work” (Restaurant manager, 40 years old).

“That's really what kept me going; the long hours didn't matter it was fun. I do this as it is a fun job, it is a job that keeps the adrenalin going. I love to see people leave my restaurant with a smile on their face, knowing my name and wanting to come back, then I love seeing them come back as well” (Dining groups and events manager, 40 years old).

The above notifications show that there is an association between work engagement and turnover. Regarding hypothesis 11 (there is a positive relationship between occupational identity and turnover), occupational identity has been maintained to influence employee turnover intention (Sabanciogullari and Dogan, 2014; Zhang et al., 2016) (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.1). From the existing research literature, it seems that turnover is widely recognised as of the highest importance within the occupational process (Croning-Davis and Sainty, 2017). However, it is difficult to find a definition and explanation about the relationship between them. Occupational identity and employee turnover have been used interchangeably but separately. However, this thesis confirmed these constructs have a direct positive relationship between them. Occupational identity describes the degree to which your personal identity is attached to your career. Occupational identity can give rise either to engagement or turnover (Wikanari, 2017). Conversely, employee turnover is endowed with a type of withdrawal behaviour that is associated with under-identification with work (Bothma and Roodt, 2012).

Employee turnover intention is a conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the organisation. Over time it can be assumed that this turnover behaviour is influenced by perceived alternative employment opportunities, and it has significant cost consequences for any organisation. For

the purpose of this study, the following definition has been adopted: turnover is the movement, attrition, mobility, exits, migration or succession of employees between jobs, firms and occupations within the labour market, as well as the rotation between the states of unemployment and employment (Abassi et al., 2000; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Hom et al., 2017; Ivancevich and Glueck, 1989; Morrell et al., 2004; Woods, 1995).

In this thesis, the direct effect of occupational identity and employee turnover was statistically significant in the hypothesised direction ($\gamma = 783$, t -value = 2.183). Additionally, to statistical results, the interviewees opined about the influences of occupational identity on employee turnover as follows:

“... I think career perspective is the most important and keeps people learning ... So, I will say first of all sense of belonging ... so that’s why recruitment is very important because you have to understand what type of people you have at the moment and may be a good addition to the team...” (Partner, 50 years old).

“... for example, having a good environment, good philosophy at work, getting themselves engaged, getting them across exposure to other departments and having obviously the right money is very important and giving them a vision to develop ... It’s very important that you identify with the job and that you are allowed to be yourself” (Marketing and sales manager, 53 years old).

The findings indicate that robust evidence in this respect and a definite impact of occupational identity help to reduce employee turnover. What they acknowledge is that occupational identity is a set of perceptual components, such as goals, abilities, occupational interests, and meanings connecting the individual’s identity to their career perspectives, as generated by previous experience (Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009; Delanty, 1995; Hirschi, 2012; Ibarra, 1999). Founded on this study, it is suggested employees relating their self-concept to their occupation and career perspective aids to reduce employee turnover.

7.6. Summary

Chapter 7 has discussed and explored the study results in connection to theoretical expectancies. Data from the survey was contemplated in connection to the present literature and qualitative study findings. Perceptions from the qualitative research offered a richer comprehension of the

phenomenon under analysis. The structural equation modelling used established that almost all the proposed relationships between the constructs were supported and were statistically significant. Conversely, the outcomes specified that some of the moderated hypotheses of occupational identity may be deleted from the conceptual model as they were not statistically significant.

The results show that occupational identity impacts directly on employee turnover. The impact of work engagement on the relationship between occupational identity and employee turnover was found significant. Finally, the argument that the relationship between the antecedents (employer branding, passion and authenticity) and turnover exists via occupational identity and work engagement was also confirmed. The next chapter offers the conclusions of the study, theoretical and managerial implications. The research limitations and suggestions for future study will be noticed.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

8.1. INTRODUCTION

A main finding of this thesis is its contribution of a vigorous model, which defines the phenomenon of occupational identity. Demonstrating this perception has a positive relationship with work engagement and employee turnover. Moreover, this thesis enlarges a new viewpoint to the developing form of literature on the construction of occupational identity. The discussion on the qualitative and quantitative research findings specifies potential ways for future study and the limitations of them are considered. This thesis adds managerial implications for managers who want to reduce their waiters' turnover by supporting the occupational identity construction. Building on these findings by future research studies is desired, so that additional ways can be explored.

Accordingly, this chapter discusses the research contributions (theoretical, methodological and managerial) in more detail. First, the implications of the research findings are outlined in Section 8.2. Next in Section 8.3, the limitations of the study, with recommendations and implications for future research avenues arising from the current study are presented. Finally, some conclusions are drawn in Section 8.4.

8.2. IMPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The findings of this thesis address the research gaps, principally by offering alternative insights into the factors that influence the antecedents and consequences of occupational identity. Additionally, this research verified theories from different approaches to analyse the application of these in other contexts, which prevail in the literature in this arena. The thesis applied a mix-method methodology with a prevailing quantitative approach, to develop scales of measurement and examine the research hypotheses. For the survey and less-prevailing qualitative approach, primary, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted, followed by a self-administered questionnaire. Secondly, data analysis was developed by using the technique of structural equation modelling (SEM), concluding with an outline of the theoretical implications of the study.

In summary, occupational identity was established to be a uni-dimensional construct. Moreover, a research model has been proved to be a useful theoretical model for predicting

employee experience; being valuable to the companies and the conceptual model has offered proven solidity. In regard to the discussion chapter, the results of this thesis maintain a number of implications and are significant for managers to improve the understanding of the complexity of the construction of occupational identity in the context of Michelin-starred restaurants based in London, which will enhance work engagement and employee turnover. The findings also established that employer branding, passion and authenticity are factors that influence occupational identity directly, while extroversion, education and interference have no effect on occupational identity. Work engagement was found to have a positive relationship with occupational identity as well as with employee turnover. Furthermore, occupational identity has a direct relationship with employee turnover.

This thesis asserts significant contributions to knowledge. Its key influence is founded on the gaps unearthed in prior research, e.g. ‘What are the factors that influence occupational identity?’ and ‘What are the main consequences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?’ The gaps in research are summed up as follows: (1) there is an absence of empirical investigation into the meaning of occupational identity; (2) there is too feeble an acknowledgment of the relationship between occupational identity, its antecedents and consequences; (3) the current hospitality literature has no efficient analysis of the consequences of **occupational identity to reduce the staff turnover**; (4) there is an absence of illustrative examples and concept-structure research in the literature about occupational identity, which has so far remained invalidated. This analysis has been designed to plug the gaps of the research above.

In the overview of this thesis, a difference was noted between diverse approaches (dramaturgy, social identity and aesthetic theories) (Chapter 2, Section 2.2). The employee occupational identity construction is of intentional significance and necessitates a multi-disciplinary methodology, which was adopted by this thesis. An occupational identity arises in a multifaceted relationship to a career progression because it is utilised as a cognitive cue to link individuals and the occupation process together. Additionally, it is the key tool whereby occupational identity can be an influence in work engagement and employee turnover intention.

This thesis contributes to the existing credence among academics (Li, 2015; Robertson-Smith and Markwick, 2009) that anything an employee does articulates his/her features. This thesis studied waiters’ perception-based attributes to occupational identity and its aspects, as well as

its consequences on staff turnover. The qualitative indication of study discussions presented that there is a relationship between an occupational identity and the features of its Michelin-starred restaurant waiters. Occupational identity is thus the signature of the employee and is shaped by certain perceptual components, individual identity and previous experience. A well-being occupational identity should represent the main employees' features. An occupational identity can change employees' behaviour, which strengthens and consolidates the employees' perception (Caulfield and Senger, 2017). Since no study has studied the occupational identity in terms of its relationship to work engagement and employee turnover, as this research has done, no direct association with prior research can be made.

This study matches the ideas of academics (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) that employees' characteristics related to (the occupational identity as the root of) work engagement might direct to such judgemental and attitudinal results as employees' perceptions of employee turnover (Kordic and Milicevic, 2018). From the point of a holistic approach, this study is also able to contribute by its outcomes to hospitality theory. Occupational identity has been attractive to hospitality authors (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004; Davies, 2008; Davies, 2016; Priyadarshi, 2011; Sukhu et al., 2017). The contribution of this thesis is to understand and extend knowledge of employees, as well as hospitality, by exploring whether the assimilation of a specific occupational identity influences the employee work engagement and reduces turnover in organisations from the employee's point of view. Up to now, this is one of the first research studies to empirically validate the assumption made by researchers (Christensen et al., 2016; Popova-Nowak, 2010; Rodriguez-Munoz et al., 2014) that occupational identity has an impact on work engagement and employee turnover in the London context. This should influence understanding, make an important contribution to the existent knowledge and aid to refine and validate the consequences in the literature in this sector.

The research contribution is the most important component of a thesis, which is focused on supporting the significance of the study to the expansion of the discipline being considered. The contribution of this thesis, which develops the limits of understanding, is offered in this section, commencing with the theoretical proceedings and inference to the methodological contributions. The following section comes with several theoretical contributions.

8.2.1. Theoretical contribution of the study

Founded on the study objectives of this thesis (Chapter 1, Section 1.5), two research questions were presented: ‘What are the factors that influence occupational identity?’ and ‘What are the main consequences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?’ To direct these questions, four research objectives were developed: (1) To investigate what are the specific antecedents that influence the construction of occupational identity. (2) To study the relationship between occupational identity and its antecedents such as: employer branding, passion, extroversion, interference, authenticity and stereotype. (3) For consequences, study the relationship between occupational identity and work engagement, and turnover. (4) Develop the theoretical framework and operational model that incorporate the antecedents and outcomes of occupational identity. This thesis presents three different theoretical contributions to the literature: an expansion of the theory, conceptualisation, measurement and in theory testing and generalisation.

8.2.1.1. Extending the theory

The recent decade has witnessed an increasing consideration of occupational identity within the social sciences (Allport, 1954; Gaertner and Dovidio, 2014). This chapter evaluates and discusses the contribution of this thesis to the academic body of knowledge for scholars and restaurant managers by analysing the role of work in identity construction with regards to waiters. As Wildes (2005) has argued, the issue of restaurant waiters’ occupational identity is of vital significance to the way they identify themselves, and, therefore, correlates to matters of satisfaction, work engagement and employee turnover; however, she has not analysed this relationship. Several research studies in the restaurant sector have been conducted with the aim of increasing the occupation image (Klein, 2002; Lee-Ross, 2008; Raub and Streit, 2006), but not in connection to work engagement and employee turnover. However, this study has provided and assessed a research model that defines the relationship between the construct of occupational identity, and the factors that influence occupational identity and its consequences. In addition, the study has addressed the research gaps, specifically in the area of occupational identity construction, such as the following (Hofhuis, et al., 2016; Jung, 2010; Loncaric, 1991; Van der Zee et al., 2004; Walsh and Gordon, 2008):

Further exploring and developing the effects of having multiple identities in institutions’ performance; to analyse the cooperative behaviour of other employees; to define whether occupational expectations of collaboration and altruism would succeed over the allegation of

social identity theory; to investigate managerial and group-level policies to change the perspective so that stereotyping will be less prevalent in workplace environments; to present case studies of extreme organisations (companies with highly favourable employer branding reputation and organisations with lower image); to clarify the correct nature of occupational identity in the setting of employer branding image; to measure individuals' salient identities and insights of the prospects offered by the company to accomplish in terms of those identities; to study the magnitude to which interpositions can generate a sense of duty that leads individuals to reciprocate with higher levels of engagement (Jung, 2010; Loncaric, 1991; Van der Zee et al., 2004; Walsh and Gordon, 2008).

