Brand-Building Behaviors of Frontline Employees – Disaggregating Between-Person and Within-Person Effects of Organizational Identification

Inauguraldissertation

zur Erlangung des akademischen Grades

eines Doktors der Wirtschaftswissenschaften

durch die Wirtschaftswissenschaftliche Fakultät der

Westfälischen Wilhelms-Universität Münster

vorgelegt von

Nadine Kubik (geb. Kass)

Melkweg 11a

33106 Paderborn

III

Table of Contents

V

VII

List of Figures

List of Tables

IX

List of Abbreviations

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BCB	Brand-Congruent Behavior
cf.	confer (compare)
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
COB	Customer-Oriented Behavior
DA	Deep Acting
df	degrees of freedom
Diff	Difference
DV	Dependent Variable
DW	Durbin-Watson
Ed(s).	Editor(s)
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ESM	Experience Sampling Methodology
Est	Estimate
e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)
et al.	et alii (and others)
FMCG	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
H	Hypothesis
ICC	Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
i.e.	id est (that is/that means)
IV	Independent Variable
JQ3	JOURQUAL3 Ranking
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion
KS-Test	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test
MSA	Measure of Sampling Adequacy
NA	Negative Affect

n.s.	non-significant
OBSE	Organization-Based Self-Esteem
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OIS	Organizational Identity Salience
OI	Organizational Identification
p.; pp.	page; pages
PA	Positive Affect
RESET	Regression Equation Specification Error Test
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SA	Surface Acting
SCT	Self-Categorization Theory
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SJR	Scientific Journal Rank (SCImago)
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
SW-Test	Shapiro-Wilk Test
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

List of Symbols

α	Cronbach's Alpha
d	Day
E	Expected Value
N	Sample Size Level-2
n	Sample Size Level-1
χ^2	Chi-Square Test-Statistic
p	Level of Significance
r	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
r^2	Squared Correlations
$<$	Less than
$>$	Greater than
$\leq$	Less than or equal to
$\geq$	Greater than or equal to
$\%$	Percent

Hierarchical Linear Modeling:

β	Level-1 Coefficients
γ	Level-2 Fixed Effect
D	Deviance
i	Level-1 Units
j	Level-2 Units
L	Likelihood
$Q+1$	Number of Equations
ρ	Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
r	Level-1 Random Effect
R^2	Coefficient of Determination

σ^2	Level-1 Variance
τ	Level-2 Variance and Variance-Covariance Components
t	t-Test Statistic
u	Level-2 Random Effect
W	Level-2 Predictor
Y	Outcome Variable
X	Level-1 Predictor

1 Introduction

1.1 Research Problem and Objective of the Work

In the modern marketplace predominated by product commoditization and an abundance of low-cost alternatives, organizations increasingly concentrate on service offerings to promote business growth and to strengthen customer relationships (Koudal 2006, p. 6). In light of this so-called new service-dominant logic, the vital role of strong service brands as a means to differentiate from competitors has been highlighted (Vargo and Lusch 2008, p. 255). While marketing and external communications can contribute to build and strengthen a brand by traditional branding efforts like mass promotions and advertising campaigns, nothing exerts more influence on customers' brand perceptions than their actual experiences with the service (Berry 2000, p. 136), which is determined by the performance, appearance, and demeanor of frontline employees at the customer encounter (Hartline *et al.* 2000, p. 35). In line with this, employees that work at the customer interface have been referred to as the "living brand" (cf. Bendapudi and Bendapudi 2005) and have been stated to be the best PR a company can have (cf. Hurt 2015), for they represent the "face" of the company (Hartline *et al.* 2000, p. 35).

In view of this, managers of service organizations these days face the challenge to encourage their employees to exhibit behaviors that build and strengthen the brand. Accordingly, a new strategic orientation of brand management, namely "internal branding", has received growing attention (e.g., Abimbola *et al.* 2010; Baron *et al.* 2009; Boone 2000). Within this strategic alignment, employees are treated as internal stakeholders of corporate branding efforts, and their behaviors at the customer encounter are managed towards a consistent delivery of the organization's core values (Abimbola *et al.* 2010, p. 401). However, practitioners evaluate their own current implementation of internal branding strategy as unsatisfactory. The results of a recent survey among German marketing executives on present challenges and problems in brand management indicate that 39% perceived the insufficient internal implementation of the marketing strategy one of the biggest prevailing problems (GMK Markenberatung 2015). In a broader study among 600 marketing specialists and executives in Germany, Austria and Switzerland, 54% highlighted the growing importance of a consistent brand experience

by consumers and 43% stated that in future it will become even more necessary to intensively implement the marketing strategy internally and to activate the employees with respect to organizational branding efforts (Horizont 2014). This notion agrees with a recent study among professional decision-makers on trends and success factors of brand management, which identified internal branding efforts in Germany as a weak point of brand strategy in organizations and certified the growing importance of employee behaviors that contribute to strengthen a brand (Deutscher Markenmonitor 2015). The study concludes that, to this date, although practitioners claim to understand the critical role of frontline employee behavior for brand success, marketing budgets are still distributed in favor of traditional forms of advertising, while brand directed personnel development measures remain rather the exception than the rule. Overall, only one third of German businesses invest in internal branding at all. This number is alarming considering that even the most elaborated brand communication is rendered inefficient if frontline employees do not hold up to brand promises toward the customer (Berry 2000, p. 135). Hence, for companies striving to distinguish themselves from their competitors through excellent and brand-compliant service, the development of brand champions (e.g., Morhart *et al.* 2009, p. 122), i.e., employees who form and enhance an organization's brand image and help to differentiate the brand from competitors by producing unique selling points (cf. Bowen 2016, p. 9), constitutes a current challenge. Simultaneously, awareness of this substantial problem still has to be built among marketing managers.

In line with this, scholars have come to recognize the crucial role frontline employees play for service brand success these days. In recent years, the concept of internal branding has gained growing attention in academia and the term "brand-building behaviors" (e.g., Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Miles and Mangold 2004; Morhart *et al.* 2009) has been coined, subsuming employee behaviors that help to build and strengthen a brand inside and outside the customer encounter (Morhart *et al.* 2009, p. 123). Recent research in the area of internal branding has promoted the identification of antecedents fostering high levels of these brand-building behaviors. In this context, the organizational identification of frontline employees has been proposed as a key driving force (e.g., Homburg *et al.* 2009; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009). More specifically, frontline employees who have internalized organizational values will be intrinsically driven to engage for the organization and more likely live the brand

at the customer encounter (Hughes and Ahearne 2010, p. 83). Thus, highly identified frontline employees take a key role in building the service brand (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 320).

Notwithstanding the progress in the outlined research field, the perspective taken by researchers so far is limited, as they have focused solely on stable facets of these behaviors, comparing high vs. low performers by investigating so-called between-person effects (cf. Curran and Bauer 2011, p. 592). This perspective neglects systematic intra-individual variation in brand-building behaviors, i.e., fluctuations within persons, and associated within-person effects. Many authors have stated that within-person and between-person analyses are conceptually distinct and relate to different conceptual phenomena, whereas each can be of great practical and academic relevance (e.g., Cervone 2005, p. 425). While within-person studies address questions of when and under which circumstances employees show certain behaviors during a day or time period, between-person studies analyze which stable personality traits or general attitudes lead to average levels of behavior (cf. Binnewies and Wörnlein 2011, p. 590). Studies on brand-building behaviors, to this day, have exclusively focused on employees' average manifestations by assessing constructs in cross-sectional study designs, traditionally focusing on differences between persons (e.g., Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009). This perspective seems insufficient when considering the so called "dynamic performance approach" to organizational performance (cf. Barnes *et al.* 2012; Dalal *et al.* 2009; Sonnentag and Frese 2009), providing strong evidence for the existence and significance of intra-individual variation in many various dimensions of employee behavior beyond average performance levels. Exemplarily, employees engage in higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors on some days compared to others (Bolino *et al.* 2012) or sales performance was found to vary among sales representatives from week to week (Stewart and Nandeolyar 2006). Gaining insights with respect to predictors of intra-individual variation of brand-building behaviors would be particularly helpful for managers who aim at a consistent delivery of brand-building behaviors by minimizing fluctuations within employees, or who are interested in achieving especially high levels of these behaviors (above average) on specific days (e.g., open house days or fair presentations). A perspective incorporating both, differences between and within persons, should be of great relevance for marketing managers

these days, since employees performing high average levels of brand-building be-haviors and delivering *consistent* and *homogenous* brand experiences to custom-ers, represent a top-of-mind objective of internal brand management (Deutscher Markenmonitor 2015), while both sources of variation in frontline employees' brand-building behaviors (between-person and within-person) are likely to jeop-ardize the consistent delivery of brand-building behaviors at the customer encoun-ter (cf. Beal *et al.* 2005, p. 1055). Acknowledging that each single service inter-action determines the quality of a customer-company relationship and thus repre-sents a "moment of truth" for the long-term success or failure of the organization (Beaujean *et al.* 2006, p. 63), management implications on how to assure stable delivery of brand-building behaviors within-persons (e.g., across days) should be equally desirable and beneficial for managers as the provision of insights on how to foster average levels of brand-building behaviors at the customer encounter. Actually, this demand has even been indicated by decision-makers in the field of brand management, who state that each single employee on *each day* contributes to the building of the brand. Particularly, professionals claim that the derivation of consequences for *daily employee behavior* is the only way to ensure a homog-enous brand experience for customers (Deutscher Markenmonitor 2015). How-ever, to this day, little is known about the actual amount of within-person varia-bility in brand-building behaviors and no predictors of employees' daily engage-ment in these behaviors have been studied in prior research.

Concomitant with this neglect on brand-building behaviors goes the empirical omission to differentiate within-person and between-person components of the organizational identification construct and to uncouple between-person effects on average behavioral tendencies from within-person effects of short term changes in behavior within employees (cf. Becker *et al.* 2013). This disaggregated treat-ment of between-person and within-person components of group identification is an area of research that has only recently gained interest (e.g., Haslam *et al.* 2009; Ketturat *et al.* 2016). The underlying idea is that in daily life individuals vary in the degree to which they experience identification with a group, regardless of their average levels of identification. While average levels of identification determine typical behavioral tendencies, a momentary manifestation of identification (i.e., the experienced sense of shared social identity), however, readies individuals to immediate psychological or behavioral reactions fluctuating around their charac-

teristic levels of behavior (Ketturat *et al.* 2016, pp. 148). This time-variant component of social identity, namely identity salience, has been originally stated in the social identity approach, a set of theories that build the argumentative basis on how group identification directs group relevant behavior (e.g., Tajfel 1978a; Tajfel 1978b; Turner and Tajfel 1986). In applications of the approach to organizations it has been termed organizational identity salience, which constitutes a context-sensitive prerequisite for identification to lead to activities that are congruent with the identity (van Knippenberg 2000, p. 357). Yet, in prior research, the social identity approach in organizations has been mainly examined from a between-person perspective (for a meta-analytical review cf. Riketta, 2005). This prevalent perspective, however, does not satisfy the time-variant character of organizational behavioral outcomes, acknowledging that a static variable cannot predict varying levels of behavior. Given this, the urge of applying intra-individual perspectives has been highlighted (Curran and Bauer 2011, p. 585).

In light of the central role organizational identification plays in internal branding literature as a driver of brand-building behaviors (cf. Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009), it comes as a surprise that a multi-level perspective, considering both, between-person and within-person components of the constructs, has not been implemented to this day. Picking up on this omission, this work conceptually and empirically contributes to both literature on organizational identification and internal branding, by pointing to disaggregated between-person and within-person effects of organizational identification on frontline employees' brand-building behaviors and thereby providing a better understanding of the underlying variance structures of these constructs as well as gaining insights into this important relationship on both levels of analysis.

Further value is generated through this work by investigating interactional effects of between-person and within-person facets of organizational identification on brand-building behaviors. Thereby, potential differences between frontline employees with respect to their sensitivity towards within-person changes of organizational identity salience on behavioral outcomes will be examined for the first time. For practitioners this perspective should be of high relevance, as the identification of employees who are sensitive to within-person changes in organizational identity salience and therefore subject to substantial fluctuations in brand-

building behaviors over time, enables managers to concentrate their efforts towards those critical cases. Methodologically, this approach responds to the call of Chen and Bliese (2005, p. 376) who request the integration of analogous constructs across different levels of analysis to test for isolated as well as interacting effects at these levels. Moreover, this new perspective also contributes to theory development of the social identity approach in organizations. By applying a hierarchical perspective to this approach and testing time variant facets of its underlying assumptions, the current understanding of the truly operating dimensions of shared identity in daily organizational life is nurtured and the mutual influence of different levels of analysis on each other with regard to important internal branding outcomes, in this case the brand-building behaviors of frontline employees, is illuminated.

Finally, in order to enable the derivation of concrete management implications on how intra-individual levels of organizational identity salience can be influenced, in this work a specific driver of the construct, namely daily organization-based self-esteem, will be proposed. Self-esteem is a key construct in the social identity approach, representing the underlying motive of group identification (Tajfel 1981, p. 229). Organization-based self-esteem has been theoretically and empirically linked to organizational identification as a between-person outcome (cf. Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Bowden 2002; Shamir and Kark 2004), while research that investigates within-person levels of organization-based self-esteem as an antecedent of social identification, like the work at hand, is utterly new. This relationship, however, offers a variety of touchpoints for management, as organization-based self-esteem has been shown to be influenced by several organizational and managerial practices (cf. Pierce and Gardner 2004, p. 605). Consequently, if within-person levels of self-esteem will be revealed to render frontline employees' organizational identity salient, valuable management tasks will be deducible in order to increase daily levels of brand-building behavior, as requested by practitioners (Deutscher Markenmonitor 2015). In order to determine differences between individuals with regard to the strength of the daily organization-based self-esteem and organizational identity salience relationship, between-person effects of organization-based self-esteem on the effect are complementarily considered drawing on the "behavioral plasticity" concept, a theoretical approach explaining intra-individual variation in psychological and behavioral reactions of low self-esteem individuals (cf. Brockner and Guare 1983; Brockner 1988). This more detailed

specification of the relationship should be of great benefit for managers to more accurately orchestrate presumably costly management practices towards the actual target group.

Concluding, this work will combine research on internal branding, the dynamic performance approach and the social identity perspective in organizations. Based on that, the main objective of this dissertation is to enrich existing literature by challenging the prevailing stable conceptualization of brand-building behaviors and organizational identification. Additionally, in doing so, disaggregated effects of the constructs will be examined. Unique effects of between-person organizational identification and within-person organizational identity salience as well as interacting effects of both levels on frontline employees' brand-building behaviors will be empirically tested. A further focus of the work will be the prediction of daily organizational identity salience. In this vein, the construct of organization-based self-esteem will be conceptualized as a within-person driver of organizational identity salience and empirically tested as a function of its respective between-person component.

Overall, the theoretical-conceptual and empirical analyses of this work are guided by four research questions, which can be summarized as follows:

1. Do frontline employees vary with regard to their brand-building behaviors and their sense of shared organizational identity (organizational identity salience) across workdays?

2. Do between-person organizational identification and within-person organizational identity salience of frontline employees influence respective levels of brand-building behaviors, i.e., average behaviors at the between-person level and daily behaviors at the within-person level?

3. Are all frontline employees equally sensitive towards within-person changes of organizational identity salience on subsequent levels of brand-building behaviors or does between-person organizational identification moderate this sensitivity?

4. Which roles do within-person and between-person levels of organization-based self-esteem play in triggering within-person levels of organizational identity salience of frontline employees?

1.2 Course of the Investigation

In order to address the proposed research questions in an appropriate manner, the work at hand is subdivided into seven chapters.

Subsequent to this introductory chapter, in **Chapter 2** the conceptual and theoretical foundations of the investigation will be discussed. Initially, the crucial role of frontline employees for service brand success will be presented in detail (section 2.1.). This includes the integration of the subject in the context of the new service-dominant logic, a detailed account of the impact employee behaviors have on successful company-customer relationships, as well as the formal introduction of the internal branding concept. Finally, the importance of consistent behaviors between and within frontline employees at the customer encounter is emphasized. In a next step, between-person and within-person components of variability in frontline employee behavior are illuminated, accounting for the prevalent dynamic perspective on organizational performance (section 2.2). Thereupon, the concept of brand-building behaviors is introduced (section 2.3). Here, the focal in-role brand-building behaviors of frontline employees, namely customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and emotional labor, are defined and differentiated from extra-role brand-building behaviors. Following, the theoretical foundations of the social identity approach will be outlined (section 2.4). This includes the basics of social identity and self-categorizing theory, as well as the introduction of the organizational identification construct. In addition, between- and within-person components of organizational identification as well as their modes of action will be conceptually separated from each other. The chapter closes with the introduction of the construct of organization-based self-esteem and the presentation of related theoretical principles (section 2.5).

Chapter 3 contains a systematical literature review on primary research areas relevant to this work, facilitating a focused approach towards existing deficits in current research. After the proceeding and the scope of the literature review are described (section 3.1), a review of relevant empirical contributions will be conducted. This includes a summary of between-person studies on brand-building

behaviors (section 3.2), an overview on existing research with regard to within-person components of frontline employee performance (section 3.3), and a literature inventory of studies on organizational identity salience and within-person identification, allowing for preliminary indications of disaggregated effects of organizational identification (section 3.4). The chapter ends with a systematic demonstration of current research gaps, highlighting the unique contributions of the work at hand (section 3.5).

Chapter 4 is devoted to the methodological foundations of the quantitative investigations in this work. In a first step, the basics of experience sampling, a method that was applied for data collection on both the between- and within-person level in studies 1 and 2 of this work, are outlined (section 4.1). Subsequently, foundations of construct measurement and quality assessment, which were applied in this work to ensure high quality of the measurement model, will be presented (section 4.2). Finally, the analytical procedure of two-level hierarchical linear modeling, used to analyze the multi-level data structure in both studies of this work, will be explained in sufficient detail for readers not familiar with this advanced statistical method to comprehend the analytical proceeding and understand the presented interpretation of results (section 4.3).

In **Chapter 5**, the first study of this work consisting of two sub-studies 1a and 1b, is described. Study 1 pertains to the first three research questions introduced in the prior section. Initially, the objective and the methodological approach of study 1 are presented (section 5.1), followed by the derivation of research hypotheses and the conceptualization of the reference framework (section 5.2). Afterwards, the conception and procedure of data assessment is described (section 5.3). The results of the quantitative analyses, including the examination of data quality and prerequisites for hierarchical linear models as well as the results of the hypotheses testing, are reported subsequently (section 5.4). The chapter terminates with a systematical discussion of the findings of study 1 (section 5.5).

The second study of this work, partly representing a replication as well as an extension of study 1, is documented in **Chapter 6**. This study responds to all four research questions initially presented. The structure of the chapter is identical to the preceding chapter. After outlining the study objective and the methodological approach (section 6.1), hypotheses are derived and the conceptual framework of study 2 is presented (section 6.2). Here again, it follows the description of the

conception and procedure of data assessment (section 6.3), ensued by the analysis (section 6.4) and discussion (section 6.5) of results.

The work closes with **Chapter 7**, which constitutes a holistic résumé of the conducted investigation. To begin with, the initially stated research questions are answered by summarizing the major findings of the work (section 7.1). Following, implications that arise for practice and science are discussed (section 7.2). The last section is devoted to a critical appraisal by demonstrating limitations of the work and pointing to future research needs (section 7.3).

The entire course of the investigation is depicted in a structured overview in Figure 1.

11

1 Introduction

1.1 Research Problem and Objective of the Work

1.2 Course of the Investigation

2 Conceptual and Theoretical Foundations of the Investigation

2.1 The Crucial Role of Frontline Employees for Service Brand Success

2.2 Between- and Within-Person Variation in Performance	2.3 Brand-Building Behaviors of Frontline Employees
2.4 The Social Identity Approach	2.5 Organization-Based Self-Esteem

3 State of Empirical Literature in Relevant Research Areas

3.1 Proceeding and Scope of the Literature Review

3.2 Studies on Between-Person Variation in Brand-Building Behaviors	3.3 Studies on Within-Person Variation in Frontline Employee Performance	3.4 Studies on Identity Salience and Within-Person Identification

3.5 Deficiencies of Existing Literature and Contribution of the Present Work

4 Methodological Foundations of the Quantitative Investigation

4.1 Foundations of Experience Sampling Methods	4.2 Foundations of Construct Measurement and Quality Assessment	4.3 Foundations of Two-Level Hierarchical Modeling

5 Study 1

5.1 Objective and Proceeding

5.2 Hypotheses and Reference Framework

5.3 Conception and Procedure of Data Assessment

5.4 Results of the Quantitative Investigation

5.5 Discussion of the Findings

6 Study 2

6.1 Objective and Proceeding

6.2 Hypotheses and Reference Framework

6.3 Conception and Procedure of Data Assessment

6.4 Results of the Quantitative Investigation

6.5 Discussion of the Findings

7 Conclusion and Perspective

7.1 Summary of Core Findings

7.2 Implications for Practice and Science

7.3 Limitations of the Investigation and Perspectives for Future Research

Figure 1: **Course of the Investigation**

Source: Author's illustration.

2 Conceptual and Theoretical Foundations of the Investigation

2.1 The Crucial Role of Frontline Employees for Service Brand Success

Service Brands in Light of the New Service-Dominant Logic

Increasing occurrence of product commoditization, growing imitation from low-cost countries and the rise of online marketplaces undermining price advantages of local businesses, progressively impede companies to gain competitive advantage through product differentiation or cost-leadership. Opposing this current development, progressive organizations focus on *service* to ensure sustainable growth. (Koudal 2006, p. 6; Vargo and Lusch 2008, p. 255) A prominent example is Apple. With its cutting-edge retail stores and highly engaged frontline staff, Apple has shifted its core business from providing technological gadgets to creating vivid customer service experience which is difficult for competitors to emulate (Coget 2011, p. 94). Consequently, a service organization can be both, a provider of intangible outputs as well as a manufacturer integrating service offerings (Koudal 2006, p. 6).

Picking up on this business evolution in research, the ever-prevailing marketing logic based on the exchange of goods shifted toward a *service-dominant logic* introduced by Vargo and Lusch (2004). The term service implies that specialized competences are applied to and embedded in the final offering, be it tangible or intangible, to benefit another entity (e.g., customers) (Vargo and Lusch 2004, p. 2). Hence, the service-dominant logic holds a more inclusive understanding of service marketing and gains practical approval when stating that successful manufacturers or retail organizations nowadays compete through service (cf. Lusch *et al.* 2007, p. 5; Vargo and Lusch 2008, p. 256). Following the work of Parasuraman *et al.* (1985, p. 42), service is characterized by three key features. First, services are intangible, i.e. a consistent quality cannot be set by manufacturer instructions as with products but the perception of service quality is rather dependent on the individual and his or her subjective experience, making it harder for companies to understand their customers' evaluation of quality. Along with this goes, second, heterogeneity as a key characteristic of services, as every service encounter is characterized by a different combination of individuals and circumstances, impeding uniform frontline employee behavior. The third and final key

feature identified by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985, p. 42) is the inseparability of production and consumption of services, as service quality mostly emerges while the service is delivered to the customer. Moreover, the managerial control over the quality of this service delivery declines with increasing customer participation intensity. An illustrative example is a doctor misdiagnosing a patient because he or she does not adequately describe his or her symptoms. It is argued, in general, that the features of service outlined above lead to a mutual interest of organizations and customers (Subramony and Pugh 2015, p. 350). On the one hand, customer outcomes and their service evaluation depends upon the interaction quality with the service employee (Oliver 1999, p. 34). On the other hand, organizational effectiveness is (at least in part) a function of these customer outcomes (Anderson *et al.* 1994, p. 55).

In line with the new prevalent service-dominant logic, building a strong service brand is a key task for organizations. Brands help to generate competitive advantage as they distinguish the organization's offering in competitive marketplaces (Aaker 1991, p. 17). Other than with goods where the product is core to the brand, a service brand is affected by the organization's specialized competences (Berry 2000, p. 128). Frontline employees are key for providing brand promises, i.e., core values of the brand, and therefore play a major role in the customer brand perceptions (Berry 2000, p. 129). Whereas marketing and external communications help build the brand, the customers' actual experience with the service has a very powerful impact on an organization's *service brand equity* (Berry 2000, p. 136), i.e., the degree of marketing advantage or disadvantage over competitor brands (Berry 2000, p. 130). In line with this, the major influence of staff on brand perceptions of customers has been highlighted, as they largely define both the "what" (*functional*) and the "how" (*procedural*) of brand value delivery (cf. Chernatony *et al.* 2011; Chernatony and Segal-Horn 2003). At the service encounter, frontline employees convey specialized service competences to the customer and therefore embody the intangible service brand (King and Grace 2010, p. 939). They are the link between the brand and the customer, and for this reason their behavior is crucial for brand-building (Balmer *et al.* 2001, p. 441).

Although more and more researchers recognize the role of frontline employees for service brands (e.g., Bowen 2016; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009; Sirianni *et al.* 2013), with respect to terminology, literature

to this day is still inconsistent as the notions "frontline employee", "service employee" and "boundary-spanning employee" are frequently used synonymously (e.g., Bettencourt *et al.* 2005). Yet, while service employees also deliver service without immediate customer interaction such as technical support staff or back-office staff (Miles and Mangold 2004, p. 69), boundary-spanning employees additionally encounter stakeholders other than customers (Korschun 2015, p. 612). The employee behaviors of interest in this work imply immediate customer contact which is immanent to the notion "frontline". Therefore, the term *frontline employee* will be utilized subsequently.

Customers' Perceived Service Quality and its Effect on Brand Perceptions
As stated above, previous literature suggests that frontline employees who deliver great service will yield high brand equity (Berry 2000, pp. 129). Brand equity partly builds on customers' brand perceptions. Thus, it is mainly the customer who determines a service offering's value (Vargo and Lusch 2004, p. 7). Customers derive this value to a large degree from their perceived service quality (Zeithaml *et al.* 1988, p. 35), which is a customer's evaluation of the service as it is delivered during *service encounters* (Berry 2000, p. 129). A service encounter is the frontline employee-customer interaction (Parasuraman *et al.* 1985, p. 45). Depending on whether a frontline employee manages to convey the corporate service brand image and meet the customers' expectations regarding the delivered service, service brand equity can grow or decline subsequent to a service encounter (Berry 2000, p. 135). More precisely, service quality perceptions are a result of comparing customer expectations, which are formed through public mass communications, with actually delivered service performance. Deductively, behavior of frontline employees that is aligned with other corporate branding efforts and honors organizational service brand promises, is crucial in confirming customers' expectations and in yielding brand equity. (Grönroos 1984, pp. 36; Smith and Houston 1983, p. 60)

Beyond the delivery of *functional* dimensions of service quality (e.g., the right product is recommended to the customer), it is advantageous to engage customers *emotionally* by adding intimate touches to the commercial relationship (Myrden and Kelloway 2015, p. 587). Previous research suggests that personal interactions are more persuasive than impersonal communication such as advertising, and thus

are more important for building brand equity (Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 108). Moreover, the emotional and human connection built in service encounters was found to be essential for customer loyalty. Exemplarily, banking clients who mainly used online banking were demonstrated to be relatively disloyal regardless of the provided service quality, as they lacked opportunity to establish a personal bond with the service provider (Beaujean *et al.* 2006, p. 67). More specifically, the display of authentic emotions at the customer encounter have been documented to positively affect service relationships (e.g., Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006; Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013).

Underlining the important role of human touches to the brand-building process, Bowen (2016, p. 9) identified frontline employees' roles as *differentiators,* i.e., discriminating a brand from competitor brands through brand-specific behavior*,* which is of prime importance for successful organizations considering the growing commoditization of market offerings. So-called small things (Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 110) like *authentic* and *human* touches, can be key for differentiating in markets where products and intangible goods are becoming quite too similar. As *brand ambassadors* (Korschun 2015, p. 614) or *brand champions* (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 311), frontline employees help distinct the provided service from competitors by performing *brand-building behaviors*[1] (Biedenbach *et al.* 2011, p. 1094; Miles and Mangold 2004, p. 65).

Internal Branding of Frontline Employees
Despite the discussed importance of brand-aligned behavior among frontline employees, the intangible character of a service brand is just as difficult to grasp for frontline employees as it is for customers, therefore marketing activities directed toward internal recipients are essential (Berry 2000, p. 135). The efforts made by a company to foster employee commitment to the set of a company's values and organizational goals as well as to help them adopt the firms' branding concept, has been termed *internal branding* (Abimbola et al. 2010, p. 402; Backhaus and Tikoo 2004, p. 503). In the literature the term is often used synonymously to employee or behavioral branding (e.g., Baker *et al.* 2014; Miles and Mangold 2004; Morhart *et al.* 2009). Internal branding is a human resource management tool which aims to encourage employees to internalize the intended brand image and

---

[1] A formal definition of brand-building behaviors is provided in section 2.3.

act it out in front of the customer (Vallaster and Chernatony 2005, p. 183), i.e., it is focused on the transformation of the brand messages (i.e., brand promises) into reality, so that the customers' expected brand experience is reflected (Boone 2000, p. 37). Internalization of the brand and behavior in accordance with the brand, can be facilitated by supporting frontline employees' organizational identification (cf. Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Mael and Ashforth 1992; Wieseke et al. 2009). If the brand image corresponds to employees' beliefs and helps satisfy their needs of belongingness, it is likely that they will identify with the organization and internalize the brand. This triggers a self-interest to act in accordance with the brand promise and to promote the brand as brand ambassadors. (Baker *et al.* 2014, p. 645 and p. 648) In order to enable internalization and provide frontline employees a basis for identification, organizations need to disseminate brand knowledge and transmit a feeling of appreciation to make them feel essential to the success of the service brand (Berry 2000, pp. 135).

The effectiveness of aligned employee attitudes and behavior with the company brand image is reflected in the service-profit chain depicted in **Figure 2**. The upper path illustrates the original version developed by Heskett *et al.* (1994), a chain of effects starting with employee job satisfaction. This satisfaction reflects on frontline employees' attitudinal and behavioral customer orientation which in turn positively affects satisfaction and behavioral intentions of customers, and improved organizational performance. Homburg, Wieseke, and Hoyer (2009) complemented the model by adding an identity-based path to the traditional service-profit chain taking up the rising interest of research on internal branding and organizational identification. The authors provide empirical evidence that identity-driven processes even outperform the satisfaction-based path (Homburg, Wieseke, and Hoyer 2009, p. 48). Based on these findings, it can be concluded that shaping frontline employees' attitudes and behaviors (e.g., organizational identification) is meaningful in providing desired levels of service quality (e.g., customer orientation) and desired customer reactions (e.g., loyalty), which again positively affect overall organizational performance.
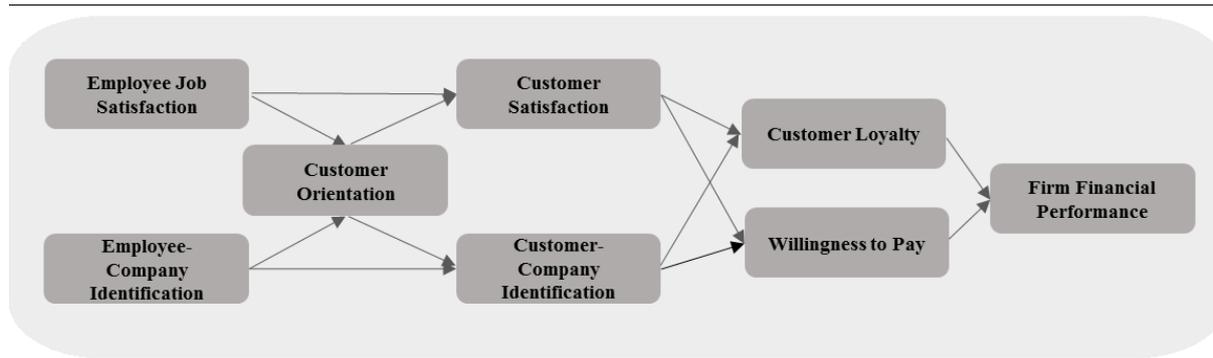
Figure 2: **The Service-Profit Chain**

Source: Author's Illustration, adapted from Homburg et al. 2009, p. 40.

Consistent Delivery of Service Brand Promises

Once a service organization establishes a favorable brand image, one important task is to ensure a *consistent delivery* of the related brand promises (Berry *et al.* 1988, p. 28). However, even for organizations acknowledge the important role frontline employees play for service brand success, ensuring consistent delivery of brand promises towards customers at any time is a difficult management undertaking (cf. Booms and Bitner 1981, p. 48). As Parasuraman *et al.* (1985, p. 42) state, service performance can vary from one employee or day to another. Hence, what a service organization intends to deliver might be very different from what the customer receives, depending e.g. on the overall attitudes and behaviors of the respective employee delivering the service, or on their specific daily form. The original versions of the service-profit chain by Heskett *et al.* (1994) and Homburg *et al.* (2009) as presented above, illustrate effects *between* employees with regard to general levels of satisfaction or identification, and how employees scoring high on these qualities, on average engage in customer-oriented behaviors and evoke customer reactions in general terms, compared to employees with low such manifestations.

Assuming varying levels in the daily delivery of service performance *within* frontline employees, Myrden and Kelloway (2015) tested the links of the original service-profit chain on a daily level. The authors integrated more transient factors into the original model, such as daily satisfaction and daily employee engagement (Myrden and Kelloway 2015, p. 586 and p. 592). In their study, daily satisfaction of frontline employees directly affected daily levels of engagement with the customer. This again influenced daily service quality perceptions on the customer

side, as well as their satisfaction, and immediate loyalty intentions. Considerable *intra-individual variation* in daily job satisfaction, employee engagement, as well as the customer-related outcome variables could be demonstrated. This transient version of the service-profit chain, as depicted in **Figure 3**, suggests that not just differences in service performance between employees (high vs. low performers) cause harm to a consistent transmission of high service quality and subsequent customer reactions. An additional pitfall for customer-company relationships arises when attitudes and behaviors exhibit transient components *within* employees and, thus, inconsistent levels of service performance are delivered at the customer encounter from the same employee across days, as shown by Myrden and Kelloway (2015).
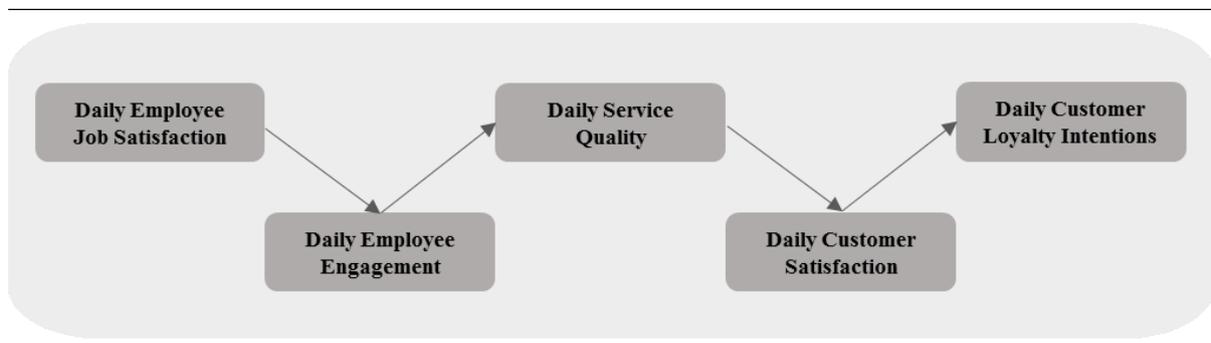
Figure 3:   **A Daily Version of the Service-Profit Chain**

Source: Author's Illustration, adapted from Myrden and Kelloway (2015), p. 590.

In the preceding section, the growing importance of service brands and the crucial role of frontline employees for a consistent delivery of a service brand have been highlighted. Additionally, the concept of internal branding as a managerial approach in this regard has been introduced. In the subsequent section, the conceptual foundations of a disaggregated approach towards *between-person* and *within-person* fluctuation (here and in the following also variability or variation) in organizational performance are outlined in order to provide a basic understanding of the underlying idea. Moreover, the empirical and practical relevance of both variability sources in performance of frontline employees is highlighted.

2.2 Between- and Within-Person Variation in Performance

A Within-Person Approach to Organizational Performance

Frequently, performance is defined as employee behavior that supports organizational goals (Campbell 1990, p. 704 and p. 709). It can refer to task performance (i.e., in-role behavior prescribed in the job description that directly feeds into the production of a good or service) or contextual performance (i.e., extra-role behavior not included in formal reward systems but discretionarily executed to promote the organization) (Motowidlo and van Scotter 1994, p. 476; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997, p. 146). A number of years ago, Kane and Lawler (1979, pp. 428) pointed to the variability in individual performance over time, arguing that typical performance measurement ignores that variability. Instead, assessment procedures oftentimes focused exclusively on mean levels of performance, i.e., *between-person variability*, comparing high-performing with low-performing individuals. In these studies meaningful and substantial *within-person variability*, i.e., changes in one and the same individual's performance over time, are treated as error. However, this variation in performance is not random, as usually treated in between-person studies, but can be subject to psychological states (Beal *et al.* 2005, p. 1055), or situational changes (Minbashian and Luppino 2014, p. 900).

Nowadays, in research focusing on organizational performance dimensions (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior or creativity), performance is more and more viewed as a dynamic construct (cf., Binnewies and Wörnlein 2011; Ilies *et al.* 2006; Miner and Glomb 2010). Accordingly, it has been documented that performance criteria in multiple domains exhibit a variety of systematic patterns of change over time within individuals. This within-person variation in organizational performance implying the change of an particular employee's performance level over time (Dalal *et al.* 2014, p. 1400), is also referred to as "dynamic performance" (e.g., Sonnentag and Frese 2009). In related studies, within-person variation has been shown to constitute a large proportion of the total variability in performance. For a review on within-person variability in job performance see Dalal *et al.* (2014). Additionally, a literature table containing studies on within-person variation in organizational performance is presented in **Table 55** in Appendix A.

Two Sources of Variation in Performance of Frontline Employees

Drawing on this dynamic performance concept, two distinct forms of variance in frontline employee behaviors, both of which are crucial for consistent service brand performance, can be differentiated: The first commonly studied source of statistical variance and therefore practical source of variation in an organization's provided interactional service quality, arises between frontline employees, i.e., differences between high-level and low-level service performers are analyzed. This source of variance has been of interest for many researchers examining general employee attitudes and workplace perceptions and their corresponding association with the delivered employee- or customer-rated level of service performance (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Kelley 1992; Stock and Hoyer 2005). Consequently, managers are well provided with expert knowledge on how to foster general levels of service performance, e.g., by hiring employees with particular favorable personality traits like emotional intelligence (e.g., Joseph and Newman 2010) or agreeableness (e.g., Diefendorff *et al.* 2005), by developing beneficial general employee attitudes toward the organization, e.g., customer-oriented attitude (e.g., Stock and Hoyer 2005), or by generating advantageous work environments, e.g., by avoiding role conflict (Bettencourt and Brown 2003) and strengthening company prestige (Mishra *et al.* 2012). When implementing these kind of management practices, frontline employees' general performance levels are valued and developed by management (Beal et al. 2005, p. 1055).

The second, albeit down to the present day understudied variance component in service performance, however, occurs within-persons, i.e., one and the same frontline employee's performance fluctuates across different points in time around her or his average performance level, e.g., weeks, days, or even hours (cf. Reb and Cropanzano 2007, p. 490). Systematic within-person fluctuation in frontline employees' behaviors might occur due to changes of their psychological states (e.g., daily work engagement; Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2008) or contextual changes in their work-environment (e.g., daily availability of job resources; Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2009). Even averagely high performing frontline-employees might, under certain circumstances, perform below their personal average or even below an organizationally acceptable performance level, therefore leaving customers dissatisfied and risking damage of customer-company relationships (cf. Myrden and Kelloway 2015).

These substandard service encounters could be equally harmful to customers' evaluations of service quality and their formation of service brand perceptions as the behavior of general low performers (cf. Beal et al. 2005, p. 1055). Previous research has shown that a beneficial customer-organization relationship can be shaped by only one service interaction and does not require a long-time history (Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 60). Every new service encounter shapes a customer's service brand perception, and therefore marks a moment that has the potential to drastically change an ongoing relationship (Beaujean *et al.* 2006, p. 63; Parasuraman *et al.* 1985, p. 43). Consequently, each service interaction represents a "moment of truth" for long-term business success or failure (Carlzon 1987, p. 38). However, to be successful, organizations need to create service encounters that are constantly above the average (cf. Hyken and Baum 2014, p. 155) and therefore need to manage both, between-person and within-person dynamics in service performance. This is in line with research on how consumers form brand impressions (Aaker *et al.* 2004, p. 13; Johar *et al.* 2005, p. 467), documenting that consumers are likely to update their brand image and make trait inferences on brand characteristics each time confronted with new information regarding the brand. Existing brand associations are more easily changed, when the new information contradicts the current brand image. Hence, a failed customer interaction, contradicting the brand values and brand promises spread by advertisement and other media with regard to the service, is likely to directly translate into customers' service brand evaluations. This reevaluation process will gain momentum irrespective of the failed interaction originating from a generally low performing frontline-employee or being caused by an employee's below-average performance.

Consequently, if frontline employees' performance variation is strongly pronounced, they will not be able to reliably deliver high quality service, but rather vary with regard to their performance from workday to workday (Barnes *et al.* 2012, p. 713). This intra-personal performance variation and resulting failed service interactions can depict a severe risk factor for an organization's competitiveness. Negative service encounters can be especially harmful in early phases of the customer-company relationship, when the relationship is less tied and consolidated. For customers less familiar with the brand and firm, information (e.g., a

service performance below or above expectations) are likely to weigh more heavily in building brand impressions compared to long-time customers already holding a strong brand or firm image. This is especially striking, as the bad impression or negative emotion a customer is left with after a specific service encounter cannot be compensated by high average performance levels on other days when the particular customer does not make use of the service. (Johar *et al.* 2005, p. 467) Furthermore, even if an employees' below-average performance is still at an overall acceptable level, the decrease in performance becomes a lost opportunity for *delighting* a customer by exceeding expectations, which again is considered as a necessary condition to build strong customer-company bonds. Taking on a different perspective, under certain conditions generally low performing employees might be driven to perform above their personal average, thereby entailing positive consequences on the service company side. Managerial knowledge on how to increase daily levels of employee performance to an extraordinary level (i.e., above average) may be especially useful on days when e.g. trade fairs or open house days take place and increased customer-traffic is expected. On these occasions, a consistent favorable representation of the service brand should be a set goal of the day. (Parasuraman *et al.* 1985, p. 42)

Subsumed, the performance delivered by a frontline employee in a single service encounter depicts only a snap-shot of the entire spectrum of the service employee's performance. If substantial within-person variation in frontline employees' service performance exists, consistent levels of performance delivery cannot be guaranteed and service brand equity as well as customer-company relationships might get harmed. Deductively, in addition to the management of average service performance levels, the management of within-person performance variation in frontline-employees' service performance is a necessary condition to assure long-term service brand success and should be incorporated into management practice.

In the next section, selected behavioral dimensions of service performance that might be crucial at the moment of truth in forming customers' brand perceptions and therefore represent potential core outcome variables in this work at both the within-person and between-person level, are introduced and specified.

2.3 Brand-Building Behaviors of Frontline Employees

As outlined above, frontline staff play an important role in building an organization's brand and shaping customers' perceptions of that brand. In this context, associated performance dimensions have been captured under the term "brand-building behaviors" (e.g., Miles and Mangold 2004). In general, brand-building employee behaviors are defined as "employees' contribution (both on and off the job) to an organization's customer-oriented branding efforts. […] [In the service context] in-role brand-building behavior refers to frontline employees meeting the standards prescribed by their organizational roles as brand representatives (either written in behavioral codices, manuals, display rules, and so forth, or unwritten)" (Morhart *et al.* 2009, p. 123). Behaviors within customer interactions are also referred to as in-role behaviors, whereas behaviors outside the customer interaction are termed extra-role behaviors. Following Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos (2014), two types of in-role employee brand-building behaviors are examined in this work: *customer-oriented behavior* and *brand-congruent behavior*. A focus is laid solely on performance dimensions that are carried out during the customer interaction and therefore are likely to directly impact customers' service brand perceptions (cf. sections 2.1 and 2.2). Hence, extra-role behaviors, e.g., *participation in brand-development* or *positive word of mouth* (for definitions see Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 311), are not subject to the work at hand.

Additionally, considering the importance of frontline-employees' authentic emotional delivery for service brand success (cf. section 2.1), in this work the *emotional labor* of frontline employees is conceptualized as a brand-building behavior and empirically tested in study 2 of this dissertation. Specifically, emotional labor strategies, namely *surface acting* and *deep acting* will be introduced as dimensions of emotional labor. The adoption of these strategies during customer interactions by employees can play a crucial, advantageous (deep acting) or disadvantageous (surface acting) role in forming customers' brand perceptions and customer-company relationships (e.g., Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013; Groth *et al.* 2009). Consequently, frontline employees' engagement in deep acting will be classified as brand-building, while surface acting will be classified as brand-breaking.

In the following, customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior as well as the emotional labor strategies of surface acting and deep acting will be formally introduced and the brand-building or brand-breaking character of emotional labor during the customer interaction will be outlined more deeply.

In **Figure 4** an overview of the brand-building behaviors investigated in this work is presented.

Brand-Building Behaviors

Within Customer Interaction (In-Role Behaviors)	Outside Customer Interaction (Extra-Role Behaviors)
Customer-Oriented Behavior	Participation in Brand-Development
Brand-Congruent Behavior	Positive Word of Mouth
Emotional Labor	

Focus of the Work
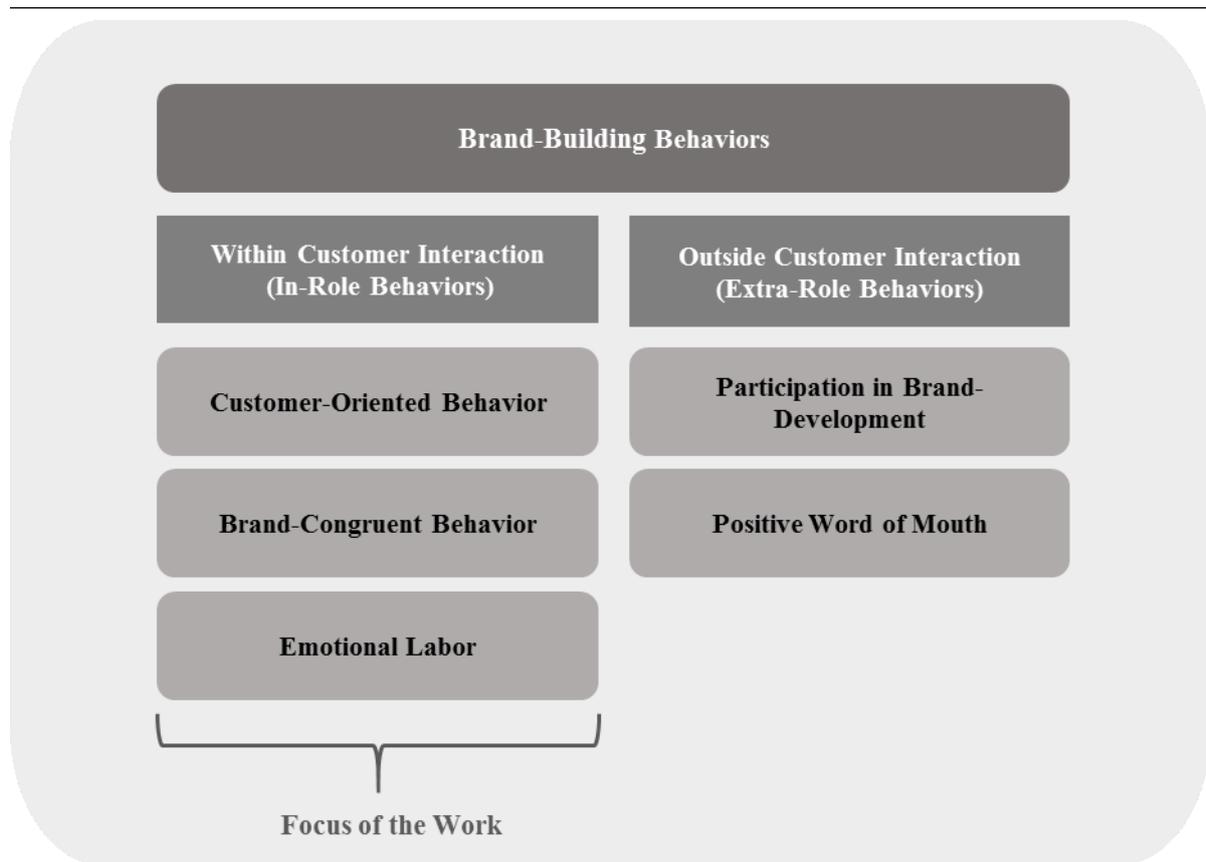
Figure 4: **Brand-Building Behaviors**

Source: Author's Illustration.