The establishment of an interdisciplinary model based on social sciences for the occupational **identity and the impact on staff turnover** is the main contribution of this current study. The main challenge has been to build an interdisciplinary understanding of relationships, which can be interpreted into outcomes with operational significance to the research (Palmer and Bejou, 2006). This research has been one of the first empirical studies via a synthesis of the antecedents: employer branding, passion, extroversion, education, interference, authenticity, and stereotype to explain occupational identity within a more holistic approach. At the same time, this research has contributed to the literature on work engagement and employee turnover by developing and testing the research model.

In the projected research framework, the principal aspects affecting occupational identity construction are recognised, as are the principal consequences (work engagement and turnover) of a provided occupational identity in the eyes of employees. The occupational identity refers to how various forces specific to the workplace combine to construct workers' identities (Dutton and Ragins, 2007). Based on the literature review, the main elements influencing occupational identity are social and cultural (Phelan and Kinsella, 2009). Some authors reinforced the surprising outcome of this current study (Bellizzi and Hite, 1992; Bottomley and Doyle, 2006): they confirmed that these antecedents are strategic keys to manage the awareness and perceptions of employees or potential employees with regards to their occupation. This current study has continued past research by exploring from the employee's perspective the relationship between occupational identities and its antecedents and consequences (Wenger and Lave, 1991; Widen et al., 2014). The outcomes of this research, consequently, promise benefits in the restaurant context. Moreover, these outcomes require significant attention when invoking the occupational identity framework and employing it in another context within any established

theories in the restaurant milieu.

Further gaps in the literature on occupational identity and **its effect on staff turnover** surround the absence of explanatory models, of conceptualisations offering a common terminology and of structural managerial approaches. This research has endeavoured to provide and theorise a common approach in the prevailing body of knowledge. It also offers an initial attempt to develop a comprehensive occupational identity and its relationship to work engagement and turnover. This study poses a validated model by which to develop occupational identity in order to improve employee retention among waiters. Additionally, to address these gaps, this research distinguishes the principal factors influencing occupational identity. The framework applied for assessing and evaluating occupational identity and **its effect on staff turnover** is an innovative characteristic of this study (Brown, 1996; 2016; Lave, 1991; Widen et al., 2014).

Existing measurement statistic tools have been tested, new or adopted from other studies that were previously employed in different settings. For example, the statistical tools to measure occupational identity were a new development from the literature review, purified and verified to address the gap implied by recent research (Cooper et al 2017). Hence, the procedure of adjusting and assessing a new measurement scale from a restaurant context is fundamental. In the quantitative step, meticulous statistical analysis has been employed to test the validity and reliability of the indicators of the latent variables. In the outcome of this thesis, all measurement statistical tools mostly appear valid in their original content, but several items are not the same as those of the original after the purification procedure scales. Consequently, this research contributes to the literature by adapting the statistical measurement scale for specific latent variables that were established within a different context (that of restaurants).

8.2.1.2. Conceptualisation and measurement level

The implication of occupational identity has been ascertained, and the following questions develop its significance. In which ways, indeed, is occupational identity significant? What are the aspects that affect it? Does it have any effect on main business sectors? These questions relate to the research questions (8.2.1). To direct the questions of the research, the research conceptual framework was formed and confirmed empirically (Chapters 3 and 6). The research conceptual framework expands novel information to the literature by analysing the relationship between the constructs of occupational identity, work engagement and employee turnover. The framework formed to assess and evaluate occupational identity is a new contribution to this

thesis.

Founded on the objectives of this research (8.2.1), the current study firstly concentrates on occupational identity. Next, it presents and operationalises the conception of occupational identity, its antecedents and consequences in the employees' views. Occupational identity and its correlated measurement scale consequently evaluates how active different constructs around the workplace are in managing the waiters' occupational identity.

The literature review related to this study (Burman and Parker 2016; Hirschi, 2012; Leavitt and Sluss, 2015) implies that there are no theoretical models relating to the evaluation and adoption of occupational identity. This is accredited to the point that occupational identity is a multifaceted area of research with numerous matters that need further deep investigation. Consequently, the hypotheses and the conceptual framework for assessing and evaluating **occupational identity and its effect on staff turnover** were investigated by a quantitative approach. The results from the empirical analysis of this study establish that occupational identity factors match the data, demonstrating that the measurements were psychometrically comprehensive and suitable for demonstrating the conceptions (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Lee et al., 2015). This research adds to the literature by analysing the constructs, measurement scales, occupational identity **and its impact on staff turnover**. Additionally, this research contributes to the literature by adding validated and reliable scales for measuring occupational identity and the associated constructs which might be utilised for further studies (Klein, 2002; Lee-Ross, 2008; Raub and Streit, 2006). In addition, by relating current and new items to measure the constructs of the research and then studying the scales in exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Cronbach alpha, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), this research delivers a significant contribution in its measurement model.

The results of the study propose that occupational identity is acknowledged as a significant aspect of the employment process. Support is prolonged here for the theory in concerning the antecedents and consequences of occupational identity. The model elucidates well the constructs of the research and denotes that the idea may be usefully utilised in other study contexts. Furthermore, the research model would support service academics when exploring in the area.

This doctoral thesis provides evidence in the consistent discussion over the variables and

conceptual measurement concepts of occupational identity. While prior academics (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Salanova et al., 2005; Shaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Zeijen et al., 2018) had proved the significance of occupational identity and its connection to work engagement, specific construct concepts lead the field. This study contributes a detailed and integrated perception concept intellectualised to improve the understanding of the complexity of the construction of occupational identity in the field of Michelin-starred restaurants based in London; it approves the suitability of employing the principal antecedents and the consequences for modelling the construct of the study topic. Notwithstanding its limitations, this research delivers some important findings in relation to the construct magnitudes of occupational identity. The results indicate that this occupational identity is undoubtedly a complex construct.

The theoretical contribution of this study is based on determining the intellectualisation of the definition of occupational identity, its antecedents and consequences. This research contributes to the existing knowledge of the contextualisation, directed by researching occupational identity from the employee's perspective to obtain in-depth knowledge of the part concerned with occupational identity in developing work engagement and reducing employee turnover. This research, therefore, discloses the perception of occupational identity and the connection between the pertinent variables. The thesis shows the intellectualisation of 'occupational identity' from the employee viewpoint as a subject. The results of this study will aid restaurateurs in ensuring that they develop a solid occupational identity so as to bolster work engagement and employee turnover (Section 8.2.3).

Estimating the structural model determined the relative allowance of the antecedent constructs affecting an occupational identity. Education had the main effect on occupational identity (the more learning education is received by employees, the more positive is their attitude towards their occupation), followed by passion, stereotype and employer branding. The results have significant implications for managers and decision-makers who are concerned with adapting and developing an identity construction for the consideration of a development work engagement and reduction of employee turnover.

Furthermore, this research is one of the first to operationalise and conceptualise the notions of the construction of occupational identity and its influences on work engagement and employee turnover in a restaurant background. This study shows an effort to build a new supposition, which has necessary repercussions for managers. The theoretical contribution of this research

suggests that the generalisability of the findings should be sufficient.

This study, conclusively, aids to assess the direct relationship between occupational identity and the consequences (work engagement and employee turnover) as variables within the model. Therefore, this study, by filling the gap in research, marks a further contribution.

8.2.1.3. Theory testing and generalisation

As specified above, this study searches for an explanation, in a more all-inclusive way, of the relationship between occupational identity, work engagement and employee turnover in the view of employees within the restaurant background. By researching the anticipated model of the relationship between occupational identity and its antecedents (employer branding, passion, extroversion, education, interference, authenticity and stereotype) and the main consequences (attitude towards their occupation) in the background of London, the present research is estimated to deliver supplementary understanding into the existing literature as well as contributing to generalisation and theory testing. While London Michelin-starred waiters may have unique features, which influence the findings of this research, the outcomes can be generalised within the restaurant field (Aaker, 1997), particularly with/in the restaurants they share similar characteristics and/or criteria with the Michelin-starred.

The present research guaranteed that the existing measurements of the construct under consideration were acknowledged, implemented and developed. This research matches the opinions of researchers (Bar and Jarus, 2015; Blank and Harries, 2015) who maintain that there is an absence of studies on the compounds of occupational identity. Moreover, to better appreciate the idea of occupational identity and its constructs (Anagnostopoulos, et al., 2016; Buckman, 2014; Huczynski and Buchana, 2013; Davies, 2016; Dumas and Dunbar, 2014; Philips and DeLeon, 2017), some new items were implemented from the qualitative study. While the item's measurement number was not equal to the original, the statistical results presented a high level of validity and reliability for each construct. Therefore, the findings of the present study can be generalised to a population (Aaker, 1997). Additionally, this research supports the literature by modifying and testing occupational identity and the measurement scales construct in the research set.

To summarise, this research is one of the first to operationalise and conceptualise the notions of the construction of occupational identity, its influences on work engagement and in reducing

employee turnover in the restaurant backgrounds. This research establishes an effort to build a new foundation that would have indispensable effects for managers. The theoretical contribution of this research indicates that the generalisability of the findings should be sufficient.

8.2.2. Methodological contribution of the study

Regarding the methodology, this research generates a significant methodological value-added input to understanding. The absence of comprehending ‘occupational identity’ has led scholars to believe in multi-method studies in which the qualitative approach is used along with the quantitative approach. In order to investigate a field that is unknown or has received relatively little attention until now, the pluralistic method approach is suggested (Deshpande, 1983; Foroudi, 2012; Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992). This research blends the findings from empirical studies on hospitality, dramaturgy, social identity theory and aesthetic theories in a systematic and inclusive approach.

This study uses mixed-method tools, which includes a quantitative study and a less prevailing qualitative study to generate measurement scales and evaluate the research hypotheses (Chapter 4). Qualitative research was employed as a suitable technique to extend knowledge of the notion of occupational identity, expose the scope of occupational identity and improve the study framework that has not been assessed previously. Various research studies have investigated occupational identity (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016; Costas and Fleming, 2009), but were not in direct connection to work engagement and [staff turnover](#). This research, thus, sets a new standard for additional research in this arena.

An alternative significant contribution of this study comes from its usage of structural equation modelling (SEM) as a high-level data analysis system to assess the established conceptual framework. The conceptual framework defines the distinct significances and consequences of occupational identity in the view of employers, which demonstrate that the distinct conception may be successfully employed in hospitality studies. It permits the current modelling of numerous levels and also responds to the group of interlinked study questions in one precise model in a systematic manner (Chin, 1998). SEM used Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) 21.0 to gain awareness of the several influences and relations between occupational identity and the related constructs (Alshathry et al., 2017; Horton et al., 2014; Loy, 2017). Consequently, the current research can have a sizeable contribution on the methodological

level.