Customer-Oriented Behavior
In the dissertation at hand, customer orientation is conceptualized as a *behavioral* employee outcome, which is clearly distinguishable from customer oriented *attitude*. An attitudinal perspective on customer orientation is provided by Hartline *et al.* (2000). They define customer orientation as a "set of beliefs that puts the customer's interests first, while not excluding those of all other stakeholders" (p.

35). A customer-oriented mindset is likely to translate into customer-oriented behavior, the behavioral facet of customer orientation (Stock and Hoyer 2005, p. 547), because frontline employees with a customer-oriented attitude are truly concerned to actually help customers (He *et al.* 2015, p. 1752). Several authors stress behavioral properties of customer orientation. Saxe and Weitz (1982) define customer-oriented behavior as the degree to which frontline employees "help their customers make purchase decisions that will satisfy customer needs" (ibid., p. 344). This behavioral perspective is also adopted by Thomas *et al.* (2001) as well as Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos (2014) who were among the first to explicitly classify customer-oriented behavior as a brand-building behavior. Farrell *et al.* (2001, p. 587) conceptualize customer orientation as a dimension of service quality implementation behaviors, and therefore position it as a key activity to shape the customer's service brand perceptions. Moreover, Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie (2005) theorize on three customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviors among which *service delivery*, defined as "conscientious, responsive, flexible, and courteous manner" (ibid., p. 142) of serving customers, reflects the prevalent understanding of customer-oriented behavior. In line with the service-dominant logic, customer orientation should be intrinsic to the brand promise of each service organization (Carlzon 1987, p. 42).

Brand-Congruent Behavior

The vast internal branding literature emphasizes the importance of the role of the employee in delivering the brand promise to the customer (e.g., Henkel *et al.* 2007; Morhart *et al.* 2009). In prevalent literature frontline employees oftentimes are referred to as "lifeblood" (Bienstock *et al.* 2003, p. 357) or "face of a service firm" (Groth *et al.* 2009, p. 970). These anecdotal paraphrases reflect frontline employees' importance to build and transfer brand values through their brand-congruent behavior (Berry 2000, p. 130; Thorbjørnsen and Supphellen 2011, p. 68). In line with this, brand-congruent behavior is defined "as the degree to which an employee's personal communication and appearance in a customer interaction is in line with the organization's brand identity" (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 311). Although customer-orientation should be core to each service brand, brand-congruent behavior is different from customer-oriented behavior in that its primary purpose is to convey a certain brand image to the customer instead of providing good service quality in general. Correspondingly, Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie (2005) conceptualize frontline employees' *external*

representation, defined as employees "being vocal advocates […] of the organization's image, goods, and services" (ibid., p. 142), as a customer-oriented boundary-spanning behavior, which is equivalent to brand-congruent behavior. Henkel *et al.* (2007, p. 316) as well as Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010, p. 1255) stress the potential of brand-congruent behavior to distinguish a service brand from the competition, and thereby point to frontline employees' role as differentiators (cf. Bowen 2016). Effective differentiation requires more than customer-oriented behavior as this is basically provided by all service organizations (Henkel *et al.* 2007, p. 311). Instead, frontline employees need to convey the values that are specific to the service brand. Henkel *et al.* (2007) exemplify this in that both BMW and Mini customers may expect competent car sellers. But apart from this generic demeanor, the car sellers' behaviors should be aligned to the respective car brand images, i.e., dynamic for BMW, and self-actualizing for Mini (ibid., p. 316).

Emotional Labor
Service encounters are often described by dramaturgical metaphors (Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013, p. 473), according to which frontline employees are the actors in front of a customer audience (Grandey 2003, p. 86). Experiencing and displaying the expected emotions plays a key role in successful service interactions. Therefore, frontline employees' role holds the duty of creating a favorable image of the organization and its brand through positive emotional displays. (Hochschild 2003, p. 137) Such services with a smile depicts an additional source of competitive advantage for service brands (Groth *et al.* 2009, p. 958). Naturally, employees do not always actually experience the emotions they ought to express, instead they need to make an effort to display those emotions that are desired by their organization by performing *emotional labor* (Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013, p. 475). Emotional labor represents "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions" (Grandey 2000, p. 97) in order to reach organizational goals. Emotional labor is acted out through emotion regulation referring to "processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross 1998, p. 275). Whenever actually felt emotions do not correspond with display rules i.e., explicit or implicit organizational prescriptions of emotional expressions (Grandey *et al.* 2013, p. 8; Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013, p. 473), emotion regulation becomes necessary. To cope with the arising inner conflict between actually experienced emotions and

emotions they are ought to express, frontline employees engage in two emotion regulation strategies: *surface acting* and *deep acting* (Hochschild 2003, p. 33).

Surface acting occurs when frontline employees only change their outer expression to display the prescribed emotions without actually feeling them (Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 59; Hochschild 2003, p. 38). Employees modify their external expression in a way that it fits the display rules set by their organization. This is done by oppressing unwanted feeling or simulating and intensifying wanted feeling as opposed to the attempt to shape ones true inner feelings (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 95; Hochschild 2003, p. 34). In *deep acting*, frontline employees genuinely try to modify their feelings in order to actually experience the emotional state and match the prescribed emotions that they are required to display during a service encounter. This can be achieved by focusing on good thoughts or reevaluating the situation. (Grandey 2000, p. 99) The employee tries to actively evoke a certain emotion, for example by imagining a certain situation in which he or she has experienced the desired feeling (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 96).

Existent literature suggests that distinct motivations underlay these two forms of emotion regulation (Grandey 2003, p. 87). Surface acting is rather performed in order to keep ones job and not in order to help the customer and/or the organization, it has also been termed "faking in bad faith" (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, p. 32). In line with that, the effectiveness of surface and deep acting differs in terms of authenticity, i.e., "the degree to which customers have confidence in the sincerity of an employee's brand-aligned behavior" (Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 111). Surface acting is associated with inauthentic behavior (Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 61) resulting in distancing (Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013, p. 485) and diminishing the effect of the display of positive emotions during the service encounter (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 97). Additionally, several studies found that surface acting has a negative impact on the employees themselves since it can lead to emotional exhaustion (Grandey 2003, p. 86; Totterdell and Holman 2003, p. 70), family work conflict (Yanchus *et al.* 2010, p. 105) and withdrawal from work (Scott and Barnes 2011, p. 116). Contrastingly, deep acting was found to influence customer loyalty (Groth *et al.* 2009, p. 968), brand equity (Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 113) as well as favorable customer perceptions of the service encounter (Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 68) and goes along with a better service performance

(Grandey 2000, p. 95; Totterdell and Holman 2003, p. 55). Employees' bonds with an organization (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 99; Mishra *et al.* 2012, p. 204) and their willingness to help the customer (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, p. 32) were found to drive deep acting, which is thus also called "faking in good faith". Concluding, although both surface and deep actors adhere to display rules, deep acting is better qualified to build the brand and create positive customer responses (Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 118). Frontline employees' ability to authentically regulate their emotions is key for favorable customer service perceptions, and thus immanent to successful performance (Beal et al. 2006, p. 1053). Consequently, regulating emotions to authentically match the brand image by employing deep acting strategies and avoiding surface acting strategies becomes a key work-relevant behavior for brand-building among frontline employees.

After the dimensions of brand-building behaviors relevant to this work, namely customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and emotion regulation, have been introduced and conceptualized, in the next section the theoretical foundations of the work at hand based on the *social identity approach* are outlined. In the subsequent chapter, first, the theoretical foundations of the social identity approach are depicted. Second, the adoption of this perspective in organizational contexts and the construct of *organizational identification* are presented. Third, within-person and between-person components of organizational identification are conceptually separated and defined. Finally, the organization-based self-esteem construct and related theory will be introduced. In doing so, its relevance in the context of organizational identification will be stated.

2.4 The Social Identity Approach

The social identity approach is rooted in mainly two theories from social psychology and stresses the importance of the self-definitional notion of (psychological) group memberships and its effects on individuals group behavior (van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006, p. 571). The two theories are, namely, *social identity theory* (Tajfel and Turner 1979; Turner and Tajfel 1986) and *self-categorization theory* (Turner *et al.* 1987; Hogg and Terry 2000).

2.4.1 Social Identity Theory

The social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979) is a social psychological theory that aims at understanding and explaining (inter-) group processes and behaviors. Briefly, the theory describes the striving of individuals towards a positive social identity by distinguishing their own social groups (in-group) favorably from related social groups that the individual is not part of (out-groups). Social groups are defined as "a collection of individuals who perceive themselves to be members of the same social category, share some emotional involvement in this common definition of themselves, and achieve some degree of social consensus about the evaluation of their group and their membership in it" (Turner and Tajfel 1986, p. 15). These social groups provide a frame of orientation for individuals to define their place in society (Turner and Tajfel 1986, p. 16; Billig and Tajfel 1973, p. 31). Social identity, on the one hand, is defined as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group […] together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel 1981, p. 255). Social identification, on the other hand, refers to "the perception of oneness or belongingness to" (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 21) a social group. Thus, social identity integrates the required components for social identification to occur. More specifically, the value connotation to the in-group and associated group self-esteem reflect the evaluative component of social identification. The emotional attachment expressed through positive feelings toward the group constitute the affective component. Finally, knowing about one's group membership i.e., one's identification with that group, and the categorization of the self to this group depicts the cognitive component. (Tajfel 1981, p. 229)

Fundamentally, social identity theory builds on three theoretical principles (Tajfel and Turner 1986, p. 16): First, individuals aim to build or maintain a positive social identity. Second, a positive social identity is largely based on the comparison between an in-group and a relevant out-group, where the in-group is perceived as more favorable. Third, if the social identity is unfavorable, individuals will try either to change their group membership to a more positively differentiated group or to transform their existing group so that it becomes differentiated in a positive way. Following those principles, Tajfel and Turner (1986) draw the central assumption of social identity theory, namely that social group members will constantly strive for a positive differentiation of their in-group from relevant out-

groups in order to maintain or achieve superiority, i.e., positive group self-esteem. Hence, social identity theory takes up people's pursuit of positive self-evaluation which partly bases on their social identification (Tajfel 1978a, p. 61).

2.4.2 Self-Categorizing Theory

Self-categorizing theory, as conceptualized by Turner *et al.* (1987) can be regarded as an extension of social identity theory. It takes on and amplifies the cognitive component of social identification (Hogg and Terry 2000, p. 123). Hence, self-categorizing theory was not developed as a competitive theory to social identity theory but rather as a broader theoretical approach, which comprises it (Turner *et al.* 1987, p. 11). Following self-categorizing theory, people categorize their social environment in groups by means of evaluative criteria (e.g., values or stereotypic traits). The assignment of the self to a group i.e., self-categorization, depends on how well group criteria allow for consistency with the self-concept, enhancement of self-esteem and distinction from out-groups (Arnett *et al.* 2003, p. 92; Dutton *et al.* 1994, p. 239). Therefore, socially identifying with a group can be viewed as a result of self-categorization.

In response to social identification people adapt their self-concept and behaviors to the in-group prototype (Turner *et al.* 1987, p. 11). The self-concept depicts the aggregate of cognitive representations of the self available to a person (ibid., p. 44) and consists of multiple components. Thus, each individual has various self-concepts, which become salient in specific situations. In other words, not all concepts are always salient and the salience of different concepts of the self leads to diverging self-images. These cognitive representations are then organized into categories. Similar to the ideas of social identity theory the self and certain stimuli that are perceived as similar are grouped within the same category as opposed to other categories, which comprise of stimuli that are perceived as different. It is suggested that social categories are based on the principle of "meta contrast", this is to say stimuli are grouped into categories in a way that differences within a group are minimized, while differences between groups are maximized (Turner *et al.* 1987, pp. 44–49). The person with the highest ratio of those differences (average difference between categories divided by average difference within category) represents the prototype of the category in question. Hence, a person can categorize itself either as a group member or as an individual (Turner *et al.* 1987, pp. 49–

51). Moreover, categories are hierarchically ordered – a higher category always consists of several lower categories, out of which none is able to describe the upper category completely (Turner *et al.* 1987, pp. 44). Turner et al. distinguish the superordinate level (one conceptualizes oneself as a human being), the intermediate level (the individual distinguishes between the in-group and the out-group as conceptualized in social identity theory) and the subordinate level (one differentiates between oneself as an individual and another member of the in-group).

However, whether a certain social identity will have an impact on the individual's behavior is dependent on the context, i.e., the *salience*, of a certain identity (van Knippenberg 2000, p. 357; Oakes *et al.* 1991, p. 125). It has been argued that category salience depends on both accessibility and fit (Oakes *et al.* 1991, p. 139; Bruner 1957, p. 128). Fit captures the degree to which similarities and differences between individuals (and their behaviors) are correlating with the division in social categories. In addition, accessibility distinguishes between categories that are temporarily accessible when being primed and those categories that are regularly accessible because they are either frequently activated or people are motivated to use them. When a certain group membership is salient, differences within the group are less important while out-group differences are focal. Conversely, if the group identity is less salient and the individual self is more salient, within-group differences become more important. This phenomenon is referred to as functional antagonism. Moreover, if the membership in a social group is salient and in-group/out-group comparisons are accentuated, an individual's self-concept is depersonalized. This cognitive assimilation triggers perceived oneness with the in-group. (Oakes *et al.* 1991, pp. 130) Perceived oneness and social identification with a group causes people to perceive the group's goals as their own (Dutton *et al.* 1994, p. 239). Thus, the group's achievements turn into an intrinsic concern encouraging prototypical behavior (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 34). Hence, people act in order to enhance group self-esteem which reflects on their personal self-esteem (Tajfel and Turner 1979, p. 36). The need for self-consistency further encourages prototypical behavior (Dutton *et al.* 1994, p. 245).

These depersonalization processes have been drawn on to explain multiple occurring group phenomena (e.g., normative behavior, stereotyping, group behavior, etc.) (for a review see Hogg and Terry 2000). The behavioral consequences of

social identification derived from self-categorizing theory are in line with calls from social identity theory research to add a fourth, behavioral component to identification, indicating that people engage in behaviors that are relevant for the in-group (van Dick 2001, p. 270).

An integral overview of the social identity approach is presented in **Figure 5**.
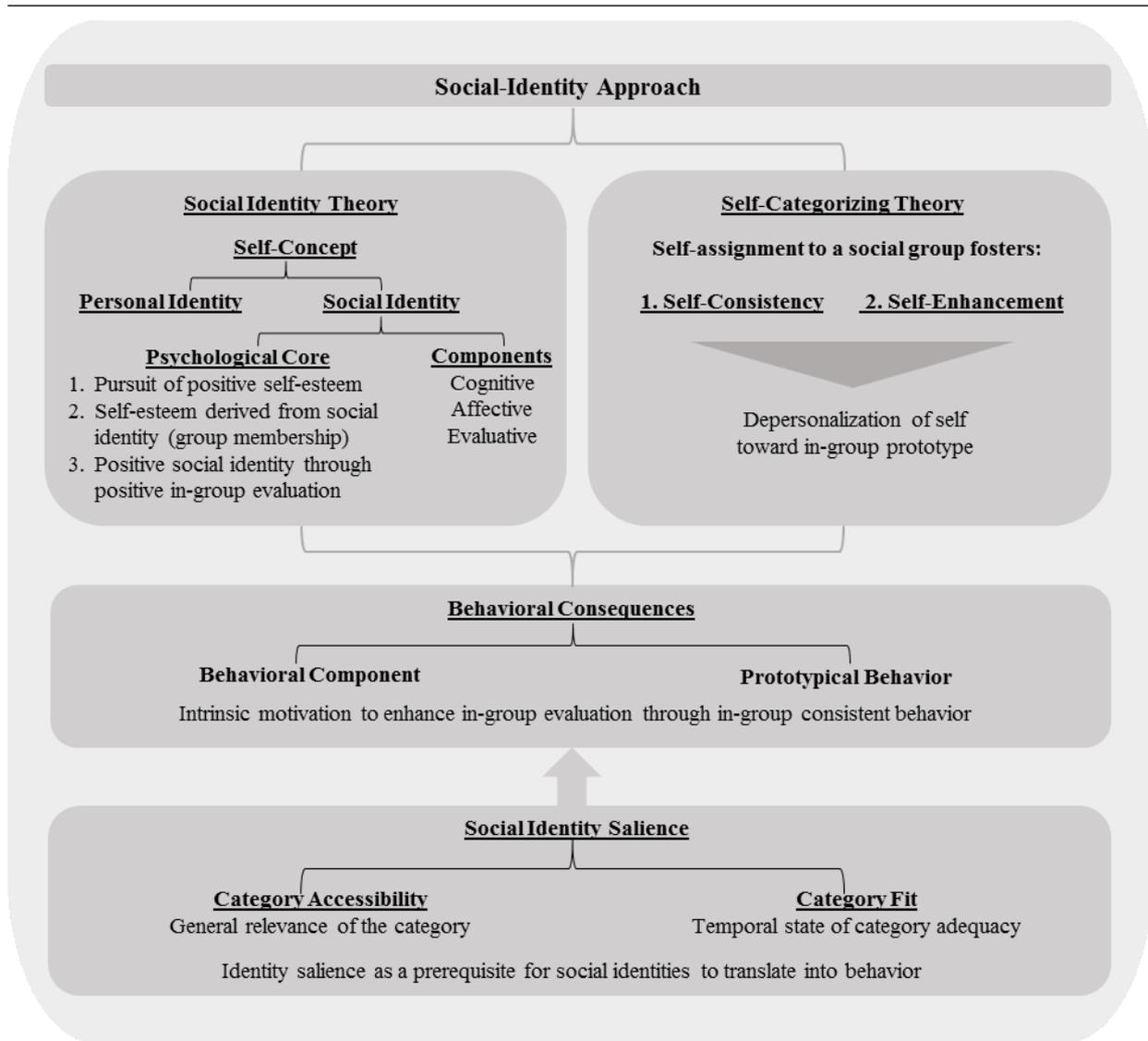
Figure 5: **The Social Identity Approach**

Source: Author's Illustration.

2.4.3 Organizational Identification

The social identity approach has been transferred to organizational contexts, assuming that one of an individual's identities is the *organizational identity*, which is being derived from the membership in the employing organization (e.g., Ashforth and Mael 1989; Hogg and Terry 2000). This specific form of social identification is referred to as *organizational identification* (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 22). Organizational identification is defined as "the perception, the value, and the emotional significance of oneness with or belongingness to the organization" (Wieseke *et al.* 2009, p. 124). It is important to note that additional work-related identification foci such as work-team identification or job identification exist (cf. van Knippenberg *et al.* 2000). However, this study focuses on the organization as the focal group for frontline employees' self-categorization and on resulting group behaviors (i.e., brand-building behaviors) on the organizational level. In line with the identity-matching principle, stronger correlations for identification and potential outcomes are suggested, if both are directed at the same focus (Ashforth *et al.* 2008, p. 353; Ullrich *et al.* 2007, p. 30). Employee behaviors during the service encounter like the ones addressed in this study (customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and emotional labor), serve organizational goals and therefore the organizational identity should represent the most decisive driver.

Strong associations of organizational identification with important organizational outcomes such as work motivation (e.g., van Knippenberg 2000), job satisfaction (e.g., Ashforth *et al.* 2008), turnover intentions (e.g., Ng 2015), sales performance (e.g., Rapp *et al.* 2015), citizenship behaviors (e.g., Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Ng 2015) or organization-based self-esteem (Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Bowden 2002; Shamir and Kark 2004) have been stated in several cross-sectional studies.

Understanding the importance of social identity processes in organizations, researchers have started to view employees' organizational identification as a focal point of interest for service marketing and internal branding research (e.g., Baron, *et al.* 2009; Homburg *et al.* 2009; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009). It has been stated that by communicating corporate values and missions to their employees, organizations can create a distinct organizational identity that attracts and retains employees (Wieseke *et al.* 2009, p. 139). Thus, the

implementation of internal branding means qualifies the organization as an attractive group for self-categorization and fosters employees' level of identification with the organization and subsequent brand-building behaviors.

However, organizational identification does not necessarily translate into favorable employee behavior at any time. If and to which degree the organizational identity of an employee becomes operant and affects behavior is dependent on the prevalent degree of *organizational identity salience*. (van Dick *et al.* 2005, p. 274; Oakes *et al.* 1991, p. 125) This activation of organizational identity, as a specific category of the employees' self-concept, should not be seen as categorical (either salient or not salient), which has been the case in most research on organizational identities, but it is more realistically activated on an continuum reaching from no or little activation to full activation at a given point in time or for a given time episode (e.g., a work day) (van Dick *et al.* 2005, p. 275). In line with this, Oakes *et al.* (1991, p. 126) proposed social categories to be more salient when the social situation fits to the individual's expectations associated with the social category (fit) and when the social category is of relatively high importance to the individual (accessibility).

2.4.4 Between- and Within-Person Components of Organizational Identification

An employee's general level of organizational identification has been demonstrated to be relatively stable across time (e.g., Haslam et al. 2009, p. 21). In line with prevalent literature on disaggregated components of job attitudes (e.g., Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller 2012, p. 350) in the work at hand this stable facet is referred to as a *between-person* construct and will, consistent with prior research on this stable facet (e.g., Ashforth and Mael 1989), continuously be termed "organizational identification". Studies examining this stable general facet of organizational identification have predominantly used the well-established scale of Ashforth and Mael (1989) to assess the construct, which refers to employees' general degree of self-concept overlap with the organization (operationalized by items such as "This organization's successes are my successes"). Drawing on the social identity approach, it is assumed that the higher employees' organizational identification, the more relevant this part of the self-concept will be for the employees'

self-definition (cf. Turner and Tajfel 1986, p. 15). Consequently, the more accessible the respective identity category will be in general, the more likely employees will be to generally perform identity relevant behaviors.