A two-step approach was employed at first as a measurement model to evaluate by detecting the unidimensional, validity and reliability of the research model. This method demonstrates the study in a very detailed way that defines every stage of the research and can be used as a parameter for future research. The current study makes a noteworthy methodological contribution by using SEM in hospitality research; this made imaginable a robust contribution at the level of measurement. To remove the possible bias regarding the scales' validity and generalisability, a suitability sample was used (Churchill, 1999; Van Riel et al., 2001). Every stage of the data analysis could be used as a parameter in future research. This study, for example, examined reliability and validity. Additionally, the explanatory power of model (R²), path significance (β value) and goodness of fit indices (GoF) were assessed in structural equation modelling. In summary, the usage of AMOS has provided a significant contribution at both measurement model and structural levels.

The multi-disciplinary method was implemented in two stages: initially, qualitative research and then, a self-administered questionnaire. This guaranteed a more complete process for data collection. Then structural equation modelling was implemented as a high-level data analysis method.

8.2.3. Managerial contribution of the study

Based on the theoretical contribution examined in the preceding section, the empirical and theoretical understanding originating from the research has various implications. This study provides managerial contributions for restaurant managers and policy-makers who want to comprehend the condition of the relationship between the construction of occupational identity and the aspects in its antecedents (employer branding, passion, extroversion, education, interference, authenticity, stereotype) from the employee's perspective and its influence on work engagement and employee turnover. The result of the present study has fundamental managerial implications by offering an all-encompassing representation of the total state in which occupational identity could be created within an organisation to accomplish an employee's work engagement within the organisation. To say it another way, a well-defined understanding of the scope of the pertinent conceptions can aid restaurant managers to develop a waiter's occupational identity, which will generate work engagement and reduce employee turnover intention.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from this research with regard to high employee turnover is the negative image individuals have of working in restaurants in the UK (Wildes, 2005). From the psychological point of view, the perception of the waiter's job is that of a 'server', or of occupying a position of 'servitude' (Cumming, 2011). This opinion might lead to identity conflict or interference. The notion that a waiter's job is just a stopover to something better further reinforces the negative view or stereotype and accounts for the low level of employee retention in the hospitality brand sector (Crass et al., 1998). It has been identified that a possible reason for low self-image among waiters is a lack of formal training, for example insufficient knowledge of wine or menus or how to greet guests, which are basic requirements within this sector. It is difficult to find skilled restaurant workers because of their lack of training in the UK. Many employees are on temporary contracts in the hospitality brands industry and there is a lack of highly skilled professional waiters (British Destinations, 2016). Colleges in the UK tend to run kitchen, travel and tourism or hospitality management courses but there is a lack of high-quality training courses focussing specifically on food and beverages.

This study provides the characteristics of the formation of an agentic role in constructing occupational identities. The agentic role refers to people who designate themselves as ideal representatives who possess the right qualities of a social identity, with the same values as the company, where the organisation is an image of employees' self-concept. Additionally, the manner in which a waiter interrelates with colleagues (in-groups) and exchanges his/her objectives with the customers (out-groups) shows he/she can assist to form an occupational identity. Consequently, he/she transmits and demonstrates these emotions about their own occupation to the audience (out-groups) and if this interrelation works well, it benefits a low-status occupation (stereotype) to have social validity and develop work engagement. The results of the study can be used to provide more proactive solutions for restaurant managers. The role of employer branding, one of the key antecedents, is to manage a tactical framework that includes both human resources and marketing (Ambler and Barrow 1996; Moroko and Uncles 2008), so that an institution can appeal to, maintain, and incentivise those personnel. Alternatively, the research regarding agentic roles could form the basis of practical instruction regarding how restaurants can wish to recruit employees. For example, instead of hiring staff purely based on cost effectiveness, restaurants may wish to appreciate the financial benefit of hiring employees who are able to overturn those stereotypes, which can reduce work engagement and increase employee turnover.

As already considered, occupational identity as one of the principal aspects within the work context (Ashforth and Schinoff, 2016; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009), induces an emotional response in the minds of employees in connection with the company (Jenkins, 1996; Pratt et al., 2006; Snow and Anderson, 1987). Consequently, it is effective for restaurant managers to acknowledge the significance of employer branding of occupational identity as one of the key aspects of the employment process rather than just concentrating on training and salaries.

By establishing the significant components of a construction of occupational identity (employer branding, passion and authenticity), this study will aid diverse kinds of restaurant managers to comprehend the important function of occupational identity. The study delivers an indispensable parameter for policy-makers and restaurant managers, who should be watchful in considering what comprises the work process in regard to different restaurants. Additionally, this research advocates that managers, by utilising the study parameters, should put themselves in the view of the company when they develop or revise an occupational identity. Policy-makers should employ the occupational identity parameters to have the maximum influence on employee turnover. Furthermore, the restaurant managers should have a well-defined indication of management practices and the reliability of their employee's occupational identity (Ambler and Barrow 1996; British destinations, 2016; Cumming, 2011; Moroko and Uncles 2008).

By joining the dots between professionals and academics, handling the construction of occupational identity can appear as a cohesive method in articulating the organisation's values, standards and abilities, externally and internally. By instituting that occupational identity is one of the principal advantages in the manifestation of the organisation and is utilised as the 'join' in companies' standard, which affects work engagement and reduces employee turnover, this study aims to be beneficial to policy-makers and restaurant managers.

As far as the growth of the measurement scale, this research agrees that the measurement scales supporting occupational identity as an applicable element for accomplishing the goals of companies and contends that it should work as an even more important part for restaurant managers. This research offers a widespread comprehension of the notion of 'occupational identity', the key aspect affecting work engagement and developing a reduction of employee turnover. The occupational identity scales underline that occupational identity is a set of

perceptual components and is employed to improve the interaction perception, which should be connected to the purpose of value and the significance of the company in order to develop work engagement. The company could alter the scales of occupational identity and the correlated constructs used in this study as an indispensable guideline and checklist to study the extent of an organisation's endeavours. Furthermore, restaurant managers should not be dissuaded by their situation and should be encouraged to compete on an international scale when they put forward their employees' occupational identity as a main part of the employment process. The scales could also be employed by the company to monitor and evaluate the perception on the side of the organisation's employees.

This study's results suggest that to accomplish a competitive advantage organisations should have a clear understanding of the construction of occupational identity, which is influenced by three principal factors, explicitly: employer branding, passion and authenticity. The empirical outcome of this research appreciates that the comparative allowance of the antecedent constructs impact on occupational identity. The construct of the employer branding had the most impact, followed by passion and authenticity. Correspondingly, this study has noteworthy repercussions for restaurant managers and policy-makers when modifying or creating occupational identity (Kasparkova et al., 2018; Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Zeijen et al., 2018).

An organisation's employer branding is an intangible advantage. In this research, an organisation's employer branding is recognised as one of the key factors that affect the construction of occupational identity. As stated in the literature (Section 2.4.4), in offering a comprehensive understanding of occupational identity, restaurateurs have an important function in the organisation's development, with rational objects progressively forming part of the vocabulary of management considered at an obvious level of the company (Swanson and Kent, 2017). The result of the current research proposes that restaurateurs should be cautious about coordinating a positive employer branding to induce helpfulness and induce the wanted responses, as well as improving organisation recognition.

Passion is the other factor that affects the construction of occupational identity. This should have an effect on understanding, which could generate a major contribution to the restaurant managers and policy-makers in their strength to comprehend those who are affected by passion (Van der Lans et al., 2009). Employee passion is gradually becoming important as a way of

distinction due to the fact that today's employees have adjusted and become workplace savvy. In today's mass-market economy, success is preserved for employees and companies that can distinguish themselves from their competitors (Van Riel et al., 2001).

According to the literature (Lewicki, 1986; Kasparkova et al., 2018; Swanson and Kent, 2017), employee passion is connected to several features of non-mindful procedures, involving the creation of an employee's output and commitment to the organisation, which influences employee perception. Passion features influence employees' occupational identity and are a way of obtaining knowledge from new challenges and learning to create trust-based and strong relationships. The results of this research propose that restaurant managers and policy-makers should comprehend the important effect of passion on employees' responses to the organisations.

The subsequent important relationship between occupational identity and authenticity proposes that managers should focus on the value of the authenticity that is shown through the occupational identity. Being authentic in the workplace is highly significant in that it represents a 'true self' element of occupational identity and it is influenced by the organisation's values, policies and standards; it is interpreted to be one of the principal factors of the construction of occupational identity (Buckman, 2014; Kreiner and Sheep, 2009; Sheldon, 2004) reflected on the enhancing of the organisational experience. Restaurant managers should develop and employ authenticity, which support tactically respected impressions so as to develop the most exclusive for personal purposes in nature. Consequently, the results of this research propose practical guidelines and scales for modifying and selecting employees' authenticity, which assist in being in line with organisations' values and evokes the desired employee responses.

Definitely, two variables are researched in this study, namely, work engagement and turnover. This research has demonstrated that there is a direct and useful relationship between occupational identity and work engagement; work engagement and turnover and occupational identity and turnover. In this regard, policy-makers and restaurant managers should put more effort into employees' occupational identity as the stamp of an organisation as well as focus on learning which associations, beliefs, impressions and attitudes maintained by employees fit with organisations. These two variables (work engagement and employee turnover) are probably to stipulate a significant function in encouraging employee perception.

Conclusively, this research emphasises that multiple aspects affect the construction of occupational identity: namely, employer branding, passion and authenticity. This research shows an understanding of the conception of the ‘complexity of the construction of occupation identity’ and its consequences (work engagement and employee turnover). As shown in Chapter 7, above, the results of this research can be effective for those involved in the hospitality industry, because of their probably unfamiliar and intangible content, specifically when provided to employees. It can be debated that the items and factors in question may change in connection to employee perceptions. Though it can be argued that any specified company cannot completely represent all sectors, scholars (Aaker, 1997; Churchill, 1999; Van Riel et al., 2001) state that exploration with high external validity can be generalised to the population and across sectors. The results of this study may consequently be generalised to additional industries.

8.3. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This thesis has several limitations as with all research studies. In the following section the limitations presented by the study setting, design and measurement issues are elaborated.

8.3.1. Limitations of the study

This thesis endeavoured to develop the understanding of the occupational identity construct, its antecedents and its consequences. Even though the attempt was worthwhile, there were some limitations to be considered.

First, the qualitative research was delimited to those managers, lecturers and waiters known by the researcher. **Furthermore, participants in two of the three focus groups conducted in this study had a Spanish cultural background due to the researcher’s national identity.** The findings could be different if the researcher had considered identities from a wider range of nationalities within the hospitality group to assess their experiences **for these specific two focus groups.** Consequently, extra attention should be paid in understanding these results. With this consideration in mind, this study denotes a first endeavour to assess the construct of occupational identity, its antecedents and its consequences, with some limited prior literature. Plausible, certain significant constructs were not considered in the conceptual model or conversely some constructs were included and may not be fully applicable. Furthermore, a measurement scale adapted from existing literature eliminated some of the items after the purification process as they did not measure the construct domain accordingly. **Additionally,**

salience was used as a moderator instead of other factors such as: gender or nationality due to the nature of the research questions and objectives.

Even though the restaurant industry offers a wide range of chances for the employee-organisation relationship that develop attitude and emotions of staff towards their occupation (Grandey, 2000), the emphasis of this study on the restaurant sector would certainly limit the generalisability of the results to sectors other than restaurants. Additionally, the research concentrates only on restaurants recommended by the Michelin-starred guide in London, which would be notably diverse compared to other restaurants in London - this might have affected the survey findings. Moreover, the results are limited to the London context and might therefore not reveal waiters' experiences in other towns and countries. Thus, it is necessary to extend and replicate this research to other contexts.

With regard to the quantitative stage, the survey was managed on a sample of waiters in Michelin-starred restaurants in London, because these restaurants are highly ranked compared with other restaurants in London. The behaviour and attitude demonstrated by Michelin-starred waiters cannot be generalised to the whole population of waiters in London. Consequently, the results of this study may not be representative of such waiters' experiences, but only from the Michelin-starred waiters' point of view. Therefore, it would be useful to manage an empirical study on diverse types of restaurants; this would be beneficial because the results of this study might not be precisely generalisable to all types of restaurants. These limitations do not minimise the significance of the results of this research. Furthermore, future studies by aiding and classifying further development in this arena should address these limitations.

8.3.2. Future research

In recognising the limitations of this thesis, some suggestions are offered for future research to extend the current body of knowledge in literature on occupational identity, work engagement and employee turnover.

This thesis was one of the first research studies on the topic of occupational identity with Michelin-starred waiters in London, which endeavours to empirically assess waiters' experiences employing the mixed methods techniques by validating and testing a conceptual framework utilising SEM. Assuming the augmenting attention to employee experience in recent years, the absence of empirical and systematic studies in this sector is quite concerning (Gentile

et al., 2007). This research has only checked employee experience with Michelin-starred waiters in London - which is considerably diverse when associated with other backgrounds. It would be interesting to study the generalisability of the model and whether the results could be repeated to other backgrounds and diverse kinds of businesses other than the restaurant industry.

Future studies should be developed based on this thesis, specifically on the topic of waiters' identity from the waiter perspective. Conversely, the exploration of waiters' experiences could also be studied from the company perspective. Consequently, further studies should concentrate on the organisational angle and find out more about the waiters' perspectives.

The structural model may be useful to other brands, rather than just restaurant brands, to validate the model and make further improvements on the structural model to demonstrate whether the results of this research keep true or not. Considering that the measures applied in the present research in the restaurant background cannot be implemented accurately to measure the constructs of importance in another setting - some constructs would be unrelated. Moreover, some of the findings of this research were surprising, e.g. the direct effects of education, interference and stereotype on occupational identity were not found to be significant. Consequently, future studies could research these issues further.

A validation of all the measurement scales in this research should be attempted in the future. Some of the concepts in this study have been extensively employed (e.g. work engagement and turnover) in the current research; however, the constructs from diverse perspectives of research can be tested and improved. Future studies will aid to demonstrate the generalisation of these variables. In conclusion, this thesis cannot produce a complete causal inference; thus, a longitudinal study, which permits academics to examine the dynamic causal relationship (Hand, 2017), should be undertaken.

Lastly, this research was founded on waiters who are British residents living in London as the participants. Consequently, the research cannot be generalised to the whole population of waiters, neither in the UK nor in other countries. Future research should be managed with participants from other cultures and nationalities to corroborate whether the model still offers the same findings and to make further developments on the theoretical model.

8.4. CONCLUSION

The research problem focused on the role of occupational identity building reduced employee turnover within the restaurant context. This thesis is the first empirical research of its type in London. A mixed-methodology study has been applied to offer a better understanding of a multifaceted phenomenon and achieve more accurate findings. This mixed-method study permitted the elaboration of a theoretical model from the qualitative methodology, which was assessed on Michelin-starred restaurant waiters in London. Collected data was analysed by using structural equation modelling in which the satisfactory fit indices and construct validity were also demonstrated. The main result is that waiters' occupational identity is shown by three factors: employer branding, passion, and authenticity. In addition, the main aspect and link in the waiters' perspectives was occupational identity. The findings also revealed that some paths were not significant, and some constructs would not be able to illuminate and predict waiters' experiences. Since this is the first research to recognise the construct of occupational identity, there was no theoretical justification from previous studies.

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APPENDIX 4.1

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Introduction: My name is Maria Jerez, and I am a PhD student in the Business School at Middlesex University, London. I have an MA in International Hotel and Restaurant Management from the London Metropolitan University. Throughout my entire career, my academic and operational experience has been based within the tourism and hospitality sector.

Aim of the research: This research is about exploring the influence of occupational identity. It analyses the forces that influence occupational identity and whether occupational identity can favourably influence work engagement and employee turnover. This research will be of value in providing more proactive solutions for restaurant managers to improve work engagement and reduce the high turnover of staff, and will stimulate further investigations for academics and restaurant managers about the role of work in identity construction with regards to waiters.

Your perspective on these subjects is very valuable for me to understand the relation between occupational identity and employee turnover. I guarantee that everything talked about today will remain confidential. It would assist in the process if you permitted me to record the interview. If you do not desire to be recorded at any point during the process, please do not hesitate to let me know and the recorder will be switched off. If there are any questions that perturb you or that you find inappropriate, we can omit them and continue with the following topic.

About the interviewee

Title:

Interviewee:

Position:

Personal responsibilities:

How long have you been with the organisation?

Name of organisation:

Date:

Length of the interview:

OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY

Occupational identity is a set of perceptual components, such as goals, abilities, occupational interests and meanings connecting the individual's identity to their career perspectives as generated by previous experience (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Bauman, 2004; Cameron and Spreitzer, 2011; Costas and Fleming, 2009; Delanty, 1995; Hirschi, 2012; Ibarra, 1999; Jenkins, 1996; Pratt et al., 2006; Snow and Anderson, 1987).

Hypotheses	Questions	Source
	What is your understanding of occupational identity?	The researcher
	How would you describe the occupational identity in your organisation?	The researcher
	What do you think are the key factors that influence and help to construct occupational identity in the workplace?	The researcher
	Do you identify your career perspective with your individual identity? For example, goals, abilities, occupational interests and meanings. Can you explain this further?	The researcher
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of occupational identity) Why?	The researcher

EMPLOYER BRANDING

The employer branding in which the employee's identity is created, institutes the identity of the organisation as an employer. It is a long-term strategy that comprehends the firm's value, policies and behaviour system towards the objectives of interesting, encouraging, and retaining the organisation's current and potential staff, and correlated stakeholders with regards to an organisation (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Ashcraft, 2007; Conference Board, 2001; Sullivan, 2004; Wallace et al., 2014).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H1: There is a positive correlation between employer branding and occupational identity	What is your understanding of employer branding?	The researcher
	What types of values, policies and behaviour systems are used by your organisation that tend to encourage and retain current staff, and attract potential staff?	The researcher
	How do you find this correlation between employer branding and employees' occupational identity? Why?	The researcher
	Would you please explain how you feel the atmosphere is among co-workers?	Bendaraviciene et al., 2014;
	Was the communication of the brand values useful to you or would you suggest alternatives?	Berthon et al., 2005;
	Does the organisation offer secure jobs? How do they achieve this?	Hillebrandt and Ivens, 2013
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of employer branding) Why?	The researcher

SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept is what we perceive when we think of oneself. It is a person's feeling of self-worth, as well as a rich, multifaceted cognitive structure with aspects of the 'me' forming self-concept and identities being part of self-concept (Abrams, 1994; Cantor and Kihlstrom, 1987; Greenwald and Pratkanis, 1984; Hogg, 2003; Markus and Wurf, 1987; McLean, 2005; Neisser, 1993; Serpe, 1987; Stein, 1995; Stets and Burke, 2005; Stryker and Burke, 2000; Stryker, 1980; Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 2004).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H2: There is a positive correlation between self-concept and occupational identity	What is your understanding of self-concept?	The researcher
	Could you please describe who you are and what you are?	Campbell, 1996
	Is 'who you are' related to 'what you are'? Why?	The researcher
	Is your self-concept related to your occupational identity?	The researcher
	Are you proud of how you are managing your career path?	Eider et al., 2011
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of self-concept) Why?	The researcher

INTERACTION

Interaction refers to the procedure of exposure to multiple staff by which an untrained employee is being accepted into an occupation adopting the norms and values of the occupation in his/her self-concept and behaviour. It is also described as an outcome of the formation of self-esteem as an employee with the necessary responsibilities and knowledge (Blais et al., 2006; Cohen, 1981; Creasja et al., 2007; Hardy, 1988; Haynes et al., 2004; Lai and Lim 2012; Leddy, 1998; Tappen et al., 1998).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H3: There is a positive correlation between interaction and occupational identity	How would you describe the interaction among employees in your organisation?	The researcher
	What type of feedback/consultation do you seek from professional peers as a form of occupational development?	Woo, 2013
	How do you adapt your occupational identity to your organisation's values and norms?	The researcher
	As an employee, which responsibilities and knowledge would you implement for the formation of your self-esteem?	The researcher
	How do you find the correlation between interaction among employees and your occupational identity? Why?	The researcher
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of interaction) Why?	The researcher

INTERFERENCE

Interference is the result of having multiple identities, which happens when the pressure of one identity hinders the performance of another identity, and may create a number of physical and negative psychological outcomes (Cooke and Rousseau 1984; Coverman, 1989; Fried et al., 1998; Gerson, 1985; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992; Settles, 2004; Thoits, 1991; Van Sell et al., 1981).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H4: There is a positive correlation between interference and occupational identity	What is your understanding of multiple identities interference in the workplace?	The researcher
	Please state your experience of being a member of staff as well as mum/dad/friend, etc.	The researcher
	Can you please list some of your multiple identities?	The researcher
	How do these multiple identities interfere with each other?	The researcher
	Would you please explain the key impact of this interference on your occupational identity?	The researcher
	How do you cope with this situation?	The researcher
	Do you find any positive correlation between interference and occupational identity?	The researcher
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of interference) Why?	The researcher

AUTHENTICITY

Individuals, in particular, look for an authentic identity: ‘being yourself’ or ‘becoming yourself’ by the link between one’s personal experiences and outer manifestations, operating and communicating upon this personal experience in the workplace. On some occasions, authenticity can position itself as a rebellion against social order (Aupers and Houtman, 2010; Menard and Brunet, 2011; Lietdka, 2008; Roberts, 2007).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H5: There is a positive correlation between authenticity and occupational identity	What is your understanding of employee authenticity in your workplace?	The researcher
	Can you please explain the difference between being yourself or following your organisation’s standard?	The researcher
	Can you apply both being yourself and following your organisation’s standard in your workplace?	The researcher
	Based on your personal experience, which of being yourself or following your organisation’s standard works better for your workplace? Why?	The researcher
	Do you agree that part of occupational identity formation is being or becoming yourself in your organisation?	The researcher
	Do you find a negative or positive correlation between employee authenticity and occupational identity?	The researcher
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of authenticity) Why?	The researcher