However, the fact that most employees may maintain their general levels of organizational identification over time, does not contradict the notion that these employees may fluctuate in between measurements (e.g., days within a work week), assessing the degree to which the sense of organizational identity is actually experienced at the moment of measurement (or was experienced in a past time period, e.g., a week or day). In line with theory (cf. van Knippenberg *et al.* 2000; Oakes *et al.* 1991), this by definition more transient facet of identification in organizations will be termed "organizational identity salience" in the following, and referred to as a *within-person* construct in the dissertation at hand (cf. Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller 2012, p. 350). To depict short-term fluctuations within individuals, however, the established scale by Ashforth and Mael (1989) does not promise any success (cf. van Dick, 2015, p. 123). Due to the rather general character of formulations, the scale lacks the basis to depict short-term manifestations of momentarily experienced identification, i.e., organizational identity salience. A more promising scale doing justice to operationalization at the within-person level is exemplarily represented by the scale of Doosje *et al.* (1995). This scale, when reformulated for a momentary measurement occasion, assesses the immediate feeling of belongingness by incorporating items that own a more time variant character (e.g., "Today, I was glad to be part of the company I work for").

In line with the social identity approach, it is assumed that the level of organizational identity salience on a given day, i.e., the daily level of actually experienced organizational identification, can vary across different points in time (e.g., work days), and therefore the degree to which identity relevant behavior is performed fluctuates within individuals (cf. Oakes *et al.* 1991, p. 126). Consequently, depending on the average relevance of the organizational identity to an employee, quantifiable by their between-person level of organizational identification, their average or typical level of organizational identity salience should be affected (c.f. van Knippenberg 2000, p. 359). If an employee's organizational identity is generally more accessible, it will on average be rendered salient to a higher degree and generally higher levels of organizational identity salience will positively af-

fect average levels of organizational performance. However, if an employee experiences an above average level of organizational identity salience at a given time and experiences the exact same level of organizational identity salience at a given later point in time (e.g. a week, a month or a year later), this does not indicate whether or not the within-person variation of experienced organizational identity salience between these arbitrary points of measurement had an effect on behavioral outcomes (cf. Becker *et al.* 2013, p. 131). In line with that, prevalent, albeit conceptual research (cf. van Dick 2015, p. 121; Becker et al. 2013, p. 131) suggests that external contextual factors (e.g., the occurrence of daily work events) or internal psychological employee states (e.g., shifts in daily moods) on a given day could lead to within-person changes in work attitudes like affective commitment or identification.

While simple, these propositions on a dynamic conceptualization of the social identity approach in organizations are not trivial. Prior research has largely examined between-person effects of organizational identification while neglecting the necessity to employ statistical methods that differentiate within- from between-person outcomes. This goes along with Curran and Bauer (2011, p. 585), who state that the particular strength of studies measuring time-varying variables is the ability to disaggregate between-person and within-person effects in the regression of an outcome. By conceptually pointing to the disaggregation of between-person and within-person effects of organizational identification and empirically testing a stable and a time-variant component with regard to frontline employees' brand-building behaviors, the call of Curran and Bauer (2011) to apply hierarchical models (cf. section 4.3), separating multiple levels of analysis to new research contexts and theories (cf. p. 853) is answered. This is a matter of particular interest, as the strength as well as the direction of between- and within-person effects may well differ and the consideration of merely between-person effects can lead to faulty implications (Hoffman and Stawski 2009, pp. 97).

As stated above (cf. section 2.2), even short time intervals suffice to observe substantial variance in employees' behavior (cf. Dalal *et al.* 2014). This leads to the requirement to use within-person predictors when trying to explain employees' behavior because "a static variable cannot explain variance in a fluctuating one" (Becker et al. 2013, p. 131). In other words, the standard conceptualization and measurement of organizational identification as a static, between-person variable

insufficiently explains its effects on employee performance and, thus, leaves a research void to date.

To the author's knowledge, to this day there is no study on organizational identification that disaggregates between-person and within-person effects on behavioral employee outcomes. In the work at hand a first step to address this omission is taken. Disaggregated effects of organizational identification at the between-person level and organizational identity salience at the within-person level are linked to the previously introduced dimensions of frontline employees' brand-building behaviors (cf. section 2.3) and empirically examined in the service context (chapter 5 and 6). Thereby, the particular importance of organizational identification in previous internal branding literature on these performance dimensions (cf. section 2.1) is acknowledged and a deeper understanding of the structure and underlying mechanisms of the constructs on between- and within-person level, highly relevant for science on organizational behavior and for service marketing practice, is provided. Existing literature informing on within-person components of identification will be reviewed in more detail in chapter 3.

Acknowledging the importance of self-esteem as an underlying motive for social identification in the social identity approach, and more particularly the construct of organization-based self-esteem in the context of organizational identification, this construct at the between- and within-person level is related to within-person organizational identity salience in study 2 of this work. To ensure a detailed understanding of self-esteem in the organizational context, the construct of organization-based self-esteem will be formally introduced in the following section and theorizing on self-esteem will be outlined.

2.5 Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is "an attitude of approval or disapproval of self; […] it indicates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, reflecting a personal judgement of worthiness" (Pierce et al. 1989, p. 625). In the work at hand, the organizational identity relevant facet of self-esteem, namely organization-based self-esteem will be examined (Epstein 1979, p. 1123; Pierce et al. 1989, p. 623). Organization-based self-esteem was introduced by Pierce et al. (1989) who define it "as the degree to which organizational members believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of an organization. […] Thus, organization-based self-esteem reflects the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as organization members acting within an organization context" (p. 625). Employees with high organization-based self-esteem (between-person level) consider their value for the organization to be high and have a strong believe in their capability to exhibit required behaviors (Pierce et al. 1989, p. 625 and p. 631). Conversely, employees with low organization-based self-esteem experience stronger self-concept confusion leading to uncertainty about their competences and organizational worth (Becker, Ullrich, and van Dick 2013, p. 140; Korman 1976, p. 56). Additional to the differentiation of employees by their between-person level of organization-based self-esteem as a stable trait-like characteristic, previous literature suggests that self-esteem and facets of self-esteem like organization-based self-esteem, do significantly vary within-persons as well and therefore possess a state-like within-person component (Heppner *et al.* 2008; Kernis 2005; Nezlek and Plesko 2001; Nezlek and Plesko 2003; Savin-Williams and Demo 1983). A literature overview on studies approaching self-esteem from a within-person perspective is presented in **Table 56** in Appendix A.

Self-Esteem Regulation

Two regulation-strategies of organization-based self-esteem, namely *self-consistency* and *self-enhancement*, are prevalent in literature, explaining why individuals engage or refrain from self-esteem relevant behaviors. *Self-consistency theory* was introduced by Korman (1966), who suggested that people "engage in those behavioral roles that will maximize their sense of cognitive balance or consistency" (p. 479). He further proposed that "individuals will be motivated to perform on a task or job in a manner which is consistent with the self-image with which they approach the task or job situation" (Korman 1970, p. 32). Deductively,

employees who hold a positive image of themselves, i.e., have high levels of organization-based self-esteem, will have work attitudes and behave in a manner that strengthens that favorable image, while the opposite is true for employees with a negative image of themselves (Pierce and Gardner 2004, p. 595; Korman 1966, p. 479). *Self-enhancement theory*, on the other hand, provides an alternative explanation for the links between organization-based self-esteem and desirable organizational outcomes. It suggests that all people have a basic need to enhance self-evaluation, regardless of their self-esteem level. (Dipboye 1977, p. 110) This does not affect the idea of self-consistency theory that employees high on organization-based self-esteem exhibit strong behavioral effort to enhance their positive self-evaluations (Pierce et al. 1989, p. 630). However, for employees with low levels of organization-based self-esteem, self-enhancement theory suggests that they will engage in "damage control" and withhold effort in order to avoid further degradation of their organization-based self-esteem by not succeeding to perform in the way it is expected of them (Dipboye 1977, p. 110; Pierce and Gardner 2004, p. 595). This allows them to trace back performance failure to the lack of effort rather than their inferior competences and therefore prevent further erosion of their self-esteem (Campbell 1990, p. 703).

Behavioral plasticity

Brockner and Guare (1983) and Brockner (1988) provided a framework based on the concept of *behavioral plasticity* for understanding the role of self-esteem in employees' role perception and associated employee responses. Behavioral plasticity theory refers to the extent to which individuals are affected by and are behaviorally malleable through contextual cues and consequently adapt their attitudes and behaviors accordingly (Pierce *et al.* 1993, p. 273) with a particular focus on the moderating role of individuals' self-esteem level in this relationship (Ferris *et al.* 2009, p. 1346). Particularly, the degree of an individual's reactivity to those cues is partly caused by this individual's level of self-esteem, with lower levels of self-esteem enhancing the individual's reactivity to external cues and higher levels of self-esteem buffering against these external factors (Ferris *et al.* 2009, p. 1346). Vital for these theoretical propositions is that a low self-esteem likely goes along with increased uncertainty about one's own sentiments, an increased need for social acceptance and an increased tendency to generalize negative feedback in one dimension to a broader sense of oneself (Pierce *et al.* 1993, p. 274). In an organizational context, the applicability of behavioral plastic theory has, for

instance, been shown in the relationships of role conflict and role ambiguity with performance and satisfaction (Pierce *et al.* 1993), strain (Grandey and Cropanzano 1999)or distress (Jex and Elacqua 1999), where individuals' low self-esteem enhances while individuals' high self-esteem attenuates the respective unfavorable effects (Ferris *et al.* 2009, p. 1346).

In this chapter, all conceptual and theoretical foundations that build the basis for the empirical studies 1 and 2 of this work have been exposed. In the following chapter, a detailed review of prevalent empirical literature with regard to frontline employees' brand-building behaviors at the between-person level as well as conceptual and empirical literature hinting on within-person variation in frontline employee performance and group identification will be presented. The summary of relevant literature will allow for classification of this work in previous streams of research and help to reveal research gaps in earlier contributions, which are aimed to be filled by this work.

3 State of Empirical Literature in Relevant Research Areas

3.1 Proceeding and Scope of the Literature Review

The subsequent review on the current state of scientific literature on brand-building behaviors is narrowed down to the in-role brand-building behavior dimensions central to the dissertation at hand, i.e., customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and emotional labor, and mainly focusses on studies dealing with frontline employees (cf. section 2.3). The majority of related studies dealing with frontline employees' brand-building behaviors is based on cross-sectional data and therefore focuses on antecedents and consequences of these performance dimensions at the between-person level. In order to convey a profound understanding of factors predicting employee outcomes relevant to the dissertation at hand at the between-person level, this literature review is limited to antecedents of employees' brand-building performance, while studies on consequences are relinquished at this point. However, consequences of these behaviors for service brand success were outlined in chapter 2. The literature review gives a comprehensive overview of relevant research from the field of services marketing (e.g., Hall *et al.* 2015; Homburg *et al.* 2009; Jung *et al.* 2017), internal branding (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009), organizational citizenship behavior of frontline employees *(Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt et al.* 2005) and emotional labor (e.g., Gabriel *et al.* 2015; Grandey and Gabriel 2015; Ozcelik 2013; Pugh *et al.* 2011). An overview on these studies is provided in **Table 1**. In this context, next to influences of organizational and job conditions, the customer's role as well as effects of stable personality traits, the vital role of organizational identification as a between-person predictor of brand-building performance is emphasized and discussed.

Despite the growing interest in intra-individual variation of organizational performance levels in general, and the recognizable practical relevance of within-person varying brand-building performance levels at the customer interface in particular (cf. section 2.2), scientific literature involving within-person fluctuation in customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, to the knowledge of the author, is not existent at the time. Therefore, it seems appropriate to extend the literature review on within-person studies beyond the brand-building behaviors in focus, and to incorporate studies on other dimensions of service performance applying a

within-person approach. Consequently, a review of studies dealing with service performance (e.g., daily service work engagement or daily customer sabotage) varying within frontline employees is provided, which constitutes an overview of how far the dynamic performance perspective at all has entered literature on frontline employees' service performance. Unlike customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, within-person effects of emotional labor have been addressed in a number of studies and are therefore included in the review. All studies dealing with service performance at the within-person level are presented in **Table 2**. Finally, first studies that hint on social identification as a dynamic, within-person varying construct, either conceptualized as identity salience or as within-person identification, are reviewed and presented in **Table 3**. Because of the limited existence of these studies in the organizational context, in the literature review studies from different research contexts (e.g., schools, universities or healthcare) are incorporated.

The subsequent literature review is based on journal articles that have been advised by experts in the field and that have been published in journals of high rank according to the VHB JOURQUAL ranking for literature in the field of business economics and the SCImago Journal Rank (SJR) for psychological literature. The review emphasizes articles that have been categorized as A or A+ in the JOURQUAL 3.1 (JQ3) ranking or > 2 in the current (2015) SJR ranking. Contributions of high thematic relevance, ranked B or C in the JQ3 or respectively hold SJR scores < 2, have been included in the review likewise.

After the literature review has been provided and the important findings relevant to this study have been discussed, deficiencies of prior research and contributions of this dissertation to existing literature will be outlined. Additionally, because of the heterogeneity of the revised research fields, a synopsis of the literature inventory is presented in **Figure 6**, in order to ease the classification of the dissertation at hand in the overall context of the relevant literature streams. In the diagram all relevant research streams, i.e., the ones presented in this review as well as studies on within-person variation in organizational performance (other than service performance) and between-person outcomes of organizational identification (other than brand-building behaviors), both of which have been presented in the conceptual part of this work, are integrated and the literature gaps addressed in this study are exposed.

3.2 Studies on Between-Person Variation in Brand-Building Behaviors

In previous empirical work, several organizational and job conditions, as well as facets of customer behavior and employee traits have been demonstrated to foster customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior as well as engagement in emotional labor among frontline employees.

Organizational and Job Conditions

On the organizational level, favorable organizational justice perceptions were found to have an impact on employees' job satisfaction and their organizational commitment and thereby positively affect frontline employees' service delivery behavior and their brand-aligned external representations (Bettencourt *et al.* 2005). Moreover the absence of role stressors at work, namely role conflict and role ambiguity (Bettencourt and Brown 2003), as well as supervisor support and an adequate climate for service (Grizzle *et al.* 2009; Kelley 1992) were found to enhance customer-oriented behavior. In line with that, Yoo and Arnold (2015) state that job recourses (e.g., perceived organizational support) foster deep acting and withhold surface acting. They found job demands (e.g., perceived crowding) and job stressors (e.g., perceived job insecurity) to adversely affect these relationships. With regard to brand-congruent behavior, Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010) showed the influence of a brand-oriented corporate climate on service employees' internal brand commitment, on their internal brand knowledge and their brand involvement, resulting in overall high levels of behavioral internal brand equity. Furthermore, Henkel *et al.* (2007) documented that informal management practices, which disengage highly standardized task execution, and employee empowerment enable employees to behave in a brand-consistent manner. Moreover, leaders' role model behavior was shown to result in increased self-reported levels of retail banking employees' core value behaviors, mediated by employees' attitude towards the brand's core values (Thorbjørnsen and Supphellen 2011).

Customer Behavior

In addition to organizational conditions, several between-person studies have substantiated customer behavior as a source of influence on frontline-employees' customer-oriented behavior and their emotional labor. Specifically, Jung *et al.* (2017) documented among Korean salespeople in the insurance business that customer initiated interpersonal and informational justice in the service encounter had a positive effect on perceived employee-customer fit and employees' self-efficacy, which again lead to increased levels of customer-oriented behavior. In line with that, with regard to emotional labor[2], it was demonstrated on the one hand that call center and banking employees who perceive to be treated unfair by customers have a tendency to engage in surface acting while the level of deep acting remains unaffected (Grandey *et al.* 2004; Rupp *et al.* 2008; Sliter *et al.* 2010). On the other hand, Yoo and Arnold (2015) showed that if the customer participation level is perceived to be high, i.e. the interaction is perceived to be more favorable, this positively influences employees' customer-oriented attitude and promoted deep acting over surface acting. Other research in the call center context (in laboratory conditions) yields evidence that employees experience negative emotions and engage in both more surface acting and deep acting when dealing with a hostile customer (Goldberg and Grandey 2007; Rupp and Spencer 2006).

Personality Traits and Attitudes

With regard to employees' personality traits, Brown *et al.* (2002) provided evidence in the food service industry that service workers' emotional stability, agreeability, need for activity and conscientiousness account for major parts of the self-reported and supervisor-rated variance in customer-oriented performance of employees. With regard to emotional labor, studies from Diefendorff *et al.* (2005) and Kammeyer-Mueller *et al.* (2013) revealed a positive link between the personality traits extraversion, agreeableness and positive affectivity, on the one hand, and deep-acting and authentic displays, on the other hand. Neurotic individuals and individuals characterized by a negative affectivity, by contrast, were shown to more likely engage in surface acting (Kammeyer-Mueller *et al.* 2013). Moreover, complementing effects of other stable employee characteristics such as customer-oriented attitude (Grizzle *et al.* 2009; Stock and Hoyer 2005), commitment

---

[2] For a comprehensive overview of the concept of and literature on emotional labor see also Grandey and Gabriel 2015.

or emotional intelligence (Rozell *et al.* 2004) on customer-oriented behavior among different service organizations have been revealed. Similarly, employees' customer-oriented attitude was demonstrated to predict deep acting over surface acting, in general (Yoo and Arnold 2015), and in response to emotional requirements, in specific (Gabriel *et al.* 2015; Maneotis *et al.* 2014). Employees' emotional intelligence likewise not only increases deep acting but moreover attenuates surface acting (Mesmer-Magnus *et al.* 2012). The crucial role of individuals' emotional capacity in explaining deep acting over surface acting is also underlined by research indicating that emotional self-efficacy (Pugh *et al.* 2011) and emotional competence (Giardini and Frese 2006) are drivers of deep acting behavior. This generally suggest "that those who tend to hold a more positive image of themselves tend to use the more motivated approach rather than the more cynical approach" (Grandey and Gabriel 2015, p. 21.9). With regard to brand-congruent behavior, employees' attitude toward the brand's core values was found to predict their core-value behaviors (Ozcelik 2013; Thorbjørnsen and Supphellen 2011).

Organizational Identification

With regard to organizational identification, previous literature has provided first empirical support for the positive between-person relationship of organizational identification on employees' brand-building behaviors (Hall *et al.* 2015; Homburg *et al.* 2009; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009). In particular, Hall *et al.* (2015) documented in a business-to-business context that frontline employees' identification with the organization is partly driven by their perceptions of product or service quality and results in increased levels of customer orientation. Further, Homburg *et al.* (2009) provided evidence that an employee's organizational identification increased levels of customer-oriented behavior, resulting in increased levels of financial firm performance. They found that organizational identification even outperformed effects explained by the traditional satisfaction-based service-profit chain (cf. section 2.2). In addition, transformational leadership at the between-person level was documented to be a management practice that drives employees' relatedness to the brand community and internalization of the brand's values, which again foster in-role brand-building behaviors (Morhart *et al.* 2009). In line with that, Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos (2014) in their study among retail bank employees revealed that organizational identification motivates employees to evolve into brand champions and engage in associ-

ated brand behaviors, i.e., customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. Organizational identification in their study mediated the link between major outcomes of internal branding like brand knowledge, belief in the brand and employee brand-fit and in-role as well as extra-role brand-building behaviors. With respect to emotional labor, Mishra *et al.* (2012) documented the important role of organizational identification at the between-person level. In a study with pharmaceutical representatives in India, they found employees' perceived organizational prestige to directly affect their organizational identification, which subsequently fostered their typical engagement in deep acting. In contrast, reduced levels of organizational identification were related to increased levels of employees' surface acting. In line with that, Ozcelik (2013) reveals work goal incongruence between employees and their organization to be a driver of surface acting.

**Between-Person Studies on Customer-Oriented Behavior**

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Bettencourt and Brown	2003	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (A)	Customer-oriented boundary-spanning behavior: service delivery behavior, supervisor-rated	Role conflict, role ambiguity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment	Retail banking	• Role stressors (role conflict and role ambiguity) disable service delivery behaviors • This effect is mediated through reduced levels of job satisfaction and commitment
Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie	2005	Journal of Retailing (A)	Customer-oriented boundary-spanning be-havior: Service delivery behavior, supervisor-rated	Organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment	Retail banking	• Organizational justice perceptions drive service delivery behaviors • This effect is mediated through enhanced levels of job satisfaction and commitment
Brown et al.	2002	Journal of Marketing Research (A+)	Customer orientation performance, self-re-ported and supervisor-reported	Emotional stability, agreeability, need for activity, customer-oriented attitude, conscientiousness	Food service industry	• Large parts of between-person variance of customer-oriented performance are explained by employees' personality traits

Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Grizzle et al.	2009	Journal of Applied Psychology (A+)	Service workers' customer-oriented behavior, self-reported	Customer-oriented attitude, customer-oriented climate	Service	• Customer-oriented climate drives customer-oriented behavior in service units • Customer-oriented attitude positively affects customer-oriented behavior •Customer-oriented climate moderates the effect of customer-oriented attitude on customer-oriented behavior
Hall et al.	2015	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice (C)	Frontline employees' customer-oriented behavior	Product and service quality, organizational identification	Service (B2B)	• Employees' organizational identification is driven by perceived product/service quality and results in increased levels of customer-oriented behavior
Homburg, Wieseke, and Hoyer	2009	Journal of Marketing (A+)	Frontline employees' customer-oriented behavior, self-report (mediator)	Employee job satisfaction, employee-company identification	Travel agencies	• Organizational identification drives employees' customer-oriented behavior • The social identity path outperforms the traditional satisfaction-based path of the service-profit chain
Jung, Brown and Zablah	2017	Journal of Business Research (B)	Frontline employees' customer-oriented behavior, self-reported	Customer interpersonal and informational justice, employee-customer-fit, employee self-efficacy	Salespeople from branches of an insurance company (Korea)	• Customer initiated justice positively affects customer oriented behaviors • This effect is mediated through employee-customer-fit and self-efficacy

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Kelley	1992	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (A)	Frontline employees' customer-oriented behavior, self-reported	Organizational socialization, organizational climate for service, organizational commitment, motivational effort	Financial institutions	• Organizational socialization as well as an adequate climate for service foster customer-oriented behavior • These effects are mediated by organizational commitment and motivational effort
Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos	2014	Journal of Service Research (A)	Frontline employees' customer-oriented behavior, self-reported	Outcomes of internal branding, perceived organizational support, organizational identification	Retail banking	• Organizational identification motivates employees to engage in customer-oriented behavior • Organizational identification is a mediator between brand-knowledge, belief in the brand and employee-brand fit and customer-oriented behavior
Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak	2009	Journal of Marketing (A+)	In-role brand-building behavior, self-reported	Transformational leadership, relatedness to brand community, internalization	Telecommunications (B2B)	• 'Transformational leadership fosters employees' in-role brand-building behaviors • This effect is mediated through the employees' relatedness to the brand community and their internalization of the brand's values
Rozell et al.	2004	Psychology and Marketing (B)	Customer-oriented selling behavior	Emotional intelligence and organizational commitment	Sales	• Emotional intelligent and organizationally committed employees engage in increased levels of customer-oriented selling compared to employees with lower between-person levels of these traits
						Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Stock and Hoyer	2005	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (A)	customer-oriented behavior, self-reported	Customer-oriented attitude; Moderation: empathy, reliability, expertise	Industrial goods, banking, insurance	• Customer-oriented attitude positively affects customer-oriented behavior • This effect is moderated by employees' empathy, reliability and expertise, with the effect being stronger for employees high on these traits
Between-Person Studies on Brand-Congruent Behavior						
Baumgarth and Schmidt	2010	Industrial Marketing Management (B)	Dimensions of internal brand equity: brand-consistent in-role behavior, self-reported	Brand orientation, internal brand commitment, internal brand knowledge, internal brand involvement	B2B	• Internal brand equity (employees' internal brand commitment, internal brand knowledge and brand involvement) is driven through brand-oriented corporate climate • Internal brand-equity fosters brand-consistent in-role behavior
Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie	2005	Journal of Retailing (A)	Customer-oriented boundary-spanning behavior: external representation, self-reported	Organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment	Retail banking	• Organizational justice perceptions drive external representation • This effect is mediated through enhanced levels of job satisfaction and commitment
Henkel et al.	2007	Journal of Product & Brand Management (C)	Brand-consistent employee behavior, self-reported	Formal and informal management control, employee empowerment	Consumer goods, service, industrial goods, retailing	• Informal management control and employee empowerment drive frontline employees' brand-consistent behavior

Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Löhndorf and Diamantopou-los	2014	Journal of Service Research (A)	Frontline employees' brand-congruent behavior, self-reported	Outcomes of internal branding, perceived organizational support, organizational identification	Retail banking	• Organizational identification motivates employees to engage in brand-congruent behavior • Organizational identification is a mediator between brand-knowledge, belief in the brand and employee-brand fit and brand-con-gruent behavior
Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak	2009	Journal of Marketing (A+)	In-role brand-building be-havior, self-reported	Transformational leadership, relatedness to brand community, internalization	Telecommuni-cations (B2B)	• Transformational leadership fos-ters employees' in-role brand-building behaviors • This effect is mediated through the employees' relatedness to the brand community and their inter-nalization of the brand's values
Thorbjrnsen and Supphellen	2011	Journal of Services Marketing (C)	Core-value behavior, self-reported	Attitude toward brand's core values, role model behavior, perceived organizational support	Retail banking	• Employees' core-value behavior is positively affected by favorable role model behavior, perceived or-ganizational support and an posi-tive attitude towards the brand's core values
Between-Person Studies on Emotion Regulation						
Diefendorf et al.	2005	Journal of Vocational Behavior (B)	Surface and deep acting	Agreeableness, extraversion, positive affectivity	Service	• Increased levels of deep acting and reduced levels of surface act-ing are conducted by employees high on agreeableness, extraver-sion and positive affectivity
						Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Gabriel et al.	2015	Journal of Applied Psychology (A)	Surface and deep acting	Customer-oriented attitude	Customer service industry	• Employees' customer-oriented attitude positively affects deep acting and negatively affects surface acting
Giardini and Frese	2006	Journal of Occupational Health Psychology (2.298)	Surface and deep acting	Emotional competence (peer-rated)	Clothing retail business	• Employees' emotional competence positively affects their engagement in deep acting and negatively affects surface acting
Goldberg and Grandey	2007	Journal of Occupational Health Psychology (2.298)	Surface and deep acting	Customer hostility	Call center simulation	• The experience of customer hostility fosters employees' surface acting and disables deep acting
Grandey et al.	2004	Journal of Organizational Behavior (A)	Surface and deep acting	Customer aggression	Call center	• Employees confronted with aggressive customer behavior, engage in deep acting and not surface acting
Kammeyer-Mueller et al.	2013	Personnel Psychology (A)	Surface and deep acting	Trait affectivity (positive affectivity, negative affectivity, neuroticism)	Service	• Increased between-person levels of deep acting are conducted by employees high on positive trait affectivity • Negative trait affectivity and neuroticism lead to increased levels of surface acting
Maneotis et al.	2014	Human Performance (0.954)	Surface and deep acting	Prosocial motives	Grocery stores	• Prosocial motives of employees foster deep acting over surface acting

Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Mesmer-Magnus et al.	2012	Organizational Psychology Review (not ranked)	Surface and deep acting	Emotional intelligence	Service	• Emotional intelligence of employees fosters deep acting and prevents their engagement in surface acting
Mishra et al.	2012	Journal of World Business (B)	Surface and deep acting	Prestige, organizational identification (mediator)	Pharmaceutical sales representatives (India)	• Organizational identification is driven by perceived organizational prestige • Organizational identification positively affects deep acting and disables surface acting
Ozcelik	2013	Journal of Organizational Behavior (A)	Surface and deep acting	Organizational and employee work-goal-congruence	Health-care service, high-tech service	• When employees and the organization pursue similar work-goals, employees to a larger extent engage in deep acting over surface acting
Pugh et al.	2011	Journal of Applied Psychology (A)	Surface and deep acting, employee well-being	Emotional self-efficacy	Employees with regular customer contact (market research firm)	• Employees with a high self-efficacy with regard to emotion regulation engage in deep acting and avoid surface acting
Rupp and Spencer	2006	Journal of Applied Psychology (A)	Surface and deep acting	Customer (in-)justice, discrete emotions (mediator)	Customer service representatives in a workplace simulation	• Exposure to hostile customers elicits surface acting and deep acting • This effect is mediated through discrete employee emotions

Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3/SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Rupp et al.	2008	Journal of Management (A)	Surface and deep acting	Customer (in-)justice, Mediator: anger	Banking	• Employees confronted with customer injustice more strongly engage in surface acting • Employees confronted with customer justice engage in increased levels of deep acting • These effects are mediated by employee anger
Sliter et al.	2010	Journal of Occupational Health Psychology (2.141)	Surface and deep acting	Customer incivility	Banking	• Customer incivility leads to increased levels of surface acting and reduces deep acting
Yoo and Arnold	2015	Journal of Service Research (A)	Surface and deep acting	Job demands and resources, customer-oriented attitude	Banks and insurance companies	• Job resources like perceived organizational support or customer-oriented attitude foster deep acting and prevent surface acting • Job demands and stressors like perceived job insecurity foster surface acting and prevent deep acting

Note. SJR scores of > 2.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of A; SJR scores of < 2.0 and > 1.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of B; SJR scores < 1.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of C.

Table 1: **Between-Person Studies on Brand-Building Behaviors of Frontline Employees**

Source: Author's illustration.

3.3 Studies on Within-Person Variation in Frontline Employee Performance

It is noticeable that within-person variation in performance, down to this day, has been barely investigated in service contexts. A majority of within-person studies on frontline employees focused on the intra-individual management of emotions and emotional expressions toward customers (e.g., Pugh 2001; Grandey 2000). Aside from a few rare exceptions, which will be presented in the following, within-person variance in performance dimensions relevant to service company and service brand success has been widely neglected.

Service Performance
One of the first to test within-person fluctuation of service performance was Sonnentag (2003), demonstrating that day-levels of recovery positively related to public service employees' day-level work-engagement and their self-reported proactive behavior. In addition, Xanthopoulou *et al.* (2008) demonstrated that daily levels of colleague support, work-engagement and self-efficacy translated into flight attendants' self-reported daily in-role and extra-role service performance on the subsequent flight. In another study among service workers in a fast-food company, Xanthopoulou *et al.* (2009) provided evidence that daily levels of job resources (autonomy, coaching and team climate) and personal recourses (self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem and optimism) have an impact on daily levels of service employees' engagement. They were able to link daily employee self-reported engagement with supervisor-reported daily financial returns, demonstrating pronounced financial consequences of within-person variance in employee performance for service companies. In a recent study, Myrden and Kelloway (2015) connected daily levels of transformational leadership behaviors to daily employee job satisfaction and work engagement, which again were shown to affect relevant customer outcomes, such as daily customer satisfaction and loyalty intentions (cf. section 2.1.) This daily test of the service-profit chain (cf. Heskett *et al.* 1994) provides first evidence on the within-person dynamics of the associated links between employee behavior and customer outcomes. With regard to effects of customer behavior on within-person variance of service performance, in two call center studies it was demonstrated that on days when employees were mistreated by customers, employees increasingly ruminated, stated higher level of negative mood and systematically engaged in sabotaging behaviors in subsequent service encounters (Wang *et al.* 2011; Wang *et al.* 2013). Further, Rothbard

and Wilk (2011) found that call center employees varied in daily levels of self-reported and objectively coded affective display, coded levels of call productivity and call quality, depending on their mood at the start of the respective workday.

Emotional Labor: Consequences and Antecedents

Opposed to the neglect of intra-individual fluctuations in customer-oriented or brand-congruent behavior, literature on within-person variance in service employees' emotional labor has emerged after the turn of the millennium. Totterdell and Holman (2003) were among the first to examine variations of emotion regulation within frontline employees. In their study within-person levels of surface acting were related to decreases in employee performance and predicted withdrawal behaviors, while deep acting revealed no such effect. In line with that, Judge *et al.* (2009) detected considerable within-person variance in daily deep and surface acting of employees in different customer service roles. In their study, daily levels of deep and surface acting related to subsequent negative state affect and daily surface acting diminished daily job satisfaction and increased emotional exhaustion. Additional research confirmed positive within-person relationships between surface acting as well as surface acting variability and negative state affect, work withdrawal and exhaustion, manifesting the detrimental effects of surface acting on service quality (Scott and Barnes 2011; Scott *et al.* 2012). Beal *et al.* (2006) showed that deep acting lessened the influence of negative emotions on affective delivery, while surface acting had no such buffering effect. In addition to the effects of emotional labor on employee outcomes, Hulsheger *et al.* (2015) revealed that emotional labor evoked favorable customer outcomes. In their study, they examined daily variation in waiters' and taxi drivers' deep acting and detected a strong positive effect on customer tips.

Despite the fact that several authors have demonstrated within-person variance in emotional labor and important subsequent consequences (e.g., employee emotional exhaustion, affective delivery and customer tips), literature on antecedents of within-person variation of emotional labor is scarce to this day. However, the very few prevalent within-person studies on antecedents of emotional labor state that the daily motives of employees to regulate their emotions at work do vary (Grandey and Gabriel 2015, p. 21.9). Von Gilsa *et al.* (2014, p. 885) clustered potential motives into pleasure (employees regulate emotions because they seek

to improve their self and/or the relationship to work-related individuals), prevention (employees regulate their emotions in order to prevent challenging situations, such as arguments) and instrumental (employees regulate their emotions because it is perceived to be necessary to conform to organizational requirements). It is notable that only pleasure motives induced deep acting and reduced surface action, while increased surface acting could be observed on days when the prevention and the instrumental motive was prevalent (Von Gilsa *et al.* (2014, p. 892). Complementary to these findings, research from Totterdell and Holman (2003) indicates that unpleasant customers also impact employees emotional regulation by encouraging surface acting over deep acting, pointing out that surface acting solely addresses the goal to adhere to organizational requirements but that deep acting is required to address more intrinsic goals.

**Within-Person Studies on Service Performance**
Authors	**Year**	**Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)**	**Outcome Variables**	**Predictor Variables**	**Research Context**	**Relevant Findings**
Myrden and Kelloway	2015	Journal of Services Marketing (C)	Daily employee engagement, self-reported	Daily transformational leadership behaviors, daily job satisfaction, customer outcomes (quality perceptions, satisfaction, loyalty)	Service industry	• Evidence of the daily functioning of the service-profit chain • Daily transformational leadership results in daily levels of employees' job satisfaction, which leads to customers' daily quality perceptions, customer satisfaction and loyalty intentions
Rothbard and Wilk	2011	Academy of Management Journal (A+)	Daily performance (call productivity and call quality), coded by experts	Employee affective display (self-reported and coded) and employee affect subsequent to call (self-reported)	Call center	• Start-of-work day mood affects subsequent affective display as well as call productivity and quality
Sonnentag	2003	Journal of Applied Psychology (A+)	Daily service employee engagement, proactive behavior, self-reported	Day-level recovery	Public service	• Day-level recovery positively affects subsequent day-levels of work engagement and proactive behavior
*Table continues on the next page*

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Wang, Liao and Zhan	2011	Academy of Management Journal (A+)	Daily level of customer sabotage, self-reported	Daily level of customers' mistreatment	Call center	• On days when employees experienced increased levels of customer mistreatment, they more than usually engaged in customer sabotage behaviors
Wang et al.	2013	Journal of Applied Psychology (A+)	Employee rumination and negative mood in the morning, self-reported	Daily level of customers' mistreatment; Moderator: service rule commitment	Call center	• When employees experienced increased levels of customer mistreatment on one day, they more than usually ruminated and exhibited higher levels of negative mood than usually on the subsequent morning
Xanthopoulou et al.	2008	Journal of Occupational Health Psychology (2.298)	Daily in-role and extra-role service performance, self-reported	Within-person: colleague support, self-efficacy, work-engagement	Airline industry (flight attendants)	• Daily in-role and extra-role service performance is fostered by daily levels of colleague support, self-efficacy and work engagement
Xanthopoulou et al.	2009	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (B)	Daily service employee engagement, self-reported; Financial returns, supervisor-reported	Job resources (autonomy, coaching, team climate) and personal resources (self-efficacy, organization-base self-esteem, optimism)	Fast-food company (Greece)	• Daily levels of work-engagement and daily levels of financial returns are fostered by daily availability of job resources and personal resources

Table continues on the next page

					Research	
Authors	**Year**	**Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)**	**Outcome Variables**	**Predictor Variables**	**Research Context**	**Relevant Findings**
Beal et al.	2006	Journal of Applied Psychology (A)	Affective delivery	Negative emotions; surface and deep acting (moderators)	Sports	• Deep acting lessened the influence of negative affect on affective delivery •Surface acting did not moderate this effect
Gilsa et al.	2013	European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology (1.13)	Surface and deep acting	Daily motives for emotional labor: pleasure, prevention and instrumental motives	Service	• Pleasure motives are linked to deep acting, but less to surface acting • Prevention and instrumental motives are linked to surface act-ing, but not deep acting
Hülsheger et al.	2015	Journal of Applied Psychology (A)	Customer tips	Deep acting	Service (catering, taxi drivers, hairdressers)	• Daily levels of deep acting predict daily customer tips
Judge, Woolf, and Hurst	2009	Personnel Psychology (A)	Emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, state affect	Surface and deep acting	Customer service	• Daily surface and deep acting predict negative state affect • Surface acting predicts diminished job satisfaction and increased emotional exhaustion

Within-Person Studies on Emotional Labor header spans the table title.

	Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Scott and Barnes	2011	Academy of Management Journal (A+)	State affect, work withdrawal	Surface and deep acting; gender (moderator)	Transportation (bus drivers)	• Daily surface acting reduces positive affect and increases negative affect • Daily deep acting reduces negative affect and increases positive affect • Daily surface acting enhances work withdrawal • Within-person effects are stronger for women than men
Scott, Barnes, and Wagner	2012	Academy of Management Journal (A+)	State affect, work withdrawal	Variability in surface and deep acting	Transportation (bus drivers)	•Within-person variability in surface acting decreases job satisfaction and increases work withdrawal •Effects are stronger for individuals high on self-monitoring

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Research Context	Relevant Findings
Totterdell and Holman	2003	Journal of Occupational Health Psychology (2.141)	Surface and deep acting (mediator), service performance, withdrawal behavior	Positive and negative work events	Call center	•The occurrence of daily work events predicts intra-individual engagement in surface and deep acting •Both emotional labor strategies are used more in case of negative work events and less in case of positive work events •Surface acting predicts subsequent decreases in service performance and increases in withdrawal behavior

Note. SJR scores of > 2.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of A, SJR scores of < 2 and > 1 are equivalent to a JQR3 of B.

Table 2: **Within-Person Studies on Service Performance and Emotional Labor of Frontline Employees**

Source: Author's illustration.

3.4 Studies on Identity Salience and Within-Person Identification

Even though the dynamic character of organizational identity salience is inherent to the construct (cf. section 2.4) and has been stated by researchers decades ago (e.g., van Knippenberg 2000), earlier studies have addressed organizational identity salience mainly from a between-person perspective. Regarding the question how an organizational identity can be rendered salient, early research at the between-person level provided evidence for the influence of events at work, such as conflict or competition between work groups (e.g., Kramer 1991). Experimental and quasi-experimental approaches towards contextual variation in different work-related foci of identification, however assessed at the between-person level, were taken by van Dick *et al.* (2005) and Millward and Haslam (2013). Van Dick *et al.* (2005) experimentally rendered schoolteachers' career, school or occupational identity focus salient. Higher salience of the school membership resulted in higher levels of school identification and increased self-reported extra-role behaviors on behalf of the school. Similarly, in the study of Millward and Haslam (2013), three foci of identification, namely organizational, workgroup and career, could be rendered salient in different manipulated conditions depending on the between-person degree of identification (accessibility) and the context (fit). Both of these studies abundantly hint on within-person components of identity salience, even if analyzed at a between person level. However, conclusions on within-person relationships of identity salience cannot be drawn on that empirical basis.

Nascent studies, albeit a few, exploiting new statistical accomplishments and enhanced capabilities regarding the analysis of hierarchical data during the last decade (cf. Raudenbush and Bryk 2010, pp. 7), have examined intra-individually varying aspects of social identification. However, to this day, the consideration of within-person fluctuation in organizational identification has remained below the radar of organizational research and the importance of dynamic social identity processes in the organizational context has been widely neglected. An exception to this was constituted by Haslam *et al.* (2009), who investigated short-term fluctuations of theater staff identification with the theater they worked for over five production phases. Empirical analysis revealed that theater identification fluctuated across different measurement occasions. The amount of within-person variation of identification, namely identification instability, was found to be espe-

cially high for those who generally identified less with the theater and was empirically linked to diminished between-person levels of organizational citizenship behavior, work satisfaction and organizational pride as well as increased levels of burnout. Within-person effects of identification on the examined outcomes at different measurement occasions, however, were not considered by Haslam *et al.* (2009). Applying a similar logic of so-called trait instability, Becker *et al.* (2013) developed a theoretical model of intra-individual changes in work-group commitment, suggesting that commitment towards a work team does vary within persons (e.g., from day to day), as a function of situational and personal factors. The authors state that this dynamic perspective could be transferred to organizational identification accordingly (Becker *et al.* 2013), which, however, has been omitted by research to this day.

In a recent study, Ketturat *et al.* (2016) were the first to test intra-individual variation of social identification involving a hierarchical data base, accessing levels of identification and related constructs at different measurement occasions. In their study, university applicants for sport science were assigned to groups of approximately ten members. In this very constellation they had to carry out tests in various sport disciplines (e.g., basketball, badminton, and athletics) during an entire day. At five measurement occasions applicants had to answer questions with regard to their momentary level of group identification and subjective stress. Additionally, at four occasions objective stress levels were accessed by taking saliva samples and testing for cortisol levels. Findings at the within-person level revealed that when controlling for the overall day-level of identification, the respective level of identification at different measurement occasions predicted applicants' subjective and objective stress levels at that time during the day. Additionally, higher levels of within-person identification could be linked to higher levels of group support. Although this study examining identification with spontaneously formed groups, might differ from studies dealing with organizational identification among long-time employees, it is the first study to provide preliminary evidence on disaggregated effects of between-person and within-person components of social identification and, thus, supporting the rationale provided in the work at hand.

Subsumed, the presented results, stemming from surveys or experimental designs at the between-person level as well as from two very current studies based on

hierarchical data at both the between- and the within-person level, provide first empirical evidence that social identification does have a within-person varying component, either conceptualized as identity salience or within-person identification. Further, it becomes apparent that the disaggregation of between-person and within-person effects of identification in organizational contexts has been widely neglected in research to this day.

					Studies on Identity Salience and Within-Person Identification				

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Studied Context	Relevant Findings
Becker et al.	2013	Human Resource Management Review (B)	Employee performance, engagement, turnover (conceptual paper)	(In-)Stability of commitment and organizational identification	Organizations	• Commitment and organizational identification are conceptualized as within-person varying constructs
Van Knippenberg	2000	Journal of Applied Psychology (A+)	Work motivation, task performance, contextual performance (conceptual paper)	Organizational identity salience	Organizations	• Organizational identity salience is proposed to be a necessary contextual condition for identification to translate into behavior
Haslam, Jetten, and Waghorn	2009	Stress & Health (0.512)	Organizational citizenship behavior, work satisfaction, pride, burnout (between-person)	Identification (in-)stability	Theatre production teams	• Identification does significantly vary within persons • Identification instability is higher among low-identifiers • Identification stability does predict higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior, work satisfaction and pride • Identification instability predicts higher levels of burnout

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Outcome Variables	Predictor Variables	Studied Context	Relevant Findings
Ketturat et al.	2016	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (2.458)	Subjective and endocrinological stress reactions (disaggregation of between-person and within-person effects)	Momentary identification with sports team	University sports teams	• Between- and within-person effects of social identification can be disaggregated • Within-person identification predict subjective and endocrinological stress reactions • Between-person effects of identification on stress-levels were not supported
Kramer	1991	Journal of Organizational Behavior (A)	Organizational identity salience (between-person)	Work conflict, competition between work-groups	Organizations	• Employees experiencing work conflict or being confronted with competition between different work groups exhibit higher levels of organizational identity salience
Millward and Haslam	2013	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (B)	Salience of identification foci (organizational, workgroup, career) (experimental approach)	Identity accessibility and contextual fit	Healthcare	• Different foci of identification could be rendered salient as a function of identity accessibility and contextual fit
Van Dick et al.	2005	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (B)	Employee outcomes: extra-role behaviors (experimental approach)	Salience of work-related identities	Schools	• Increased levels of school identification enhanced the motivation to engage in extra-role behaviors on behalf of the school

Note. SJR scores of > 2.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of A; SJR scores of < 2.0 and > 1.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of B; SJR scores < 1.0 are equivalent to a JC3 ranking of C.

Table 3: **Studies on Identity Salience and Within-Person Identification**

Source: Author's illustration.

3.5 Deficiencies of Existing Literature and Contribution of the Present Work

The literature review presented above on frontline employees' brand-building behaviors, their intra-individual service performance and within-person (organizational) identification, has undoubtedly revealed blatant neglects by existing research in many regards. First, previous literature on brand-building behaviors of frontline employees has mainly focused on effects at the between-person level and differentiated between generally high performers and generally low performers (e.g., Grizzle *et al.* 2009; Morhart *et al.* 2009; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Rozell *et al.* 2004). At the same time, researchers have omitted to pay particular attention to the dynamic, within-person varying aspects of related performance outcomes, ignoring the academic and managerial relevance of this variance component as documented by research on related organizational performance outcomes (cf. Dalal *et al.* 2014). Only a very limited number of existing studies has pointed to within-person variance in service performance, examining performance outcomes like daily levels of work engagement (Sonnentag 2003; Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2008), in-role service performance in call centers (Rothbard and Wilk 2011), daily customer sabotage (Wang *et al.* 2011) and intra-individual patterns of emotion regulation (Beal *et al.* 2005; Totterdell and Holman 2003). Consequently, one aim of the dissertation at hand is to fill this gap by complementing research on intra-individual frontline employee performance and for the first time exploring within-person fluctuations in brand-building behaviors of frontline employees. To pursue this goal, systematic empirical investigations among frontline employees are conducted, examining the potential existence and volume of within-person variance in the related performance outcomes.

Second, in the scarce number of studies on intra-individual service performance, authors have oftentimes underpinned their reasoning with affective events theory (e.g., Rothbard and Wilk 2011) or job-recourse job-demand models (e.g., Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2008, 2009) in order to explain and theoretically substantiate the suggested relationships. While nascent studies on group identification have provided conceptual and empirical evidence on intra-individually varying aspects of the construct (e.g., Haslam *et al.* 2009; Ketturat *et al.* 2016), as depicted in the literature review above, this new perspective has not found its way into organizational research to this day. This omission is very crucial considering the outstanding academic and practical relevance of social identity processes in research on

employee performance in general (e.g., Rapp *et al.* 2015; Wieseke *et al.* 2009), and on frontline employees as brand representatives in particular (e.g., Homburg *et al.* 2009; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Mishra *et al.* 2012). Hence, in the work at hand a first step in adopting this within-person approach to organizational identification in the service context is taken, investigating short-time dynamics within frontline employees' organizational identity salience and related effects on their brand-building performance. To the knowledge of the author, study 1 and 2 of this work constitute the first empirical attempts 1) to disaggregate within-person and between-person components of organizational identification and examine separate effects on the brand-building behaviors of frontline employees and 2) to examine interactional effects of stable and intra-individually varying facts of organizational identification. This procedure responds to the call of Chen and Bliese (2005, p. 376) for integration of analogous constructs across different levels of analysis in hierarchical data structures and for testing of isolated as well as interacting effects at these levels. By following this pioneering methodological approach, a more comprehensive understanding of the structure of organizational identification can be gained by taking an in-depth look at the unique and mutual relationships of different levels of analysis. Beneficial for both science and practice, a more accurate picture of underlying mechanisms suggested by the social identity approach in organizations can be drawn when considering not only between-person differences of organizational identification, but by additionally examining within-person effects that more precisely predict under which conditions, as a function of transient and stable factors, identification actually translates into behavior. Consequently, revealing potential within-person variation in organizational identity salience and understanding its patterns, can provide important insights for practitioners to implement management strategies that initiate identity related processes and drive intra-individual levels of performance beyond the mere consideration of high vs. low performance levels at the between-person level.