INTER-GROUPS

Inter-groups occur when people from one group interrelate, individually or collectively, with another group or its components in relation to their group identification. As an example of inter-group conduct, group identification will bring about bonding, create well-being, companionship and personal security. Individuals often achieve a higher level of self-esteem by comparing their own group positively to others (Haslam, 2004; Hogg et al., 2017; Hogg and Terry, 2000; Lyubomirova, 2013; Sherif, 1966; Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H6: There is a positive correlation between inter-group and occupational identity	What is your understanding of inter-groups in your workplace?	The researcher
	Can you describe common components or characteristics between yourself and your organisation (in-group)?	The researcher
	Does your organisation create well-being and personal security for you?	The researcher
	Is your organisation (in-group) a good reflection of who you are?	Feitosa et al., 2012
	Do you see group success as your success?	Moksness, 2014
	Are you interested in what others think about your organisation?	Moksness, 2014
	Is it an important part of your occupational identity to belong to this organisation (in-group)?	The researcher

	Do you find a negative or positive correlation between stereotype and the development of your occupational identity?	The researcher
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of inter-group) Why?	The researcher

STEREOTYPE

Stereotype provides the simplified essence of a group's overall perception of a person or group by downplaying individual differences and exaggerating commonalities, as communicated between individuals and groups. Individuals tend to keep their stereotype of specific groups even after there is a significant indication that disconfirms the actual stereotype that they are using (Hamilton and Sherman, 1994; Fiske, 1998; Hilton and von Hippel, 1996; Nadler and Clark, 2011; Stedman, 2006; Von Hippel et al., 1995).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H7: There is a positive correlation between stereotype and occupational identity	What is your understanding of stereotype?	The researcher
	How do you feel your occupational group is stereotyped by society?	Fiske et al., 2002
	What is the simplified concept of the society's overall perception of your occupational group?	The researcher
	Does society retain its stereotype of your occupational group even after there is a significant indication that disconfirms the actual stereotype that it is using?	The researcher
	Based on your experience, has this stereotype had a negative or positive impact on your occupational identity?	The researcher
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of stereotype) Why?	The researcher

SALIENCE

Saliency theory is still an imprecise term. However, it has been defined as a propriety of a stimulus that permits it to be noticed and to stand out compared to others in the same context; therefore, and according to the dichotic theory of saliency, this stimulus will be in-salient when it is incongruent with a specific environment and re-salient when it is congruent in a specific environment (Alba et al., 1991; Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Guido, 1995; 1996; Hastie et al., 1984; Heckler and Childers, 1992; Mowen, 1993).

RQ1: What are the factors that influence occupational identity?

Hypotheses	Questions	Source
H8a: Employer branding is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity.	What is your understanding of salient or noticeable stimulations in your workplace?	The researcher
H8b: Self-concept is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity.	What type of stimuli in your workplace influences the construction of your occupational identity?	The researcher
H8c: Interaction is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity	Can you give an example when in-salient or a low level of stimuli is incongruent to your occupational identity in your workplace?	The researcher
H8d: Interference is in-salient when it is incongruent to occupational identity	Can you give an example when re-salient or a high level of stimuli is congruent to your occupational identity in your workplace?	The researcher
H8e: Authenticity is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to your organisation’s employer branding?	The researcher
H8f: Inter-groups is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity.	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to your self-concept?	The researcher
	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to the employee interaction in your workplace?	The researcher

H8g: Stereotype is re-salient when it is congruent to occupational identity	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to your multiple identities interference?	The researcher
	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to authenticity in your workplace?	The researcher
	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to your organisation (inter-group)?	The researcher
	Do you think your occupational identity is congruent (related) or incongruent (not related) to your organisational stereotype?	The researcher
	Do the most important things you do in life involve your occupation?	Kanungo, 1982
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of salience) Why?	The researcher

WORK ENGAGEMENT

Work engagement is an optimistic occupational emotional and incentivational state of mind that involves an honest disposition to make an effort in one's work and towards managerial achievement. It is typified by vigour, dedication, absorption and passion for work (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Billett and Somerville, 2004; Britt, 2003; Brown and Leigh, 1996; Brown, 1996; Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Zigarmi et al., 2009).

RQ2: What are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H9: There is a positive correlation between work engagement and occupational identity.	What is your understanding of work engagement in your workplace?	The researcher
	How do you correlate work engagement and occupational identity construction?	The researcher
	Would you please explain how immersed you are in your work?	Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003
	Do you feel optimistic and motivated with an honest disposition to make an effort in your work?	The researcher
	Do you have dedication and passion for your work?	The researcher
	Do you find your job challenging? Why?	Salanova et al., 2005
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of work engagement) Why?	The researcher

TURNOVER

Employee turnover is the movement, attrition, mobility, exit, migration or succession of employees between jobs, firms and occupations within the labour market, as well as the rotation between the states of unemployment and employment (Abassi et al., 2000; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Ivancevich and Glueck, 1989; Morrell et al., 2004; Woods, 1995).

RQ2: What are the main influences of occupational identity on work engagement and employee turnover?

Hypothesis	Questions	Source
H10: There is a positive correlation between work engagement and turnover H11: There is a positive correlation between occupational identity and turnover	What is your understanding of employee turnover?	The researcher
	How do you think your organisation could reduce migration, mobility or employee turnover?	The researcher
	From your personal experience, what are the most valuable factors to keep working with the same organisation?	The researcher
	What type of attributes could competitors have to attract employees?	The researcher
	Do you find any correlation between work engagement and employee turnover?	The researcher
	Do you find any correlation between occupational identity and employee turnover?	The researcher
	Do you often think about quitting your present job?	Yin-Fah, 2010
	Do you agree with this statement? (definition of turnover) Why?	The researcher

SUMMARY

The interviewer will recapitulate the significant points of the interview. Additionally, the planned conceptual framework developed from the literature will be displayed. The interviewer will request if the participant would like to make any additions or changes.

The interviewer thanks the participants for their valuable time and kind cooperation.

APPENDIX 4.2

Questionnaire – Michelin starred restaurants



Aim of the research

This study is managed by Maria Jerez who is currently a PhD student in the Business School at Middlesex University, London. This research intends to explore the influence on occupational identity.

In this research you will be requested to contribute to a survey regarding your feelings and thoughts about waiter's occupational identity. We would like to thank you for your valuable time expended in completing this questionnaire as part of this study.

Your participation is fundamental to the achievement of this study. The accomplishment of this research depends completely on the data provided by waiters such as you.

Answering the enclosed questionnaire is voluntary. Your contribution and any information gathered will be anonymous and the answers will only be accessible in an aggregated form and no specific name will be revealed. The questionnaire should only take 15 minutes of your time to fill out.

Many thanks in advance for your contribution.

Yours sincerely,

Maria Jesus Jerez

PhD student in the Business School at Middlesex University, London

MA in International Hotel and Restaurant Management, London Metropolitan University

Research Study on Occupational Identity

How to fill in this questionnaire: Please circle the most appropriate option to indicate if you agree or disagree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Section 1 - Employer branding

1.1	I want to do my best to represent the restaurant where I work	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
1.2	I like working in this restaurant because of the sense of belonging	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
1.3	I engage with the mission of this restaurant	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
1.4	This restaurant communicates its concept of business to the employees	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
1.5	Staff recruitment is not only based on skills but also on values	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 2 - Passion

2.1	I think the whole idea of the passion for food and service keeps me identified with my group [waiters]	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
2.2	This profession is not about money but it is about vocation	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
2.3	I am proud of my job	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
2.4	I love working with people	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
2.5	This job reflects the qualities I like about myself	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 3 - Extroversion

3.1	What is keeping me in this job is the interaction with others	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
3.2	Being a waiter is about helping people	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
3.3	My colleagues are fun to be around	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
3.4	My colleagues in this restaurant are easy to approach and interact with	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
3.5	In this restaurant, we show interest in and dedication to the guests	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 4 - Education

4.1	I truly understand what the culture of food is about	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
4.2	I pay attention to my personal image by caring about my presentation and how I talk to people	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
4.3	I consider my job mainly as recreation and less as occupation	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
4.4	I share values with the rest of the restaurant staff (managers and kitchen) so I feel part of the whole team	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
4.5	I educate the society about my profession	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
4.6	I seek feedback/consultation from colleagues as a form of professional development	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

4.7	I regularly communicate with a mentor who is helping me in my professional development	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
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Section 5 - Interferences

5.1	My sense of belonging to this restaurant helps me to be focused on my role as a waiter	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
5.2	When I am working, I forget everything else around me	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
5.3	Other parallel roles (e.g. mother, friend, student) in my life help me to perform my job better and to be more empathetic and flexible	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
5.4	The clarity of the explanation about the nature of my work help me to adapt my professional life to my personal life	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 6 - Authenticity

6.1	I feel I can be myself at work	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
6.2	When I am at work, I feel the restaurant is the stage and I am an actor	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
6.3	I like operational jobs, solving problems, taking initiative	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
6.4	I feel proud of how I am managing my career	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
6.5	I am not just a waiter who carries plates, I am a food advisor	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 7 – Stereotype

7.1	I see waiters as I see myself, intuitive and with good social skills	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
7.2	I always feel very proud to belong to the waiting group	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
7.3	My group [waiters] is a good reflection of who I am	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
7.4	I have a number of qualities typical of waiters	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
7.5	It is an amazing experience working in the food industry, which it wasn't in the past	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 8 - Saliency

8.1	The main point for me is developing a professional career	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
8.3	The main point for me is being able to be myself	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
8.4	The main point for me is interaction with peers, managers and customers	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
8.5	Respect is the most important thing	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

9.1	Being a waiter is more than just carrying plates and delivering food orders	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
9.2	Your occupation [waiter] has to fit with your expectation	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
9.3	The culture of my nationality helps me to be a good waiter	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
9.4	It is too early for me to be concerned about my professional future	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
9.5	It was hard for me to decide on a career, but now, when I look at myself I think that I will fit the profession I've chosen	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 10 – Work engagement

10.1	My job is engaging because it gives me recognition	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
10.2	My job keeps me engaged because I feel empowered and able to be myself	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
10.3	This restaurant offers secure jobs	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
10.4	Working for this restaurant provides a good work-life-balance	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
10.5	I work in a good working environment	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Section 11 - Turnover

11.1	I want to leave my job for better restaurants	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
11.2	I want to leave for the next step in my career progression	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
11.3	I want to leave to earn more money within the restaurant sector	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree
11.4	I want to leave because of the proximity to where I live	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

INSTRUCTION: In order to have a better understanding about your opinion on the effect of occupational identity, please answer the following questions

. **Your gender**

- a. Male b. Female

. **Your age**

- a. Less than 19 years b. 20 to 29 c. 30 to 39
d. 40 to 49 e. 50 to 59 f. 60 years or more

. **What is your nationality?**

.....

. **Your level of education is**

- a. High school b. Undergraduate c. Postgraduate and above

. **How long have you been working in this restaurant?**

.....