Third, as outlined in the conceptual section of this work (cf. section 2.5), previous literature on the social identity approach has stated the important role of self-esteem as a basic motive for individuals to enter social group memberships in the first place (cf. Tajfel 1981, p. 229). Accordingly, earlier studies have investigated organization-based self-esteem as an outcome of organizational identification at the between-person level (e.g., Bowden 2002; Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Shamir

and Kark 2004) (cf. **Figure 6** and section 2.4.3). However, prevalent research points to the instability of self-esteem within individuals (e.g., Heppner *et al.* 2008; Kernis 2005; Kernis *et al.* 2000; Nezlek and Plesko 2001, 2003), suggesting that individuals do not just defer in their general levels of self-esteem but also vary around their personal mean level of self-esteem across different points in time. Although self-esteem instability has been suggested to affect psychological functioning, in most research on organization-based self-esteem the construct has been assessed as stable over time neglecting intra-individual variation. One exception to this is documented by Xanthopoulou *et al.* (2009), who conceptualized daily varying levels of organization-based self-esteem as a personal resource for daily service performance (cf. **Table 56** in Appendix A). By assessing organization-based self-esteem on both levels of analysis, this work is among the first scientific works to assess intra-individually varying levels of the construct and gaining important insights into the effects of within-person organization-based self-esteem on the psychological functioning of frontline employees, valuable for both, science and practice. In particular, by approaching the underlying motive of self-esteem enhancement inherent to the social identity approach from a within-person perspective in the organizational context, in study 2 of this dissertation the relationship of intra-individually varying levels of organization-based self-esteem on the intra-individual level of organizational identity salience of service employees is addressed. This constitutes an innovative and pioneering step towards theory development of the social identity approach in organizations as research examining these constructs intra-individually and assuming causal directions from organization-based self-esteem toward identification is utterly new. By examining these relationships in a systematical study, a first empirical basis for subsequent studies to build on is advanced. Further, the isolated and interactional facets of organization-based self-esteem on both, the between and within-person level are taken into consideration, again following the call of Chen and Bliese (2005, p. 376) for integration of analogous constructs on different levels of analysis.

Not least, this dissertation contributes to internal branding literature by conceptualizing emotional labor as a dimension of brand building performance and pointing to the relevance of frontline employees' emotional display for successful service brands (cf. section 2.3). Daily levels of organizational identity salience are tested to predict daily engagement in emotional labor, therefore, study 2 of this

dissertation complements the scarce literature on intra-individual antecedents of emotional labor (e.g., Gilsa *et al.* 2013).

Concluding, the dissertation at hand provides potentially important insights for the examination of internal branding processes and related brand-building performance outcomes of frontline-employees by 1) conceptually pointing to the need of taking a dynamic perspective on brand-building employee performance and empirically complementing traditional cross-sectional studies in this area on customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, 2) advancing scarce literature on within-person antecedents of emotional labor conceptualized as a brand-building performance dimension in this dissertation, 3) contributing to both theoretical and empirical literature on the social identity approach in organizational contexts by conceptually depicting and empirically testing a multi-level approach on frontline employees' organizational identification, 4) for the first time integrating intra-individual variation of organization-based self-esteem as an antecedent of within-person varying organizational identity salience, and 5) addressing why some frontline-employees fluctuate more than others with regard to brand-building behaviors and organizational identity salience by taking into account between-person variables (organization-based self-esteem and organizational identification) predicting both individuals' average levels and their individual magnitude of within-person effects.

In **Figure 6** the positioning of the work at hand within the respective different research streams and relevant previous empirical contributions is presented. Literature on between-person employee outcomes of organizational identification and within-person variation in in-role and contextual job performance have been introduced in chapter 2 as part of the conceptual foundations of this work. The integration of these literature streams in the depicted synopsis serves the classification of this work in the overall context of all relevant literature streams.

Brand-Building Behaviors of Frontline Employees at the Between-Person Level

Organizational Identification and Employee Outcomes at the Between-Person Level

Predictors of Customer-Oriented Behavior
- SPC (Employee Satisfaction, Loyalty): e.g., Heskett et al. 1994; Loveman 1998
- Work Attitudes (e.g. Commitment, CO): e.g., Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzier 2005; Griuule et al. 2009; Kelly 1992
- Emotional Intelligence: e.g., Rozell, Pettjohn, and Parker 2004
- Customer-Oriented Climate: Grizzle et al. 2009
- Employee-Customer Fit: Jung et al. 2017

Predictors of Emotional Labor
- Affectivity: e.g., Kammeyer-Mueller et al. 2013; Spencer and Rupp 2009
- Customer-Oriented Attitude: e.g., Gabriel et al. 2015
- Display Rules and Customer Behavior: e.g., Grandey et al. 2004; Rupp et al. 2008.
- Emotional Intelligence: e.g., Joseph and Newman 2010
- Perceived External Prestige: Miahra et al. 2012

Predictors of Brand-Congruent Behavior
- Work Attitudes (e.g., Brand Attitude, Commitment): e.g., Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2009; Thorbjornsen and Supphellen 2011
- Brand Knowledge: e.g., Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010

Organizational Identification and Brand-Building Behaviors
- Identfication and the SPC: Homburg, Wieseke, and Hoyer 2009
- Brand-Building Beahavior: Hall et al. 2016; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Wieseke et al. 2007/2009
- Emotion Regulation: Miahra et al. 2012

Employee Outomces of Organizational Identification
- Meta Analysis: Riketta 2005
- Turnover: e.g., Ng. 2015
- Work Motivation: e.g., Van Knippenberg and Van Schie 2000
- Citizenship Behavior: e.g.; Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Ng 2015.
- Sales Performance: Rapp et al. 2015
- Organization-Based Self-Esteem: e.g., Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Bowden 2002; Shamir & Kark 2004

This Study

Within-Person Variation in Frontline Employee Performance
- Daily Test of the Service-Profit-Chain: Myrden and Kelloway 2015
- Call Productivity and Quality: Rothbard and Wilk 2011
- Customer Sabotage: Wang, Liao and Zhan 2011
- Work Engagement: Sonnentag 2003; Xanthopoulou et al. 2008/2009
- Emotional Labor: e.g., Beal et al. 2006; Huang, 2015; Scott and Barnes 2011; Totterdell and Holman 2003

Identity Salience and Within-Person Variation in Identification
- Salience of Work-Related Identification Foci: Kramer 1991; Millward and Haslam 2013; Van Dick et al. 2005; Van Knippenberg 2000
- Stability of Identification: Haslam et al, 2009
- Momentary Identification with Sports Teams: Ketturat et al. 2015

Within-Person Variation in In-Role Job Performance
- Task Performance: e.g., Binnewies, Sonnentag, and Mojza 2009; Minbashian and Luppino 2014; Miner and Glomb, 2010
- Sales Performance: e.g., Stewart and Nandkeolyar 2006

Within-Person Variation in Contextual Performance
- Organizational Citizenship Behavior: e.g., Bolino Harvey, and Bachrach 2012; Binnewies, Sonnentag, and Mojza 2009; ; Ilies, Scott, and Judge 2006
- Creativity: e.g., Amabile et al. 2005; Binnewies and Wörnlein, 2010
- Innovative Performance: e.g., Zacher and Wilden 2014

Variation of Performance at the Within-Person Level

Figure 6: **Positioning of this Work within Relevant Research Streams**

Source: Author's Illustration.

4 Methodological Foundations of the Quantitative Investigation

4.1 Foundations of Experience Sampling Methods

In both of the quantitative studies conducted in this work, within-person processes are examined implementing *experience sampling methodology* (ESM). Therefore, in this section a short overview of the conceptual and application-related basis of ESM is provided. Additionally, a short review of advantages and challenges in the use of ESM compared to traditional cross-sectional designs is given.

In recent years, ESM and related techniques, also referred to as ecological momentary assessment (Beal and Weiss 2003), everyday experience sampling methods (Reis and Gable 2000), or daily diary methods (Bolger *et al.* 2003), have received growing attention in organizational research. The primary objective of ESM is to "measure a representative *scope of experiences* as close to the moment they occur in their natural environment" (Beal 2015, p. 384). Thus, via ESM increased levels of external validity compared to laboratory experiments or other artificial research environments are accomplished. Typically, experience sampling designs consist of intensive repeated assessments with brief measurement intervals extending from minutes or hours to a day.

There is a close link between ESM and the conceptual perspective of within-person research (cf. Dalal *et al.* 2014; Beal and Weiss 2003). The basic idea of this perspective is that numerous psychological phenomena of interest for organizational research are not consistent attributes of people, but rather are more or less common *sequences* (e.g., daily or hourly) of incidents and coherent reactions that become manifest within each person's stream of experience. In order to examine recent research issues, it is fundamental to describe these *within-person* processes, particularly since *within-* and *between-person* effects do not necessarily work into the same direction and understanding when and how both levels differ is crucial for a comprehensive understanding of organizational matters. (Beal 2015, p. 386) In recent years, ESM studies have been conducted in several areas of organizational research (e.g., affective events (Beal and Ghandour 2011), emotional labor (Judge *et al.* 2009; Totterdell and Holman 2003), work engagement (Sonnentag 2003), contextual and task performance (Dalal *et al.* 2009; Trougakos *et al.* 2015), or work recovery (Binnewies *et al.* 2010; Sonnentag 2001)), to investigate within-

person dynamics. Much of the research using ESM exclusively focus on the momentum of specific variables or psychological processes, following up on the detection of within-person variance (Beal 2015, p. 387). However, an additional emphasis of ESM research is also put on differences among individuals. More specifically, studying how a within-person effect changes depending on a specific stable trait (cross-level interaction) has gained prominence over the past decade (e.g., Taylor *et al.* 2015; Illies *et al.* 2006). In this case, stable traits (e.g., conscientiousness) are measured with help of established scales either before or after the study's ESM phase. The data obtained is then again used to predict the intra-individual effect (Beal 2015, p. 387).

Its recent increase in popularity is also due to a range of advantages ESM offers in contrast to more traditional survey techniques (e.g., cross-sectional designs) as discussed by Beal (2015), Beal and Weiss (2003) or Bolger *et al.* (2003). It is a limitation of traditional methods that all measures are at least to some extent a result of the subjects' mental aggregation (Beal 2015, pp. 386 ff). These aggregations can be interwoven with different sources of information, e.g., by the personality of the participant or other aspects of semantic memory rather than episodic memory (Robinson and Clore 2002, pp. 937 f). Consequently, with increasing time distance (and aggregation), participants' responses are rather based on typical events or participants expectations about events as stored in their semantic memory than based on actual events in the recent past which are stored in their episodic memory. Indeed, experience sampled data are aggregated over the pre-assigned time intervals as well, therefore representing mental aggregation nevertheless. However, consensus among researchers is that the timely proximity of the aggregation to the event or experience in question is an almost accurate representation and (Beal 2015, p. 387). Thus, ESM studies still account for the most important aspects of an individual's ongoing life based on episodic memory, even if reports of the aggregations within intervals will not be entirely the same as an average of immediate experiences. Moreover, experience sampling designs can help to attenuate common method bias, typically associated with research based on survey data exclusively (cf. Podsakoff *et al.* 2012; Podsakoff *et al.* 2003). In ESM it is common to investigate relationships between constructs that are not measured at the same point in time (Beal 2015, p. 387). Due to this disjuncture in time, respondents are hardly able to recall their response from previous measurements for a given scale, resulting in a reduced probability that subjects respond in

a consistent way or due to a temporary affective condition which, in turn, would create method effects (Podsakoff *et al.* 2012, pp. 544 f). Its fragmentation of within- and between-person variance provides another advantage of ESM, as this reduces same source bias (Beal 2015, p. 389), since many same source biases, usually occurring in studies employing self-report measures, pertain to comparisons between persons. One common example is the bias of self-enhancement (cf. Mabe and West 1982), i.e., individuals overrate desirable behaviors while underrating undesirable behaviors, leading to inflated correlations across different measures assessed in the same individual. In an ESM design, presupposed correct partitioning of the within-persons model (i.e., centered within-person; cf. Enders and Tofighi 2007), this and any other person-level bias will be essentially eliminated from this part of the model. Beyond this, it is noteworthy that technological progress has eliminated the barriers to employ ESM studies which are now "as easy to conduct as other online studies" (Beal 2015, p. 389).

However, there are some serious drawbacks of ESM studies (Beal 2015, pp. 390 f) that have to be noted. Because in ESM studies participants typically assess the same constructs repeatedly within relatively short time intervals, participant burden and fatigue can impede data collection (i.e., decreased response rates, flawed responses, anticipation of the presented items). Furthermore, previous research has indicated that the mere presence of a diary questionnaire can have an impact on participants' way of thinking about the constructs in question and, accordingly, on their response behavior. Keeping these unique features of ESM in mind, it is advisable for researchers to always carefully compromise between, on the one hand, increasing the quantity of measurement occasions in their ESM study therefore reducing mental aggregation effects, and, on the other hand, provoking participant fatigue and burden when employing ESM.

4.2 Foundations of Construct Measurement and Quality Assessment

At the very beginning of any empirical examination, an extensive inspection of the reliability and validity of all latent constructs included in the research model should be undertaken. This inspection should be conducted in order to verify an adequate fitting of the measurement model. To ensure a common understanding of the correct procedure with regard to reliability and validity testing, the foundations of construct measurement and quality assessment are outlined in the subsequent section.

Reliability and Validity
Reliability, on the one hand, is defined as the absence of a *random error* source in the variation of a measure (e.g., situational factors or varying degrees of a respondent's concentration), validity, on the other hand, relates to the absence of a *systematic error* source in the measurement (e.g., halo effects or social desirability bias) and therefore assesses the conceptual accuracy of the measure (Churchill 1979, p. 65). Deductively, a valid measure will always be reliable, whereas the contrary does not inevitably apply (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 127). Validity constitutes one of the key prerequisites for a high quality measurement model, indicating that the measures de facto assess what they tend to asses (cf. Cook and Campbell 1979). This again is an important requirement for the generalizability of study results (Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 118) and for the correct estimation of model coefficients (Bagozzi *et al.* 1991, p. 421; Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 128).

A two-step procedure to test the goodness of fit of the respective measurement model is recommended by Weiber and Mühlhaus (2014) for reflective measurements.[3] The authors suggest to commence with an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) first, and pursue with a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Adducted criteria in an EFA are generally denoted as first generation methods (cf. Fornell 1982). These criteria assess the dimensionality of a latent construct (uni- vs. multidimensional), but are somewhat restrictive at the same time. EFA criteria are

---

[3] The measures included in the study are reflective measures without exception, therefore an elaboration of the differences between reflective and formative constructs as well as of the goodness of fit assessment for formative constructs is not needed at this point (see Weiber and Mühlhaus (2014, p. 262).

solely grounded on correlations, and do not capture measurement errors nor include inference statistical tests. Overall, related judgements depend on broad rules of thumb and not on reliability theory and further are based on rather restrictive assumptions (Gerbing and Anderson 1988, pp. 190; Hildebrandt and Temme 2006, pp. 624). However, the assessment of unidimensionality of a construct is a key requirement of any reliability test (Gerbing and Anderson 1988, p. 186). Hence, the conduction of an EFA is appropriate. Based on the EFA results, a CFA should be run in order to test and assess the by EFA predefined relations between the observed indicators and the related unobserved latent constructs (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 142). CFA is superior to EFA by testing reliability and validity with inference statistical tests and thereby allowing to assess the goodness of fit of the factor model. Additionally, CFA provides an assessment for the global measurement model, as well as for partial model structures (Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 122). Therefore criteria used in a CFA are frequently termed second generation methods (cf. Fornell 1982). In order to depict the theoretically derived relationships between the indicators and the particular constructs adequately, all latent constructs in the research model should be included in the EFA and CFA simultaneously (Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 123).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Following the recommendations of Weiber and Mühlhaus (2014, p. 133), the EFA should be conducted by using *principal axis analysis* as this procedure differentiates the indicator variances according to their commonalities and their specific single remaining variance. Thus, the assumptions that there is some measurement error in the model and that correlations between the indicators are due to the extracted factors and not the other way around (reflective constructs), are met. The Kaiser criterion indicates the number of extracted factors, stating that the number of eigenvalues greater than 1 corresponds to the number of extracted factors (Kaiser 1974, p. 31). Whenever it can be assumed that there is a certain level of correlation between the factors, *oblique-angled Promax Rotation* should be selected as the rotation method.[4]

To begin with, the *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion* (KMO) should satisfy the endorsed thresholds of .8 (Kaiser 1970, p. 405) or .6 (Kaiser and Rice 1974, p. 111),

---

[4] For a discussion on different rotation methods in greater detail see Mulaik (2010, p. 272).

alternatively. The KMO indicates that a factor analysis is appropriate for the given data set (Backhaus *et al.* 2016, p. 342). This threshold constitutes the best obtainable indicator for testing the correlation matrix and its adequacy for EFA, and therefore its inspection is suggested before conducting any type of factor analysis (Dziuban and Shirkey 1974, p. 360; Stewart 1981, p. 57).

An additional indicator of relevance for the sample appropriateness is *Bartlett's Test of Sphericity* (Dziuban and Shirkey 1974, p. 358). Applying this test, the null hypothesis of uncorrelatedness of all variables in the population (i.e., the correlation matrix is randomly different from the unit matrix) is examined. In the case of a significant test statistic, the rejection of the null hypothesis is highly recommendable and correlation of the variables in the population can be assumed. Under these circumstances, a factor analysis would be reasonable (Backhaus *et al.* 2016, p. 341). Lastly, the theoretically expected factor solution should be supported by the EFA and a substantial amount of variance in the data ($\geq 50\%$) should be explained (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 144).

One of the most popular and frequently used measures of internal consistency and reliability is *Cronbach's Alpha* (Churchill 1979, p. 68). The constructs included in the final model should exceed the recommended threshold of .7 (Nunnally 1978, p. 245). However, other authors consider results of .6 to be acceptable values for Cronbach's Alpha (Robinson *et al.* 1991, p. 13).

A measure of selectivity of the indicators is represented by the *Corrected-Item-to-Total Correlations* (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 139). These correlations should exceed the recommended limit of .5 (Shimp and Sharma 1987, p. 282; Zaichkowsky 1985, p. 343).

Moreover, the report of the *Measure of Sampling Adequacy* (MSA) should be considered. As a disaggregated form of the KMO, MSA can be interpreted in a similar manner, with the difference that the MSA is calculated for each isolated indicator (Brosius and Brosius, p. 823). The MSA values should exceed the recommended threshold of .5 (Kaiser and Rice 1974, p. 111), and insufficient indicators not exceeding the threshold should be eliminated from the measurement model.

EFA results meeting all standards stated above, suggest that the measures of the latent constructs are sufficiently reliable. As stated before, however, the EFA applies first generation methods which are constrained with regard to measuring reliability and validity (cf. Bagozzi *et al.* 1991; Bagozzi and Phillips 1982; Fornell 1982). Therefore, an EFA should be followed by a CFA, considering the exploratory insights obtained by the EFA and incorporating conclusions based on theory (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 142).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Neither an explicit integration of potential measurement errors nor a statistical test of validity of the measurement model can be provided by EFA discussed so far (cf. Jöreskog 1967; Jöreskog 1969; Jöreskog 1970; Jöreskog 1971a; Jöreskog 1971b). To compensate for these shortcomings, a CFA should be conducted, again for all latent constructs simultaneously.

In advance of the empirical examination of the constructs, *face validity* of each construct has to be ensured (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 157). *Face validity* describes the content-related fit of the measure to its construct (Cronbach and Meehl 1955, p. 282). There is no statistical test for *face validity*, therefore it is usually judged by experts. In research, where all measures have been adopted from previously conducted studies, *face validity* can be assumed (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 142).

The empirical notion of *construct validity*, i.e., a construct does indeed measure what it aims to measure, can be assessed in a CFA by examining its three sub-dimensions, namely *convergent*, *discriminant* and *nomological validity* (Peter 1981, p. 135). *Convergent validity,* on the one hand, refers to the degree to which two or more indicators of the same construct match while being grounded on the prerequisite that indicators of one and the same factor should be highly correlated (Bagozzi and Phillips 1982, p. 468). *Discriminant validity*, on the other hand, is defined as the distinctiveness between measurements of different constructs and bears on the assumption that indicators of distinct factors should be only marginally correlated (Bagozzi and Phillips 1982, p. 469). Lastly, *nomological validity* represents the extent to which the relationships between multiple constructs are supportable within a broader theoretical context, a so-called nomological network (Bagozzi 1979, p. 23; Campbell 1960, p. 547; Hildebrandt 1984, p. 42; Weiber

and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 161). Hence, *nomological validity* will implicitly be tested in the hypotheses testing section (sections 5.4 and 6.4).

In **Figure 7**, an overview of all indices applied in this study is given.
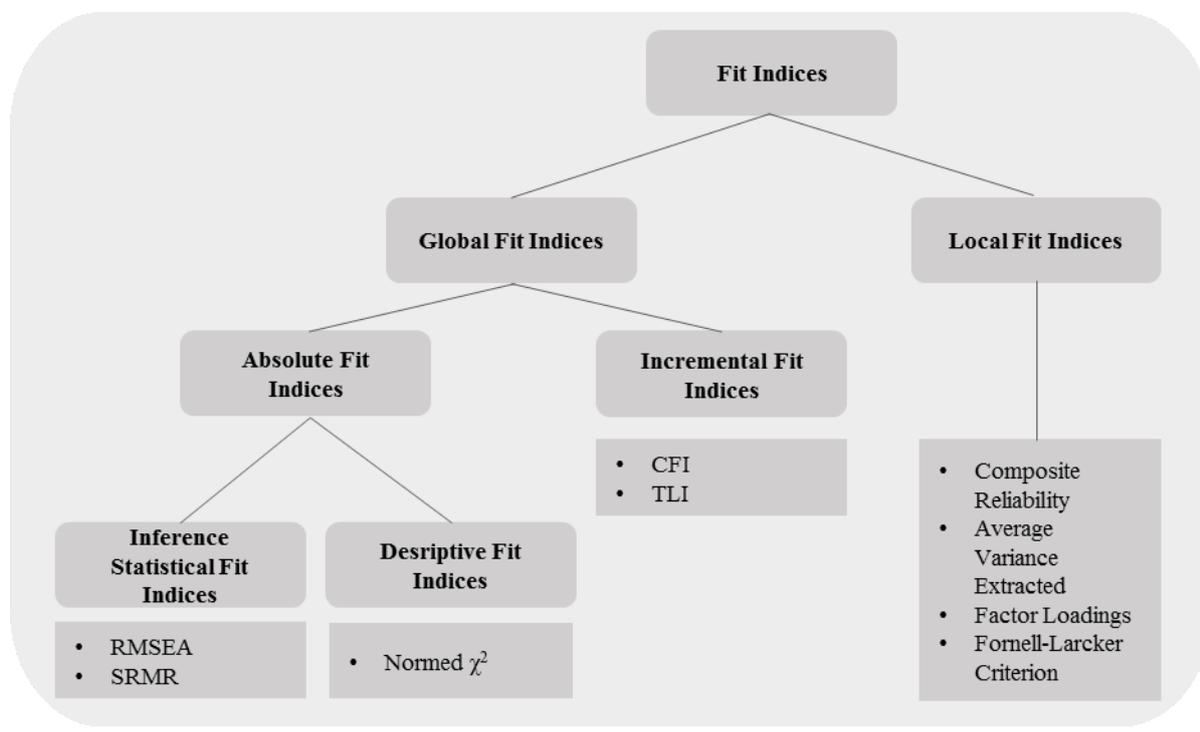
Figure 7:   **Selected Fit Indices in Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

Source: Author's illustration, adapted from Homburg and Baumgartner 1995, p. 165.

The local fit indices on the right side in **Figure 7** can be used to assess *convergent* and *discriminant validity* (Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 122). To start with, all *factor loadings* should exceed the threshold of .4 and be significant at a 1% level, suggesting the rejection of the null hypothesis assuming factor loadings equal 0 in the population (Anderson and Gerbing 1993, p. 2; Bagozzi *et al.* 1991, p. 434; Hildebrandt 1984, p. 46; Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 124). Furthermore, *composite reliability* of all constructs should exceed the limit of .6, identifying the indicators as adequate measures for the respective constructs (Bagozzi and Baumgartner 1994, p. 402). Moreover, the *average variance extracted* (AVE) should surpass the suggested threshold of .5 (cf. Bagozzi and Yi 1988; Bagozzi and Baumgartner 1994). In the case of values exceeding these recommended limits, *convergent validity* in the study is presumable.

Discriminant validity can be examined applying the widely accepted *Fornell-Larcker Criterion* (Fornell and Larcker 1981). This criterion demands the AVE of each factor to exceed the squared correlation of this factor with any other factor (Fornell and Larcker 1981, p. 46). *Discriminant validity* can be assumed, provided accomplishment of this criterion for every factor. Additionally, CFA facilitates a test of the *global fit* of the measurement model, an overall evaluation of the degree to which the model fits the actual data (Homburg and Baumgartner 1995, p. 162). The respective measures are depicted in **Figure 7** on the left side. To assess the global fit of a given model with the data at hand, absolute fit indices, i.e. *descriptive* and *inference statistical fit-indices*, and *incremental fit-indices* can be inspected (cf. Homburg and Baumgartner 1995).

The *normed χ^2 value* represents a descriptive fit index and results from the division of the value of the χ^2-test statistic by the degrees of freedom. Frequently it is recommended that this ratio should remain below the value of 2.5 (Homburg and Baumgartner 1995, p. 172), while others require an even more rigorous threshold of 2.0 (Byrne 1989, p. 55).With regard to the inference statistical fit-indices, the *Root Mean Square Error of Approximation* (RMSEA) is a meaningful index examining the models approximation to reality (Steiger 1990, p. 173). Whereas a RMSEA $\leq$ .05 represents a close model fit, a value of $\leq$ .08 is deemed to depict a reasonable model fit; values above 0.1 are considered inacceptable representing an insufficient model fit (Browne and Cudeck 1993, p. 136). Lastly, as for the inference statistical fit indices the *Standardized Root Mean Square Residual* (SRMR) (cf. Bentler 1995; Jöreskog and Sörbom 1981) has become a standard index, with values close to 0 indicating that the empirical covariances are equal to the model-theoretical ones (Weston and Gore Jr. 2006, p. 742). The cutoff value is .10 (cf. Bentler 1995), again with some researchers recommending a stricter threshold of .05 (Homburg *et al.* 2008, p. 88). Two important incremental fit-indices should be considered in addition to the absolute fit-indices discussed above. Firstly, the *Comparative Fit Index* (CFI) relates the goodness of fit of the specified model to the fit of a fully unrestricted null model (not specifying any relationships among the constructs) (Bentler 1990, p. 238). Values above .9 are considered good and indicate an excellent model fit. The *Tucker Lewis Index* (TLI) (also Nonnormed Fit Index) should be interpreted accordingly, likewise exceeding a threshold of .9 (Bollen 1989, p. 273). In contrast to the CFI, the TLI compensates for the effect of model complexity (Hu and Bentler 1998, p. 428).

4.3 Foundations of Two-Level Hierarchical Linear Modeling

Because two-level hierarchical linear modeling concerning continuous outcome variables provides the statistical basis of the work at hand, in the consecutive section the underlying concept of this analytical procedure will be elucidated. The aims of this section are to clarify the meaning of the basic parameters found in two-level hierarchical linear modeling, to provide a short overview on centering decisions and associated consequences for the interpretation of results, to briefly introduce the statistical theory that substantiates inference tests for these models and to set forth the concomitant assessment of model adequacy. Given the relatively scarce theoretical literature on two-level hierarchical linear modeling, the following sections largely rely on the work of Raudenbush and Bryk (2002), Hofmann (1997) and Woltman *et al.* (2012).

4.3.1 The Logic of Two-Level Hierarchical Linear Modeling

Hierarchical linear modeling is appropriate for the commonly occurring phenomenon of hierarchical data structures. Usually, individuals exist within organized structures, for instance families, universities, companies, religions, etc. Typical research fields involving hierarchical data structures, exemplarily, are organizational studies investigating workers and firms as units in the analysis, or cross-national studies examining data on both, the country and the household level. (Hox 2002, p. 786; Osborne 2000, p. 1; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, pp. 3) One of the less obvious types of hierarchical structures, as applicable in this work, are repeated-measurement data (cf. Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 3). In this case of application, multiple observations are gathered over time on a set of persons, e.g., by implementing ESM (cf. section 4.1), in order to analyze intra-individual change. Formally, multiple observations on each individual are viewed as nested within the person and therefore hierarchical (Osborne 2000, p. 1; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 3). In the dissertation at hand, level 1 of the hierarchical linear model will be referred to as the within-person level (observations of the same variable at different points in time within the same individual), level 2 as the between-person level (personal traits assessed from distinct individuals). Generally, in a two-level hierarchical linear model dependent variables are measured at level 1, independent variables can be measured at both level 1

and level 2. The hierarchical data structure is statistically accounted for by separate estimation of relationships between data at level 1, and an additional inclusion of relationships of the level-2 data on the intercept of the level-1 outcome variable or on the level-1 relationships. (Hofmann 1997, p. 728)

Researchers examining hierarchical data structures are faced with several challenges for analysis, which can favorably be circumvented by the application of hierarchical linear modeling. Exemplarily, hierarchical linear models take the nested structure of data into account and require fewer assumptions to be met than other statistical methods. (Hofmann 1997, pp. 723; Osborne 2000, p. 1; Woltman *et al.* 2012, pp. 52) Moreover, the method provides reasonable results even in challenging data structures, such as when non-independence of data points, missing data, otherwise critically small or unequal sample sizes among groups of interest or a lack of homogeneity of variance in repeated measures is given (Hofmann 1997, p. 726). A further statistical advantage of hierarchical linear modeling is to formulate and test hypotheses about relationships between different levels (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, pp. 8 f). For instance, in organizational research effects of workplace characteristics might influence effects on the employee level. In studies on intra-individual change, hypotheses about effects of stable traits at the between-person level (level 2) on the relationships of within-person effects (level 1) can be tested (cf. section 4.1). Such cross-level effects are common in behavioral and social research, and this modeling framework provides a significant advance over traditional methods (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 8).

4.3.2 Basic Model Parameters

Formally, there are $i = 1,\ldots, n_j$ level-1 units nested within $j = 1,\ldots, J$ level-2 units (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 36).[5]

Generally formulated, the simple two-level model equations are:

Level-1 $Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}X_{ij} + r_{ij}$
Level-2 $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}W_j + u_{0j}$

---

[5] In this work, applying a repeated measurement design, level-1 units are conceptualized as measurement occasion i nested within the higher-level unit conceptualized as person j.

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}W_j + u_{1j.}$$

The general model equation in combined form (mixed model) is:

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}X_{ij} + \gamma_{01}W_j + \gamma_{11}X_{ij}W_j + u_{0j} + u_{1j}X_{ij} + r_{ij,}$$

where it is assumed:

$$E(r_{ij}) = 0, \qquad Var(r_{ij}) = \sigma^2$$

$$E\begin{bmatrix} u_{0j} \\ u_{1j} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Var\begin{bmatrix} u_{0j} \\ u_{1j} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tau_{00} & \tau_{01} \\ \tau_{10} & \tau_{11} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{T}.$$

$$Cov(u_{0j}, r_{ij}) = Cov(u_{ij,} r_{ij}) = 0$$

The errors r_{ij} are the level-1 random effects and the errors u_{0j} and u_{1j} are level-2 random effects. Moreover, $Var(r_{ij})$ is the level-1 variance, and $Var(u_{0j})$, $Var(u_{1j})$, and $Cov(u_{0j}, u_{1j})$ are the level-2 variance-covariance components. The β parameters in the level-1 model are level-1 predictors and the γ parameters are the level-2 predictors.

In the level-2 models, the γ parameters (level-2 predictors) serve as independent variables, while the β parameters (level-1 regression coefficients β0j and β1j) serve as dependent variables. Since these models help to understand variability across different groups, they are also termed between-unit models in the literature. The two error terms u0j and u1j are unique features of the hierarchical linear modeling equation compared to a traditional regression. The combined form of the model equation includes a cross-level term and the composite error in addition to the level-1 and level-2 predictors. Since it is characteristic for this model to incorporate fixed as well as random effects, it also described as a mixed model in the literature. (cf. Gill 2003; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 57)

Given a single level-1 predictor, X_{ij}, and a single level-2 predictor, W_j, the equations present the simplest example of a full hierarchical model. When certain sets of terms in this model are set equal to zero, a set of simpler models results (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 23). In the following the submodels of interest for this work, running from the simpler to the more complex, are illustrated in more detail.

a) One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects

In its most simple form, a hierarchical linear model is nothing else than a one-way ANOVA including random effects. In this case, β_{1j} in the level-1 model is fixed at a value of zero for all j (Hofmann 1997, p. 732; Hox 2002, p. 787; Raudenbusch *et al.*, p. 23):

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij.}$$

where a normal distribution of each level-1 error term r_{ij} is assumed (mean $= 0$, variance $= \sigma^2$).

The level-2 model for the one-way ANOVA with random effects is:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j},$$

with
$\gamma_{00} =$ grand-mean outcome in the population
$u_{0j} =$ random effect related to unit j (mean $= 0$, variance $= \sigma^2$)

The combined model is:

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j} + r_{ij.}$$

In hierarchical data analysis, the estimation of a one-way ANOVA model is a reasonable initial step in order to estimate point estimates and confidence intervals for γ_{00} (grand mean), on the one hand, and to gather information about the variability of the dependent variables at both levels, on the other hand. While the within-group variability is depicted by the σ^2 parameter, between group variability is represented by the τ_{00} parameter. Since no predictors are specified at either level 1 or 2, this hierarchical model is fully *unconditional.* Using the level 1 and level variability parameters of the unconditional model, the *intraclass correlation coefficient* can be calculated. (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 24) This coefficient is given by the following formula and represents the amount of variance at the level-2 level (Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 59):

$$ICC = \rho = \tau_{00/ (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2)}.$$

b) Intercepts-as-Outcomes Regression

Another prominent application of hierarchical linear modeling is when group characteristics are used to predict the intercepts (i.e., between-person means) of different groups, in the simplest case by one level-1 predictor (Hofmann 1997, p. 735; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 24 f; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 60).

This submodel in the combined form is:

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} W_j + u_{0j} + r_{ij.}$$

with
$$u_{0j} = \beta_{0j} - \gamma_{00} - \gamma_{01} W_j.$$

The variance in u_{0j} now equals the conditional variance in β_{0j} when controlled for W_j.

c) Random-Coefficients Regression Model

In research with hierarchical data, level-1 slopes are oftentimes assumed to vary randomly across level-2 units. The random-coefficients regression model represents the most basic model with both level-1 intercepts and level-1 slope(s) varying randomly. The level-1 model equals the full model equation. Both γ_{01} and γ_{11} are constrained to be null thus the level-2 model still represents a simplified model compared to the full model. (Hofmann 1997, p. 733; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 26)

Consequently, the level-2 model becomes:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j,}$$
$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + u_{1j,}$$

with

γ_{00} = average intercept across the level-2 units;
γ_{10} = average regression slope across the level-2 units;
u_{0j} = unique increment to the intercept associated with level-2 unit j;
u_{1j} = unique increment to the slope associated with level-2 unit j.

The unconditional level-2 model holds the following variance-covariance matrix:

$$\mathrm{Var}\begin{bmatrix} u_{0j} \\ u_{ij} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tau_{00} & \tau_{01} \\ \tau_{10} & \tau_{11} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{T},$$

with

$$\mathrm{Var}(u_{0j}) \quad = \tau_{00} \quad = \text{unconditional variance in level-1 intercepts;}$$
$$\mathrm{Var}(u_{1j}) \quad = \tau_{11} \quad = \text{unconditional variance in level-1 slopes;}$$
$$\mathrm{Cov}(u_{0j}, u_{1j}) = \tau_{01} \quad = \text{unconditional covariance between the level-1}$$
$$\text{intercepts and slopes.}$$

The combined model yields in:

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(X_{ij} - X_{.j}) + u_{0j} + u_{1j}(X_{ij}-X_{.j}) + r_{ij}.$$

d) Intercepts- and Slopes-as-Outcomes

While in the previous model, variance in the intercepts and slopes at level 2 were predicted, the intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model aims at modeling this variability. Assuming one level 1 predictor, X_{ij}, and one level-2 predictor, W_j, employing the "full model" seems reasonable. (Hofmann 1997, p. 735; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 27).[6]

4.3.3 Centering of Level-1 and Level-2 Predictors

As with all quantitative research, in hierarchical linear modeling, as well, the meaning of the measured constructs need to be unequivocal and precisely match the underlying theoretical concepts in order to produce robust findings and sound implications. A specific feature of hierarchical linear modeling is, however, that intercepts and slopes at one level (i.e. level-1) represent outcome variables at the other level (i.e. level-2), stressing the necessity of a clear understanding of their meaning even more. (Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 121; Hofmann 1997, p. 737) Therefore, it is important to understand that the meaning and interpretation of the level-1 intercept is dependent upon the location of the regression coefficients (Xs)

---

[6] The "full model" can be expanded by more than one predictor at either level if necessary (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 29).

at level 1 (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 31). It is presumed that the Xs are measured on an interval scale.

Location of the Xs

There are four common possibilities for the location of X with different implications for β_{0j} (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 32):

(1) X_{ij} in the natural metric (as assessed) $\beta_{0j} = E(Y_{ij}|X_{ij} = 0)$

(2) $(X_{ij} - X_{..})$ called grand-mean centering $\beta_{0j} = \mu_{Yj} - \beta_{1j}(X_{ij} - X_{..})$
     (i.e., adjusted level 2-means)

In this case the intercept, β_{0j}, represents the outcome of a subject whose observed score on X_{ij} *ex*actly equals the grand mean, $X_{..}$. The intercepts resulting from grand-mean centering thus can be interpreted as an adjusted mean for group j.

(3) $(X_{ij} - X_{.j})$ called group-mean centering $\beta_{0j} = \mu_{Yj}$ (i.e., level-2 means)

In this case the intercept, β_{0j} can be interpreted as the unadjusted mean for group j.

(4) X_{ij} centered at some theoretically $\beta_{0j} = E(Y_{ij}|X_{ij} =$ chosen center-
chosen location for X ing location for X)

In general, reasonable choices of location depend on the aim of the research and the particular research question, thus no panacea for centering decisions exists (Hofmann and Gavin 1998, p. 638). It is important that choices of location in light of the research purpose and the interpretation of results are carefully considered (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 34).

Location of Ws

Similarly to the centering of the Xs, the intercepts in the level-2 model must be interpreted under consideration of the location of the W_j variables. However, the choice of location for the Ws is not as critical as for the level-1 predictors. All of

the γ coefficients can be easily interpreted whatever choice of metric is made for level-2 predictors. Nevertheless, it is often convenient to center all of the level-2 predictors around their corresponding grand means, for example, $W_{1j} - W_{1.}$. (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 35)

As stated above, there is no single rule that covers all cases. However, some rules of thumb for sensible centering decisions are suggested by Enders and Tofighi (2007): (1) Group mean centering is "the most appropriate form of centering in situations in which the primary substantive interest involves a level 1 (i.e., person level) predictor" (Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 128); (2) Grand mean centering is "ideally suited" when "primary substantive interest is on a level 2 […] predictor variable" and the level 1 influences are only controlled for (Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 128); (3) Grand mean and group mean centering are equally suited if a relationship between two variables is examined at both levels; (Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 132); (4) Group mean centering is appropriate if a cross-level interaction involving multiple level-1 variables is of substantive interest, while grand mean centering is preferable when an interaction between multiple level-2 variables is focused on (Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 132).

4.3.4 Principles of Estimation and Hypothesis Testing

Altogether, in two-level hierarchical linear modeling three types of parameters are estimated (Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 58). Fixed effects, not varying across groups, are depicted by the first type of parameter represented by γ_{00}, γ_{01}, γ_{11} and γ_{10}. Due to varying accuracy of level-1 parameters across groups and therefore violation of the homoscedasticity assumption in hierarchical linear models, the Ordinary Least Squares approach is not an appropriate estimation strategy for hierarchical data. Instead, the technique of Generalized Least Squared estimate is employed. The weighted Generalized Least Squared level-2 regression ascertains that groups with more accurate estimates of both intercepts and slopes of the outcome variable, are incorporated with larger weights in the level-2 regression equation.[7] (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 38; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 58) Random level-1 coefficients, i.e. β_{0j} and β_{1j}, are the second type of parameters and are allowed to vary among different groups (e.g., individuals), as opposed to the fixed effects

---

[7] For further information on the estimation of fixed effects see Raudenbush & Bryk (2002).

(Woltman et al. 2012, p. 58). The estimates of this type of parameters for a respective group are provided by, first, executing an Ordinary Least Squares regression on the level-1 model and, second, the prediction of the level-2 coefficients β_{0j} and β_{1j} (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 45 ff). Superior to other approaches, in hierarchical linear modeling an empirical Bayes estimation strategy (cf. Morris 1983) is applied, taking into account both techniques and calculating an optimally weighted combination of the two. By employing this procedure, a smaller mean square error is obtained and the level-1 coefficient estimates are, consequently, most accurate. [8] (Woltman et al. 2012, p. 58). Finally, the variance-covariance estimates depict the third type of parameters and must be differentiated into, first, the covariance between level-2 residuals, second, the variance of the level-1 residuals and, third, the variance of the level-2 residuals (Hofmann 1997, p. 729; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 51 ff.; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 58). In the likely case of unbalanced designs, (i.e. unequal sample sizes and heterogeneous distribution of level-1 predictors across groups), the estimates for the variance-covariance components are calculated with help of iterative numerical procedures Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 58). Specifically, Raudenbush and Bryk (2002, p. 52) consider full and restricted maximum likelihood, as well as Bayes estimation as feasible procedures to estimate efficient coefficients.[9]

Hypothesis Tests
In hierarchical linear models, hypotheses may be formulated and tested about the fixed effects, the random level-1 coefficients, and the variance-covariance parameters via single- or multi-parameter tests (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 57). An overview of the different forms of hypothesis tests available are presented in **Table 4**.

---

[8] For a detailed discussion on empirical Bayes estimation readers are directed to Carlin and Louis (1996).

[9] Readers are directed to chapters 13 and 14 in Raudenbush & Bryk (2002) for a more detailed discussion on estimation theory.

Type of Hypothesis	Fixed Effect	Random Level-1 Coefficient	Variance Component
Single-parameter	t ratio	t ratio	univariate χ^2 ratio
Multi-parameter	general linear hypothesis test	general linear hypothesis test	likelihood-ratio test (χ^2)

Table 4: **Common Hypothesis Tests for Hierarchical Models**

Source: Author's illustration, adapted from Raudenbusch and Bryk, p. 58.

To test hypotheses about the fixed effects, a t-test can be calculated. The typical null hypothesis assumes that the fixed effect at level 1 is zero. Therefore, the t-test assesses whether the parameters differ significantly from zero. (Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 60) To compare two nested models regarding their model-fit, the multi-parameter likelihood-ratio test is a common approach. In the case of fixed effects, this χ^2 test is available under Full Maximum Likelihood estimation only. It is based on estimating and comparing results from two models. The unrestricted or null model excludes the fixed effects hypothesized to be null. The subsequent restricted model estimates all effects, i.e., those hypothesized to be null as well as any other effects in the model. For each model, a deviance statistic can be calculated. The difference between the computed deviance statistics is adducted for the multivariate hypothesis test. The deviance statistic is a measure of model fit, where a higher deviance indicates a poorer model fit. (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, pp. 57)

The deviance D_0 is computed for the null model, which is twice the negative log-likelihood:

$$D_0 = -2\log(L_0),$$

with
L_0 = value of the likelihood related to the maximum likelihood estimates under the null hypotheses

Similarly, D_1 represents the deviance of the maximum likelihood estimates computed under the alternative model:

$$D_1 = -2\log(L_1),$$

Under the null hypothesis, the difference between both deviances,

$$D_0 - D_1,$$

asymptotically follows a large-sample χ^2 distribution with the difference in the number of parameters estimated defining the degrees of freedom. Large values of the statistic strongly indicate that the null hypothesis has to be rejected and that the null model is insufficient to describe the data.

Variance Explained – Pseudo-R^2
For hierarchical linear models, an index of the relative reduction in variance or variance explained at level 1 can be developed by comparing the σ^2 estimates from alternative models (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 60).

The formula to calculate the proportion of variance explained at level 1 is:

$$R^2_{\text{level-1 model}} = (\sigma^2_{\text{unrestricted. model}} - \sigma^2_{\text{restricted model}}) / \sigma^2_{\text{unrestricted model}}$$

Respectively, the index of the relative reduction in variance at level 2 comparing the τ_{00} estimated in the alternative models can be developed as follows:

$$R^2_{\text{level-2 intercept model}} = (\tau_{00 \text{ unrestricted model}} - \tau_{00 \text{ restricted model}}) / \tau_{00\text{unrestricted model}}$$

Usually the null model, i.e. the fully unrestricted model, provides an appropriate base when estimating R^2 because it represents the total level-1 and level-2 variances that can be explained by any level-1 or level-2 model.

4.3.5 Adequacy of Hierarchical Linear Models

In two-level hierarchical linear models, beyond two general assumptions of linear regression (1) + (2), specification assumptions apply at both levels (3) – (8). Both level 1 and level 2 have to be inspected carefully with regard to these assumptions as misspecification at one level can lead to biased results at the other level (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 252; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 57).

Assumptions of Linear Regression
First, the relationships between independent and dependent variables should be specified correctly (1). The bivariate relationships of independent and dependent variables in the model should be tested or visually inspected to ensure the correct specification of the form of the relationship, i.e., whether the relationship is a linear one. (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 252) The correct specification of the form of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable can be visually inspected by plotting independent and dependent variables against each other. An approximately linear trend should be recognizable in order to assume linearity. (Backhaus *et al.* 2016, p. 86; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 258)

Moreover, the assumption of no multicollinearity (2) in the model requires that there is no perfect linear relationship between the independent variables in the model (Field 2013, p. 220; Leeflang 2000, p. 347). High correlations between the included predictor variables (multicollinearity) would cause shared variance and would consequently decrease the ability to predict the respective dependent variable and impede the determination of the relative influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable (Hair 2010, p. 201; Leeflang 2000, p. 347). The regression coefficients would therefore be biased and unreliable (Wooldridge 2009, p. 95). One simple way to detect potential problems of multicollinearity is to examine the correlation matrix among the independent variables and check whether there are any correlations larger than .9 (Hair 2010, p. 200).