Thank you for taking the time to fill in the questionnaire. Your information is very valuable and greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX 6.1

Missing data examination at item-level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing		No. of Extremes ^a	
				Count	Percent	Low	High
EB_1	398	6.61	.876	0	.0	0	0
EB_2	398	6.06	.966	0	.0	1	0
EB_3	398	6.16	1.006	0	.0	36	0
EB_4	398	5.97	1.210	0	.0	4	0
EB_5	398	5.77	1.468	0	.0	15	0
P_1	398	6.08	1.240	0	.0	41	0
P_2	398	5.02	1.605	0	.0	14	0
P_3	398	5.98	1.144	0	.0	0	0
P_4	398	6.54	.828	0	.0	12	0
P_5	398	5.94	1.196	0	.0	4	0
E_1	398	6.00	1.148	0	.0	48	0
E_2	398	5.62	1.177	0	.0	15	0
E_3	398	6.11	.981	0	.0	20	0
E_4	398	6.17	.964	0	.0	0	0
E_5	398	6.39	1.355	0	.0	22	0
ED_1	398	6.35	1.407	0	.0	15	0
ED_3	398	6.52	1.816	0	.0	9	0
ED_4	398	4.78	1.014	0	.0	16	0
ED_5	398	6.05	1.239	0	.0	4	0
ED_6	398	5.36	1.251	0	.0	20	0
ED_7	398	5.82	1.995	0	.0	0	0
ED_8	398	5.35	1.406	0	.0	24	0
I_1	398	5.75	1.376	0	.0	19	0
I_2	398	5.02	1.520	0	.0	9	0
I_3	398	4.83	1.515	0	.0	16	0
I_5	398	5.37	1.453	0	.0	0	0
A_1	398	5.38	1.660	0	.0	24	0
A_2	398	5.17	1.769	0	.0	0	0
A_3	398	6.28	1.383	0	.0	42	0
A_4	398	5.86	1.076	0	.0	0	0
A_5	398	6.12	1.355	0	.0	27	0
A_6	398	3.35	1.407	0	.0	20	0
S_1	398	5.52	1.816	0	.0	15	0
S_2	398	5.49	1.014	0	.0	17	0
S_3	398	4.82	1.520	0	.0	13	0
S_4	398	5.31	1.515	0	.0	8	0
S_5	398	5.26	1.453	0	.0	8	0
S_6	398	5.21	1.660	0	.0	0	0
S_7	398	5.17	1.769	0	.0	0	0
SA_1	398	5.80	1.383	0	.0	12	0
SA_2	398	6.12	1.076	0	.0	4	0
SA_3	398	6.06	1.089	0	.0	36	0
SA_4	398	5.81	1.093	0	.0	0	0
SA_5	398	6.68	.715	0	.0	0	0
OI_1	398	6.36	1.171	0	.0	27	0
OI_2	398	5.75	1.191	0	.0	8	0
OI_3	398	5.45	1.734	0	.0	0	0
OI_5	398	4.86	1.544	0	.0	20	0
WE_1	398	5.35	1.450	0	.0	0	0
WE_2	398	5.47	1.290	0	.0	37	0
WE_3	398	5.70	1.415	0	.0	15	0
WE_4	398	4.58	1.808	0	.0	0	0

WE_5	398	5.69	1.374	0	.0	17	0
T_2	398	3.33	1.902	0	.0	0	0
T_3	398	4.80	2.117	0	.0	0	0
T_4	398	4.01	2.080	0	.0	0	0
T_5	398	3.01	2.062	0	.0	0	0

APPENDIX 6.2

Multivariate outlier detection

Count	Case of outlier	Mahalanobis D2	D2/dfa	p-value
1	398	20.69879	2.069879	.00
2	397	20.60994	2.060994	.00
3	396	20.47546	2.047546	.00
4	395	19.91101	1.991101	.00
5	394	19.90078	1.990078	.00
6	393	19.52853	1.952853	.00
7	392	19.46487	1.946487	.00
8	391	19.42429	1.942429	.00
9	390	19.25151	1.925151	.00
10	389	19.24706	1.924706	.00
11	388	19.23536	1.923536	.00
12	387	19.21765	1.921765	.00
13	386	19.12649	1.912649	.00
14	385	19.07397	1.907397	.00
15	384	18.57324	1.857324	.00
16	383	18.55076	1.855076	.00
17	382	18.34374	1.834374	.00
18	381	18.22138	1.822138	.00
19	380	18.19045	1.819045	.00
20	379	17.94742	1.794742	.00
21	378	17.77777	1.777777	.00
22	377	17.62745	1.762745	.00
23	376	17.54910	1.754910	.00
24	375	17.23480	1.723480	.00
25	374	17.07013	1.707013	.00
26	373	17.03700	1.703700	.00
27	372	16.93343	1.693343	.00
28	371	16.89141	1.689141	.00
28	370	16.80053	1.680053	.00
29	369	16.78973	1.678973	.00
30	368	16.78526	1.678526	.00
31	367	16.73910	1.673910	.00
32	366	16.66899	1.666899	.00
33	365	16.54991	1.654991	.00
33	364	16.34695	1.634695	.00
34	363	16.27239	1.627239	.00
35	362	15.92449	1.592449	.00
36	361	15.83624	1.583624	.00
37	360	15.81793	1.581793	.00
38	359	15.45593	1.545593	.00
39	358	15.44910	1.544910	.00
40	357	15.40743	1.540743	.00
41	356	15.28673	1.528673	.00
42	355	15.27614	1.527614	.00
43	354	15.24823	1.524823	.00
44	353	15.12637	1.512637	.00
45	352	15.11135	1.511135	.00
46	351	15.09284	1.509284	.00
47	350	15.05293	1.505293	.00
48	349	15.04117	1.504117	.00
49	348	15.04117	1.504117	.00

50	347	14.98011	1.498011	.00
51	346	14.84370	1.484370	.00
52	345	14.79780	1.479780	.00
53	344	14.79463	1.479463	.00
54	343	14.78130	1.478130	.00
55	342	14.72872	1.472872	.00
56	341	14.65422	1.465422	.00
57	340	14.62144	1.462144	.00
58	339	14.61231	1.461231	.00
59	338	14.60643	1.460643	.00
50	337	14.43426	1.443426	.00
51	336	14.41961	1.441961	.00
52	335	14.24603	1.424603	.00
53	334	14.24217	1.424217	.00
54	333	14.22204	1.422204	.00
55	332	14.19154	1.419154	.00
56	331	13.99598	1.399598	.00
57	330	13.96319	1.396319	.00
58	328	13.85598	1.385598	.00
59	327	13.77334	1.377334	.00
60	326	13.75503	1.375503	.00
61	325	13.73953	1.373953	.00
62	324	13.67742	1.367742	.00
63	323	13.64829	1.364829	.00
63	322	13.53836	1.353836	.00
64	321	13.47988	1.347988	.00
65	320	13.41702	1.341702	.00
66	319	13.34141	1.334141	.00
67	318	13.25655	1.325655	.00
68	317	13.23196	1.323196	.00
69	316	13.12136	1.312136	.00
70	315	12.82486	1.282486	.01
71	314	12.66437	1.266437	.01
72	313	12.65926	1.265926	.01
73	312	12.65631	1.265631	.01
74	311	12.58555	1.258555	.01
75	310	12.53861	1.253861	.01
76	309	12.48619	1.248619	.01
77	308	12.47981	1.247981	.01
78	307	12.47014	1.247014	.01
79	306	12.43936	1.243936	.01
80	305	12.41886	1.241886	.01
81	304	12.30070	1.230070	.01
82	303	12.27225	1.227225	.01
83	302	12.20159	1.2.20159	.01
84	301	12.12621	1.212621	.01
85	300	12.03234	1.203234	.01
86	299	12.02906	1.202906	.01
87	298	12.01528	1.201528	.01
88	297	11.99111	1.199111	.01
89	296	11.85224	1.185224	.01
80	295	11.80840	1.180840	.01
81	294	11.79395	1.179395	.01
82	293	11.73902	1.173902	.01
83	292	11.72539	1.172539	.01
84	291	11.72093	1.172093	.01
85	290	11.61759	1.161759	.01
86	289	11.60766	1.160766	.01

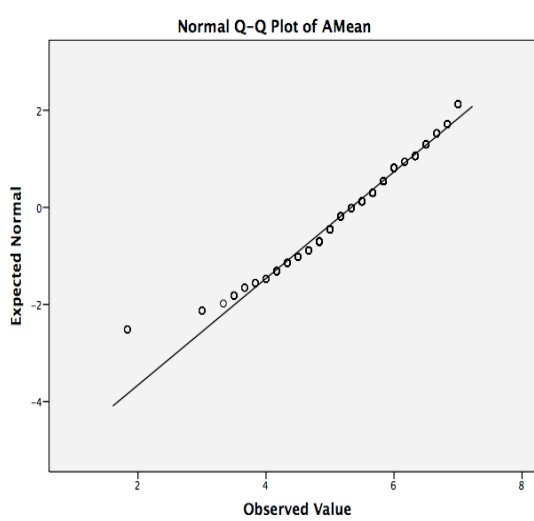
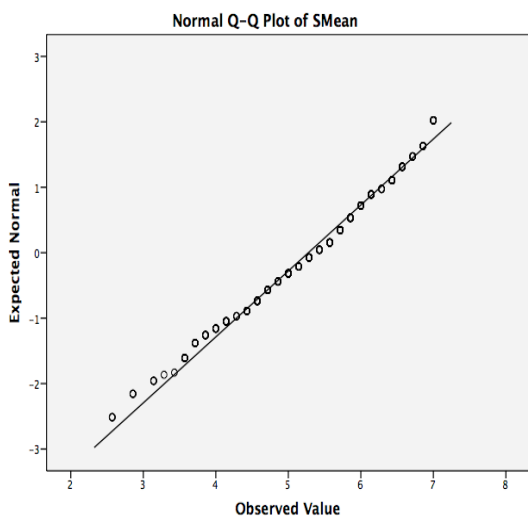
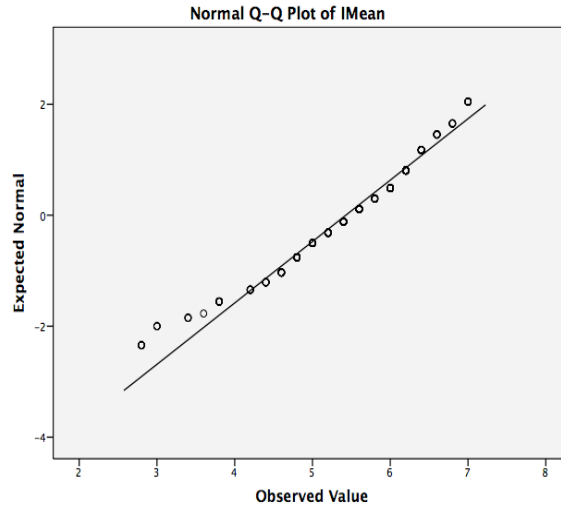
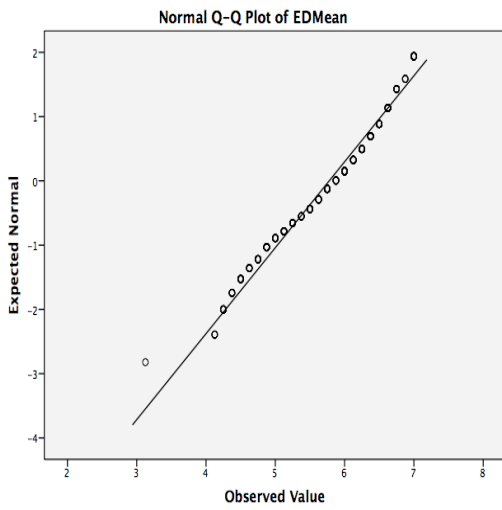
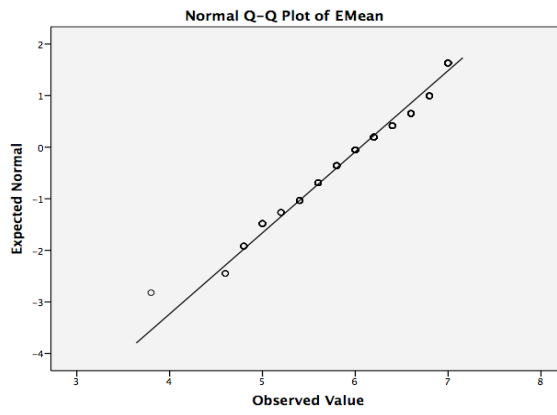
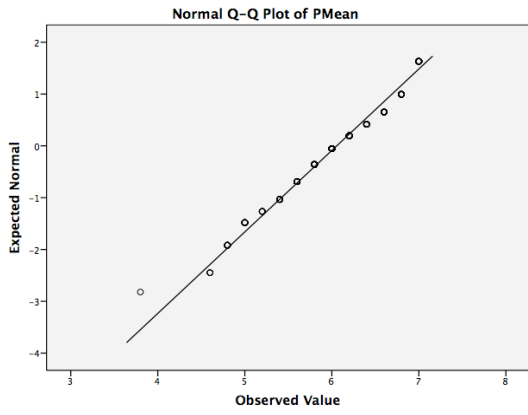
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88	286	11.51840	1.151840	.01
89	285	11.51665	1.151665	.01
90	284	11.42503	1.142503	.01
91	283	11.37393	1.137393	.01
92	282	11.36566	1.136566	.01
93	281	11.35744	1.135744	.01
93	280	11.32923	1.132923	.01
94	279	11.30783	1.130783	.01
95	278	11.15832	1.115832	.01
96	277	11.12980	1.112980	.01
97	276	11.04960	1.104960	.01
98	275	11.02323	1.102323	.01
99	274	11.01014	1.101014	.01
100	273	10.97850	1.097850	.01
101	272	10.95018	1.095018	.01
102	271	10.92184	1.092184	.01
103	270	10.91744	1.091744	.01
104	269	10.89300	1.089300	.01
105	268	10.87577	1.087577	.01
106	267	10.87411	1.087411	.01
107	266	10.86238	1.086238	.01
108	265	10.79351	1.079351	.01
109	264	10.77932	1.077932	.01
110	263	10.76728	1.076728	.01
111	262	10.71654	1.071654	.01
112	261	10.67889	1.067889	.01
113	260	10.65199	1.065199	.01
114	259	10.64167	1.064167	.01
115	258	10.56848	1.056848	.01
116	257	10.55057	1.055057	.01
117	256	10.42231	1.042231	.02
118	255	10.41431	1.041431	.02
119	254	10.38421	1.038421	.02
120	253	10.38218	1.038218	.02
121	252	10.37283	1.037283	.02
122	251	10.27377	1.027377	.02
123	250	10.24547	1.024547	.02
124	249	10.23489	1.023489	.02
125	248	10.22312	1.022312	.02
126	247	10.21017	1.021017	.02
127	246	10.21017	1.021017	.02
128	245	10.18017	1.018017	.02
129	244	10.17423	1.017423	.02
130	243	10.13844	1.013844	.02
131	242	10.12266	1.012266	.02
132	241	10.06485	1.006485	.02
133	240	10.06100	1.006100	.02
134	239	10.05858	1.005858	.02
135	238	9.86845	0.986845	.02
136	237	9.86826	0.986826	.02
137	236	9.86826	0.986826	.02
138	235	9.80258	0.980258	.02
139	234	9.76371	0.976371	.02
140	233	9.65837	0.965837	.02
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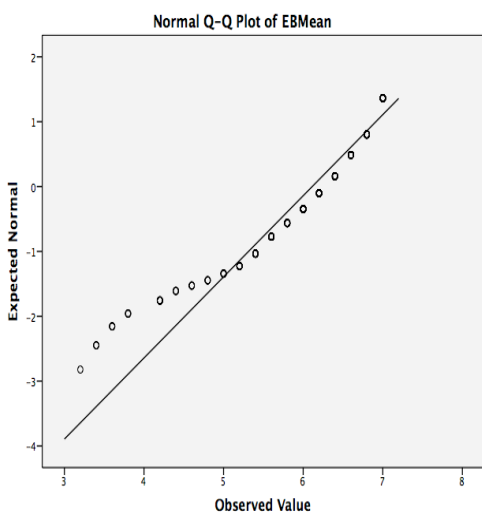
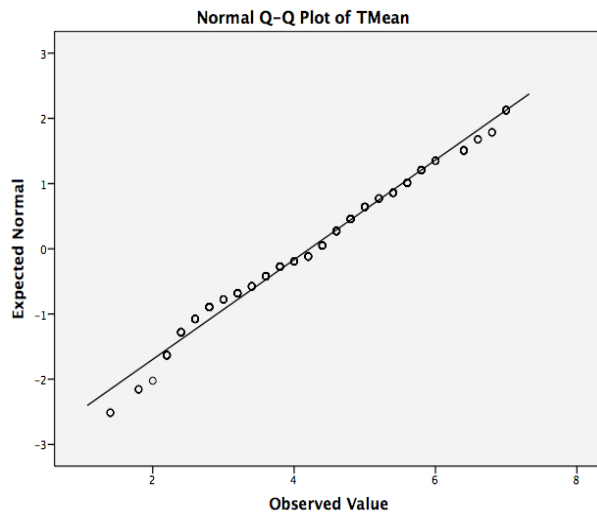
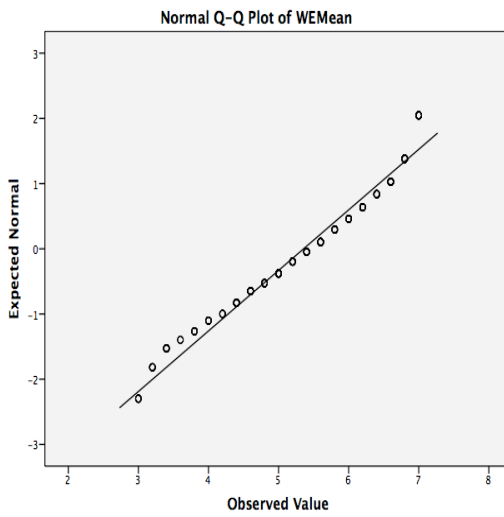
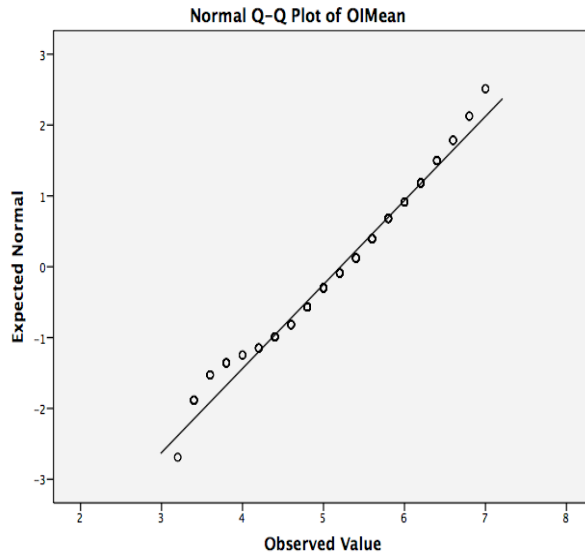
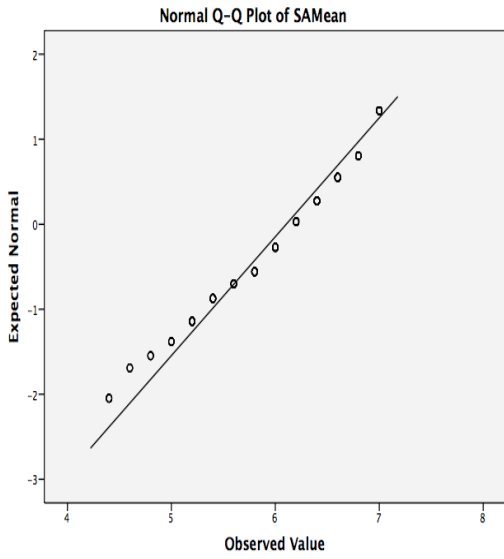
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145	227	9.51325	0951325	.02
146	226	9.50614	0950614	.02
147	225	9.48747	0948747	.02
148	224	9.47418	0947418	.02
149	223	9.33779	0933779	.03
150	222	9.32783	0932783	.03
151	221	9.32156	0932156	.03
152	220	9.32065	0932065	.03
153	219	9.28138	0928138	.03
154	218	9.27519	0927519	.03
155	217	9.27178	0927178	.03
156	216	9.12338	0912338	.03
157	215	9.06810	0906810	.03
158	214	9.06561	0906561	.03
159	213	8.96408	0896408	.03
150	212	8.95643	0895643	.03
151	211	8.93608	0893608	.03
152	210	8.89666	0889666	.03
153	209	8.86866	0886866	.03
154	208	8.86866	0886866	.03
155	207	8.82441	0882441	.03
156	206	8.80558	0880558	.03
157	205	8.78252	0878252	.03
158	204	8.73216	0873216	.03
159	203	8.67528	0867528	.03
160	202	8.63614	0863614	.03
161	201	8.59941	0859941	.04
162	200	8.58113	0858113	.04
163	199	8.54863	0854863	.04
164	198	8.54062	0854062	.04
165	197	8.53738	0853738	.04
166	196	8.53687	0853687	.04
167	195	8.53634	0853634	.04
168	194	8.52939	0852939	.04
169	193	8.50271	0850271	.04
170	192	8.39013	0839013	.04
171	191	8.38988	0838988	.04
172	190	8.31026	0831026	.04
173	189	8.29119	0829119	.04
174	187	8.27029	0827029	.04
175	186	8.25736	0825736	.04
176	185	8.24634	0824634	.04
177	184	8.23920	0823920	.04
178	183	8.17058	0817058	.04
179	182	8.15025	0815025	.04
180	181	8.05769	0805769	.04
181	180	7.98727	0798727	.05
182	179	7.97859	0797859	.05
183	178	7.94632	0794632	.05
184	177	7.92996	0792996	.05
185	176	7.90549	0790549	.05
186	175	7.90468	0790468	.05
187	174	7.88454	0788454	.05
188	173	7.88187	0788187	.05
189	172	7.86302	0786302	.05
190	171	7.85676	0785676	.05
191	170	7.85157	0785157	.05

192	169	7.83651	0783651	.05
193	168	7.83402	0783402	.05
194	167	7.79043	0779043	.05
195	166	7.75502	0775502	.05
196	165	7.73877	0773877	.05
197	164	7.72332	0772332	.05
198	163	7.72061	0772061	.05
199	162	7.71644	0771644	.05
200	161	7.70552	0770552	.05
201	160	7.68440	0768440	.05
202	159	7.67892	0767892	.05

APPENDIX 6.3

Normal probability Q-Q plot





APPENDIX 6.4

Univariate variables

Items	Std.			Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Mean	Deviation	Missing	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
EB_1	6.62	.872	.0	.457	398	.000	.548	398	.000
EB_2	6.06	.964	.0	.350	398	.000	.733	398	.000
EB_3	6.15	1.013	.0	.389	398	.000	.681	398	.000
EB_4	5.97	1.184	.0	.344	398	.000	.724	398	.000
EB_5	5.77	1.475	.0	.358	398	.000	.714	398	.000
P_1	6.08	1.243	.0	.306	398	.000	.764	398	.000
P_2	5.01	1.606	.0	.263	398	.000	.845	398	.000
P_3	5.98	1.162	.0	.250	398	.000	.786	398	.000
P_4	6.55	.822	.0	.394	398	.000	.634	398	.000
P_5	5.94	1.176	.0	.274	398	.000	.781	398	.000
E_1	6.00	1.148	.0	.411	398	.000	.649	398	.000
E_2	5.62	1.177	.0	.368	398	.000	.705	398	.000
E_3	6.11	.981	.0	.415	398	.000	.644	398	.000
E_4	6.14	.980	.0	.443	398	.000	.593	398	.000
E_5	6.41	.913	.0	.486	398	.000	.502	398	.000
ED_1	6.35	.924	.0	.360	398	.000	.706	398	.000
ED_3	6.52	.797	.0	.420	398	.000	.612	398	.000
ED_4	4.79	1.547	.0	.246	398	.000	.843	398	.000
ED_5	6.00	1.112	.0	.316	398	.000	.750	398	.000
ED_6	5.41	1.459	.0	.248	398	.000	.771	398	.000
ED_7	5.79	1.117	.0	.248	398	.000	.816	398	.000
I_1	5.75	1.111	.0	.365	398	.000	.708	398	.000
I_2	5.00	1.673	.0	.333	398	.000	.733	398	.000
I_3	4.83	1.678	.0	.346	398	.000	.702	398	.000
I_5	6.18	1.175	.0	.372	398	.000	.689	398	.000
A_1	5.38	1.357	.0	.290	398	.000	.762	398	.000
A_2	5.17	1.812	.0	.317	398	.000	.711	398	.000
A_3	6.25	1.020	.0	.308	398	.000	.715	398	.000
A_4	5.88	1.240	.0	.265	398	.000	.770	398	.000
A_5	6.12	1.253	.0	.320	398	.000	.710	398	.000
S_1	5.60	1.293	.0	.205	398	.000	.842	398	.000
S_2	5.49	1.376	.0	.271	398	.000	.839	398	.000
S_3	4.89	1.478	.0	.247	398	.000	.878	398	.000
S_4	5.31	1.515	.0	.258	398	.000	.858	398	.000
SA_1	5.79	1.384	.0	.326	398	.000	.740	398	.000
SA_2	6.12	1.076	.0	.330	398	.000	.706	398	.000
SA_3	6.10	.974	.0	.286	398	.000	.723	398	.000
SA_4	5.85	1.102	.0	.258	398	.000	.782	398	.000
SA_5	6.66	.733	.0	.453	398	.000	.574	398	.000
OI_1	6.41	1.142	.0	.437	398	.000	.603	398	.000
OI_2	5.70	1.201	.0	.389	398	.000	.678	398	.000
OI_3	5.47	1.737	.0	.416	398	.000	.642	398	.000
OI_5	4.86	1.544	.0	.368	398	.000	.698	398	.000
WE_1	5.34	1.446	.0	.250	398	.000	.832	398	.000
WE_2	5.47	1.295	.0	.246	398	.000	.863	398	.000
WE_3	5.71	1.417	.0	.293	398	.000	.778	398	.000
WE_4	4.58	1.808	.0	.251	398	.000	.837	398	.000
WE_5	5.69	1.374	.0	.264	398	.000	.817	398	.000
T_2	3.33	1.902	.0	.237	398	.000	.879	398	.000
T_3	4.81	2.130	.0	.211	398	.000	.862	398	.000
T_4	4.00	2.077	.0	.219	398	.000	.880	398	.000
T_5	3.00	2.056	.0	.179	398	.000	.880	398	.000

APPENDIX 6.5

Multivariate normality

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness			Kurtosis		
			Statistic	df	Sig	Statistic	df	Sig
Employer branding								
EB_1	6.62	.872	-3.471	.120	.000	9.498	.238	.000
EB_2	6.06	.964	-.746	.120	.000	-.108	.238	.000
EB_3	6.15	1.013	-.957	.120	.000	.009	.238	.000
EB_4	5.97	1.184	-1.313	.120	.000	1.747	.238	.000
EB_5	5.77	1.475	-1.399	.120	.000	1.838	.238	.000
Passion								
P_1	6.08	1.243	-1.910	.120	.000	4.425	.238	.000
P_2	5.01	1.606	-.631	.120	.000	-.228	.238	.000
P_3	5.98	1.162	-1.015	.120	.000	.131	.238	.000
P_4	6.55	.822	-2.196	.120	.000	5.181	.238	.000
P_5	5.94	1.176	-.970	.120	.000	.281	.238	.000
Extroversion								
E_1	6.00	1.148	-1.237	.120	.000	1.104	.238	.000
E_2	5.62	1.177	-1.071	.120	.000	1.810	.238	.000
E_3	6.11	.981	-1.447	.120	.000	4.055	.238	.000
E_4	6.14	.980	-.662	.120	.000	-.919	.238	.000
E_5	6.41	.913	-1.778	.120	.000	3.006	.238	.000
Education								
ED_1	6.35	.924	-2.083	.120	.000	7.144	.238	.000
ED_2	6.02	1.196	-1.321	.120	.000	1.339	.238	.000
ED_3	6.52	.797	-1.909	.120	.000	3.987	.238	.000
ED_4	4.79	1.547	-.563	.120	.000	-.110	.238	.000
ED_5	6.00	1.112	-1.352	.120	.000	2.741	.238	.000
ED_6	5.41	1.459	-.998	.120	.000	.849	.238	.000
ED_7	5.79	1.117	-.611	.120	.000	-.503	.238	.000
ED_8	5.34	1.676	-.959	.120	.000	.029	.238	.000
Interferences								
I_1	5.75	1.111	-.567	.120	.000	-.572	.238	.000
I_2	5.00	1.673	-.870	.120	.000	.088	.238	.000
I_3	4.83	1.678	-.560	.120	.000	-.549	.238	.000
I_4	5.39	1.175	-1.728	.120	.000	3.229	.238	.000
I_5	6.18	1.357	-.735	.120	.000	.485	.238	.000
Authenticity								
A_1	5.38	1.398	-.735	.120	.000	.310	.238	.000
A_2	5.17	1.812	-.696	.120	.000	-.513	.238	.000
A_3	6.25	1.020	-1.668	.120	.000	2.984	.238	.000
A_4	5.88	1.240	-1.115	.120	.000	1.167	.238	.000
A_5	6.12	1.253	-2.010	.120	.000	4.772	.238	.000
A_6	3.17	1.930	.530	.120	.000	-.859	.238	.000
Stereotype								
S_1	5.60	1.293	-.721	.120	.000	-.165	.238	.000
S_2	5.49	1.376	-.922	.120	.000	.443	.238	.000
S_3	4.89	1.478	-.423	.120	.000	-.448	.238	.000
S_4	5.31	1.515	-.885	.120	.000	.261	.238	.000
S_5	5.26	1.453	-.717	.120	.000	.160	.238	.000
S_6	5.21	1.659	-.669	.120	.000	-.434	.238	.000
S_7	5.17	1.769	-.850	.120	.000	-.079	.238	.000
Salience								
SA_1	5.79	1.384	-1.120	.120	.000	.760	.238	.000

SA_2	6.12	1.076	-1.226	.120	.000	1.242	.238	.000
SA_3	6.10	.974	-.898	.120	.000	.067	.238	.000
SA_4	5.85	1.102	-.542	.120	.000	-.841	.238	.000
SA_5	6.66	.733	-2.250	.120	.000	4.297	.238	.000
Occupational identity								
OI_1	6.41	1.142	-2.883	.120	.000	9.363	.238	.000
OI_2	5.70	1.201	-.891	.120	.000	.400	.238	.000
OI_3	5.47	1.737	-1.011	.120	.000	.151	.238	.000
OI_4	3.62	2.033	.080	.120	.000	-1.313	.238	.000
OI_5	4.86	1.544	-.754	.120	.000	.187	.238	.000
Work engagement								
WE_1	5.34	1.446	-.595	.120	.000	-.371	.238	.000
WE_2	5.47	1.295	-.797	.120	.000	-.331	.238	.000
WE_3	5.71	1.417	-1.405	.120	.000	1.815	.238	.000
WE_4	4.58	1.808	-.433	.120	.000	-.779	.238	.000
WE_5	5.69	1.374	-1.319	.120	.000	1.718	.238	.000
Turnover								
T_1	5.94	1.438	-1.623	.120	.000	2.353	.238	.000
T_2	3.33	1.902	.341	.120	.000	-1.032	.238	.000
T_3	4.81	2.130	-.652	.120	.000	-.923	.238	.000
T_4	4.00	2.077	-.108	.120	.000	-1.311	.238	.000
T_5	3.00	2.056	.629	.120	.000	-1.016	.238	.000

APPENDIX 6.6

Factor loadings associated with the EO scale following Principal Component Analysis

Rotated Component Matrix (a)

Items	Factor											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
EB_1	.776											
EB_2	.784											
EB_3	.788											
EB_4	.793											
EB_5	.775											
P_1		.718										
P_2		.763										
P_3		.804										
P_4		.771										
P_5		.771										
E_1			.777									
E_2			.773									
E_3			.824									
E_4			.828									
E_5			.753									
ED_1				.759								
ED_3				.739								
ED_4				.718								
ED_5				.811								
ED_6				.823								
ED_7				.771								
ED_8				.414								
I_1					.768							
I_2					.814							
I_3					.824							
I_5					.838							
A_1						.669						
A_2						.632						
A_3						.633						
A_4						.741						
A_5						.678						
A_6						.565						
S_1							.466					
S_2							.770					
S_3							.798					
S_4							.809					
S_5							.731					
S_6							.414					
S_7							.517					.604
S_7							.562					.509
SA_1								.852				
SA_2								.831				
SA_3								.789				
SA_4								.731				
SA_5								.723				
OI_1									.832			
OI_2									.814			
OI_3									.795			
OI_5									.781			
WE_1										.801		

WE_2										.777		
WE_3										.776		
WE_4										.741		
WE_5										.737		
T_2											.871	
T_3											.826	
T_4											.811	
T_5											.800	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 34 iterations