Specific Assumptions for a two-level HLM
In addition to the assumptions of general linear regressions, the following six assumptions apply for a two-level HLM at level 1, level 2 and across levels.

Formally, for a two-level HLM at level 1 the following assumptions apply (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255):

(3) Each error term r_{ij} is independent and follows a normal distribution (mean = 0, variance = σ^2) for each level-1 unit i across the level-2 units j.

(4) The level-1 predictors, X_{qij}, are independent of r_{ij}.

Assumptions (3) and (4) are inherent to the level-1 model and can to a certain extend be explored by examining the level-1 data and residuals. Assumption (3) refers to the normality dispersion, independence and homoscedasticity of level-1 residuals. Usually, the assumption that level-1 residuals are normally distributed (mean = 0, variance = σ^2) holds for level-1 models with continuous dependent variables (Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 56). For formal testing, the *Kolmogorov-Smirnov test* as well as the *Shapiro-Wilk test* allow for an examination of the residuals' distribution. For both tests, an insignificant test statistic supports the hypothesis that the residuals are normally distributed. Data can be tested by estimating separate probability plots for each group. (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96) In the case of a large number of groups, probability plots for residuals pooled across groups can be used (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 266). However, these tests are rather imprecise for larger samples and following the central limit theorem, it can be assumed that linear regressions with sample sizes of N ~ 40 or larger are robust against any deviation from a normal distribution of the residuals. For similar sample sizes, the statistical significance tests maintain their validity independent of the residuals' distribution and the assumption of normality is satisfied. (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96)

The assumption of independence of residuals is generally not likely to be fulfilled in repeated measurements designs (Hofmann 1997, p. 739), which is the case for the study at hand. However, if the hierarchical linear model does not strongly defer from the model estimated with robust standard errors, a possible misspecification of the residuals is not likely to bias the results (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 259; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280). Furthermore, it is postulated that the variance of the error term must not depend on the level of the respective predictor variable. This can be formally tested by computing the standardized measure of dispersion for each group. A low explanatory power indicates that

homoscedasticity can be assumed, while a high explanatory power suggests that the squared residuals are systematically related to the independent variables and heteroscedasticity is present. (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 263) This test is included in some software packages, e.g., HLM7 (Raudenbusch *et al.,* p. 55).

Assumption (4) relates to the problem of level-1 endogeneity occurring when the independent variables included in the model at level 1 correlate with the level-1 residuals of the regression (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). If a significant correlation of any independent variable at level 1 with the level-1 residual term can be detected, this variable is referred to as an endogenous explanatory variable and the model consequently suffers from endogeneity (at level 1) (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115). While a large body of research has arisen in the last two decades on how to identify (e.g., Kuksov and Villas-Boas 2008; Villas-Boas and Winer 1999) and correct for endogeneity (e.g., Antonakis *et al.* 2014), there is an overall consensus that as long as the independent variables are not correlated with the residuals, i.e., predictors inside the model do not correlate with any variable outside the model, endogeneity is not a problem and the estimates of the regressions coefficients can be assumed to be consistent (Antonakis *et al.* 2014, p. 99; Petrin and Train 2010, p. 4).

At level 2 of a two-level HLM the following has to be assumed (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255):

(5) The vectors of Q+1 random errors at level 2 follow a multivariate normal distribution (mean = 0, variance = τ_{qq}, covariance = $\tau_{qq'}$) and are independent across the level-2 units *J*.

(6) The level-2 predictors are independent of each u_{qj}.

Assumptions (5) and (6) regarding normality, independence and homoscedasticity of level-2 residuals (5) as well as level-2 endogeneity (6) are internal to the level-2 model and can, to some degree, be examined by inspecting level-2 data and residuals (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 256).

Assumption (5) refers to the distribution of the residuals at level 2 and requires that all error terms are normally distributed (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255).

Again, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test can be employed to test the residuals' distribution. For both tests, an insignificant test statistic supports the hypothesis that the residuals are normally distributed at level 2 (c.f. assumption (3)). (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96) Additionally, it is required that the residuals at level 2 are independent of each other, i.e., the level-2 error terms do not correlate significantly (Leeflang 2000, p. 332). This assumption pertains to a random autocorrelation (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 92; Wooldridge 2009, p. 350). A formal test for autocorrelation has been developed by Durbin and Watson (1951). The *Durbin-Watson Test Statistic* can assume values between 0 and 4 with values close to 0 indicating a positive correlation between the residuals, values close to 4 indicating a negative correlation between the residuals and values close to 2 suggesting that that the residuals are uncorrelated (Field 2013, p. 221; Leeflang 2000, p. 339).

Moreover, assumption (5) implies that the variance of the error term at level 2 must not depend on the level of the respective predictor variable. Though inappropriately assuming homogeneity would not bias level-2 coefficient estimates for the fixed effects, the estimation of the random effect would be affected (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 273). If the model (using model-based standard-errors) is in high agreement with a model estimated with robust standard errors, a possible misspecification of the variance of residuals is not likely to seriously bias results (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 259; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280).

Assumptions (6) relates to the problem of level-2 endogeneity that occurs when the independent variables included in the model at level 2 correlate with the level-2 residuals of the regression (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). If a significant correlation of any independent variable at level 2 with the respective level-2 residual term can be detected, this variable is referred to as an endogenous explanatory variable and the model consequently suffers from level 2 endogeneity (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115) (cf. assumption (2).

Assumptions applying across both levels of a two-level hierarchical linear model are (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255):

(7) The errors at level 1 and level 2 are independent.

(8) The predictors at each level are not correlated with the random effects at the other level. That is, $\text{Cov}(X_{qij}, u_{q'j}) = 0$ for all q, q'; and $\text{Cov}(W_{sj}, r_{ij}) = 0$.

Assumptions (7) and (8) concern cross-level associations regarding the independence of residuals and endogeneity across levels 1 and 2, which can be addressed in the model-building process and by inspection of the level-1 and level-2 residuals (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, pp. 255 f).

Assumption (7) requires that the residuals across levels are independent of each other, i.e., the error terms do not correlate across levels 1 and 2. If the estimations with either model-based or robust standard errors are in quite close agreement with each other, the robust standard errors do not indicate that the model is misspecified. This does not mean that the assumptions of the model are correct. It rather implies that the standard errors are insensitive to any error in the assumptions regarding the covariance structure of the residuals. (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280)

Assumption (8) relates to the problem of cross-level endogeneity that occurs when the independent variables included in the model at level 1 or level 2 correlate with the residuals of the regression across levels (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). If a significant correlation of any independent variable at level 1 or level 2 with the residual term on the other level can be detected, this variable is referred to as an endogenous explanatory variable and the model consequently suffers from endogeneity across levels (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115).

5 Study 1

5.1 Objective and Proceeding

The presented conceptual (cf. chapter 2) and literature-based (cf. chapter 3) remarks clearly demonstrate that despite the undisputable economic relevance of brand-building behaviors of frontline employees and the crucial role organizational identification plays in this matter, the nascent dynamic performance approach and the approval of within-person variation with regard to social identification, have been neglected to this day in empirical literature on brand-building behaviors of frontline employees. Acknowledging the practical and scientific necessity to conduct a systematical investigation of multi-level effects of frontline employees' organizational identification in predicting brand-building behaviors, in the subsequent course of this work the previously exposed central research gaps will be systematically closed. For this purpose, a first study containing two consecutive sub-studies (1a and 1b) is conducted, investigating the existence of within-person variation in the focal constructs (research question 1), and exploring the isolated (research question 2) as well as interacting (research question 3) effects of between-person organizational identification and within-person organizational identity salience on brand-building performance of frontline employees.

Initially, in order to substantiate the consecutive causal analysis, impact hypotheses will be developed based on the theoretical foundations of the social identity approach. The insights acquired in the systematical review of empirical literature relevant to this work, will further be integrated in order to support the reasoning of the developed hypotheses. Subsequently, the resulting integrative frameworks for studies 1a and 1b will be presented in section 5.2.2. The set of hypotheses was tested by means of two daily ESM studies. In a first step, a study among 36 frontline employees (over 145 days) from a fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) manufacturer (1a) was implemented in order to test the derived hypotheses with a moderate use of resources. The existence and magnitude of within-person variance in customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and organizational identity salience, as well as the separate effects of organizational identification (between-person) and organizational identity salience (within-person) on brand-building behaviors were analyzed via hierarchical linear modeling.

A second study (1b) was conducted, aiming to test the model in a larger sample of 91 frontline employees (over 367 days) stemming from different professional backgrounds, thereby increasing statistical power and providing more general findings from different organizational contexts and professions with customer contact. The main focus of study 1b, however, was to complement the initial findings by investigating the cross-level interacting effect of organizational identification on the tested within-person effects. The sample size in study 1b provides adequate power levels for such analyses (cf. Ketturat *et al.* 2016). Additionally, control variables at the within-person and between-person level were incorporated in order to provide valuable insights regarding the robustness of findings and to rule out additional explanations for the results. The core findings of studies 1a and 1b will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

5.2 Hypotheses and Conceptualization of the Framework

5.2.1 Within-Person Variability of Organizational Identity Salience

The concept of organizational identification, the part of an employee's self-concept originating from his or her knowledge as well as the related value and the emotional significance of their membership in the organization (Tajfel 1978b, p. 63), reflects the employees' internalization of organizational membership and defines "who the employee is" (cf. Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 21). In line with the social identity approach and prior conceptualizations of organizational identification, frontline employees' general level of organizational identification, employing the established measurement scale of Ashforth and Mael (1989), functions as the general accessibility of the organizational identity in the employees' self-concept and can be viewed as a relatively stable general tendency to experience a feeling of belongingness to and oneness with the organization. However, there is a common understanding in research on social identity processes (cf. Haslam *et al.* 2009; Ketturat *et al.* 2016; Millward and Haslam 2013; van Dick *et al.* 2005), that individuals who identify with a social group, not perpetually and uninterruptedly experience a vivid bond with the specific group based on that group identity, but the actual current (e.g., daily) perception of membership with a social group is contingent on this social identity being salient, i.e., cognitively activated (cf. van Knippenberg 2000, p. 358). A frontline employee, even if generally identified with the organization, might not always be highly aware of his identification

but is likely to fluctuate with regard to the extent to which he or she experiences the cognitive and affective impact of organizational membership. By contrast, a frontline employee who generally identifies less with the organization, might under certain circumstances, e.g., when confronted with surprisingly positive information about the organization, for a moment or an on-going episode (e.g., a work day), experience a stronger, albeit transient, bond with the employing organization than usually. (van Knippenberg 2000, p. 359) While the general level of an employee's organizational identification should determine their average level of daily organizational identity salience, i.e., the typical level of identity activation on a given work day, contextual factors emphasizing the membership are likely to increase or decrease organizational identity salience (cf. Millward and Haslam 2013). Prevalent conceptual literature suggests that within-person fluctuation of identification is likely to be triggered by situational cues (Hogg and Terry 2000, p. 125; Oakes et al. 1991, p. 126), like external contextual factors (e.g., the occurrence of daily work events) or internal psychological employee states (e.g., shifts in daily moods) on a given day (cf. van Dick 2015, p. 121; Becker et al. 2013, p. 131). This goes along with research on organizational identity salience, even though measured at the between-person level, demonstrating that for instance the prospect of a merger can trigger organizational identity salience of employees (cf. van Knippenberg *et al.* 2002). First studies on dynamic components of identification, even if not focusing on the organizational identity, suggest that the actual experience of identification, e.g., with a theatre production team (Haslam *et al.* 2009) or in university sport teams (Ketturat *et al.* 2016) can vary across different points in time within the same individual, irrespective of their general level of identification. Several researchers (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 313; van Dick *et al.* 2005, p. 274) simply view identity salience as a dichotomous construct by claiming that organizational identities should be highly salient whenever the employee represents the organization, e.g., within customer interactions. This simplified interpretation, treating the construct as dichotomous, does not do justice to the true nature of identity salience as a continuum and fully denies the existence of intra-personal variation in identity processes within frontline employees, who by definition (cf. section 2.1) consistently work at the customer interface. Subsumed, the state level of organizational identification, referred to as daily organizational identity salience in this work, represents the actual experience of organizational membership on a given day and is conceptualized as an impermanent state and thus continuous and periodic by nature. For a frontline employee this

means that he might feel strongly identified with his organization on one day (high organizational identity salience) and then experience little or no identification on another day (low organizational identity salience). Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

H1: Frontline employees' organizational identity salience will demonstrate significant daily within-person variability.

5.2.2 Within-Person Variability of Brand-Building Behaviors

In line with the dynamic performance approach (cf. section 2.2.), organizational behavior and several dimensions of employee performance fluctuate even over short intervals (cf. Dalal *et al.* 2014). Conceptualizing work behaviors as dynamic and episodic in nature (cf. Beal *et al.* 2005, p. 1055), it seems natural that frontline employees' brand-building behaviors are not a consistent course of conduct and therefore are not rendered at a constant average performance level (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009). It is arguable that similar to other organizational performance dimensions, frontline employees' brand-building behaviors can be triggered by contextual work events, e.g., daily leadership style (cf. Zacher and Wilden 2014), or depend on frontline employees' psychological states, e.g., their daily affect (cf. Miner and Glomb 2010). Exemplarily, on a day when a frontline employee's leader more than usually engages in brand-specific leadership (cf. Morhart *et al.* 2009; Myrden and Kelloway 2015), highlighting the meaning of the specific brand core more than usually, this should increase employees' subsequent level of brand-congruent behavior, as they are provided with prompt directives on the demanded core brand behaviors. Another example would be a frontline-employee's increase in positive affect on a given day. Feeling extraordinarily good and energetic will provide the frontline employee with the cognitive and physical requirements he or she needs to be exceedingly friendly and to spare no trouble or expense to find the best solution for the customer, e.g., to engage in higher levels of customer-oriented behavior than usually. This argumentation is in line with studies on intra-individual performance of call center employees (Rothbard and Wilk 2011) and public service clerks (Sonnentag 2003), who exhibited more work engagement on days when they felt more positive affect and were more recovered than usually. Additional studies in service firms, e.g., among flight attendants (Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2008) or employees of a fast-food

company (Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2009), demonstrated that daily job resources or job demands caused performance variation within frontline employees and even affected daily financial returns. Concluding, building on the dynamic performance approach and empirical evidence on within-person variation in related constructs, it is assumed that within-person variability is valid with regard to frontline employees' brand-building behaviors, leading to higher (or lower) brand-building performance on one day compared to an average workday. Thus, the following hypotheses are formally stated:

H2a: Frontline employees' customer-oriented behavior will demonstrate significant daily within-person variability.

H2b: Frontline employees' brand-congruent behavior will demonstrate significant daily within-person variability.

5.2.3 Between-Person Effects of Organizational Identification

According to the social identity approach, individuals tend to engage in group-prototypical behavior (i.e. behavior which is in line with characterizing beliefs, norms and values) more strongly, when their membership in this psychological group is of relatively high importance to their sense of self, i.e. their group identification is high (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 34; Dutton et al. 1994, pp. 239; Turner et al. 1987, pp. 11).

Applied to an organizational context, employees with a high organizational identification are likely guided in their behaviors by their organization's identity, accordingly. Based on the human need for self-continuity and positive self-esteem, employees have an inherent motivation to behave corresponding with their sense of self and, in this way, enrich their organizational identity. The social identity approach, moreover, predicts that self-categorization mechanisms with regard to a salient identity, i.e. the organization, lead to a depersonalization process where the group (organizational) identity is predominant, resulting in employees rather engaging in prototypical behaviors for that group. (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 3-4)

Accordingly, as organizational identification is self-defining by nature, frontline employees' behaviors should in general converge with the core characteristics of their organization in case of strong identification (cf. Wieseke *et al.* 2007, p. 269). Therefore, when comparing between-person levels of organizational identification, if frontline employees generally define themselves as an organizational member to a large degree, group consistent behaviors should be more typical for them compared to employees with lower levels of organizational identification. The brand of a company is a representation of the organization's identity (Morhart *et al.* 2009, p. 122) and thus reflects its essential characteristics. Therefore, frontline-employees can be expected to have a higher tendency to behave in a way that is congruent with the brand when their organizational identification is higher, i.e., a relatively high share of their self-concept is defined by the organizational identification, compared to front-line employees with lower levels of organizational identification. Previous research supports this argumentation at the between-person level, showing that employees who are firmly involved with and connected to their employing organization, behave consistent with the company's core values (Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009; Thorbjørnsen and Supphellen 2011).

Moreover, the social identity theory indicates that frontline employees with a high organizational identification have an increased self-interest in the performance. As they are interested in enhancing the organization and thus enhancing their own positive self-esteem, they should have a high intrinsic motivation to promote organizational achievement and prevent organizational defeat by their individual behavior. (Tajfel and Turner 1979, pp. 34 ff)

Customer-oriented behavior is an undisputed success factor for service organizations and a key feature at the center of most of their identities (Wieseke *et al.* 2007, p. 270). Since frontline employees' increasing organizational identification corresponds to the organizational identity being more self-descriptive, engaging in customer-oriented behavior is certainly one way for frontline-employees to boost their own self-esteem and foster the organizational value (Homburg *et al.* 2009, p. 43). Accordingly, employees have been demonstrated to display higher levels of customer orientation when they felt a strong connection to their organization (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Hall *et al.* 2015; Homburg *et al.* 2009; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014).

Subsumed, the higher frontline-employees' general level of organizational iden-
tification is, the more relevant this part of the self-concept will be for the em-
ployee's self-definition. Consequently, the more accessible the respective organ-
izational identity will be on an average work day, the higher employees' general
tendency to perform core behaviors of the identity and behaviors that help to en-
hance organizational value, like customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior,
will be.

*H3a: Frontline employees' organizational identification has a positive effect on
their average level of customer-oriented behavior.*

*H3b: Frontline employees' organizational identification has a positive effect on
their average level of brand-congruent behavior.*

5.2.4 Within-Person Effects of Organizational Identity Salience

While the previous section dealt with frontline-employees general level of organ-
izational identification and explicated its role in predicting frontline employees'
general tendencies to engage in brand-congruent behavior, in the following sec-
tion the dynamic within-person portion of identification will be related to daily
performance levels.

The mechanisms of depersonalization and self-stereotyping assigned to the social
identity approach (cf. Tajfel 1978b; Turner and Tajfel 1986) and the resulting ex-
tent to which organizational membership affects *actual* behavior, depend on the
degree to which an employee is aware of and actually experiences the organiza-
tional membership on a given workday. According to theory, these cognitive
mechanisms are put in motion as a function of the respective identity salience
(e.g., van Knippenberg 2000, p. 357; Oakes *et al.* 1991, p. 125), i.e. the degree to
which the part of the employee's self-concept referring to that group identity is
activated. Due to the hierarchical structure of an employee's self-concept, differ-
ent identities (self and social) compete for activation (Tajfel 1978b, p. 70) and the
degree to which a specific identity is made salient can be viewed as a continuum
leading from no activation, to some activation to full activation. Depending on the
actual level of activation of the respective identity, the degree of depersonalization
and self-assimilation in terms of the social group and the group prototype should

vary and result in varying levels of group behavior (cf. van Dick *et al.* 2005). Particularly, when frontline employees' organizational identity is activated less than usually, alongside their self-definition as an organizational member, they will in large part define themselves in terms of their personal self (e.g., a football fan) or in terms of another social identity (e.g., as a family member) and therefore depersonalization and self-stereotyping mechanisms in terms of the organizational identity will decline (cf., Turner *et al.* 1987, p. 11). Consequently, on a day when their organizational identity is less salient, a frontline employee will be less prone to engage in behaviors that enhance the organizations worth, e.g., customer-oriented behavior, and will less likely act as a prototypical member of the organization by performing brand-congruent behaviors, compared to other days. A more than typical activation of the organizational identity, however, will result in the converse effect, i.e., reinforced frontline employees' depersonalization and self-stereotyping and higher than average levels of brand-building behaviors.

Subsumed, while their general level of organizational identification depicts frontline-employees average tendency to categorize themselves as an organizational member and behave accordingly in a customer-oriented and brand-congruent manner (H3a and H3b), however, the degree of daily activation of a frontline employee's organizational identity (organizational identity salience), determining the degree to which depersonalization and self-stereotyping processes in terms of the organization take place on a given day compared to average days, should predict the level of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior that is implemented by a frontline employee on the related day.

H4a. Frontline employees' daily organizational identity salience has a positive effect on daily levels of their customer-oriented behavior when compared to an average workday.

H4b. Frontline employees' daily organizational identity salience has a positive effect on daily levels of their brand-congruent behavior when compared to an average workday.

5.2.5 Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification

Acknowledging, as stated above, that organizational identity affects employee behavior on both, the between-person and the within-person level, it is an obvious question to raise how these processes at the between- and within-person level relate to each other. In the work at hand it is argued that frontline employees' between-person level of organizational identification operates as a buffering force, preventing self-stereotyping and depersonalization processes to diminish in case of low levels of daily organizational identity salience and thereby prevent the employee from fully acting on their daily level of organizational identity salience.

Frontline employees high on general organizational identification, are likely to have a strong and reliable bond with the organization and define themselves generally more in terms of that organizational identity than other employees (cf. Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 34). They are likely to act on behalf of the organization almost habitually and are wont to perform according to organizational goals (cf. Tajfel and Turner 1979, p. 34). Due to their strong prevalent self-definition as an organizational member in general terms, highly identified frontline employees will not only generally perform identity relevant behaviors, but they might also be less sensitive to daily changes with respect to the activation of that organizational identity. Although within-person changes of organizational identity salience to a certain degree are likely to pertain to all employees (H4a and H4b), for highly identified frontline employees, their general feeling of membership with the organization, even if less activated than on an average work day, might function as a "mental reserve", leading the employee to hold on to typical and generally desirable behaviors in the customer encounter, intending to foster organizational value and therefore enhancing their own self-esteem (cf. Turner and Tajfel 1986, pp. 16 f). Even in the case of diminished organizational identity salience, as the degree to which they derive their own general self-esteem proportionally depends more significantly on the organizations' success than it does for other employees, highly identified employees are likely to try to keep up their typical levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, e.g., by employing self-regulation strategies. For instance, they might remind themselves of their typical performance levels and their general strong bond with the organization. Alternatively, they might think of potential negative consequences of diminished

performance levels for the organization, e.g., harmed customer-company relationships or negative publicity, and consider the negative consequences of organizational failure for their own self-esteem. Specifically, the shared organization identity might lead employees to shift the appraisal of the situation rather to a group level ("How does diminished performance affect 'us'?") than an individual level ("How does diminished performance affect 'me'?") (cf. Ketturat et al. 2016, p. 148). Trying to protect their own self-esteem, they will hold on to their typical high performance levels and consequently diminish the negative behavioral consequences of low organizational identity salience. Less identified employees, however, lack this buffer of a general high level of organizational identification. As their self-esteem on average does not depend on organizational success as much, these employees will therefore not hold back to act out their daily levels of organizational identity salience. In support of this argumentation, Häusser *et al.* (2012) demonstrated that high levels of social identification buffered neuroendocrine stress reactions in threatening situations. This finding is transferable to frontline employees' decrease of organizational identity salience, as in case of high organizational identification, a degradation of their bond with the organization as caused by low daily organizational identity salience levels, might feel like a threat to their self-concept. Consequently, frontline employees' general level of organizational identification, driving frontline employees to generally perform in a way that is favorable for the organization, is likely to attenuate negative behavioral consequences on daily customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior.

When experiencing increased levels of daily organizational identity salience on the other hand, for highly identified frontline employees, it might be more difficult to further increase their already high levels of customer-oriented and brand congruent-behavior to an even more extraordinary degree. Therefore, higher daily levels of organizational identity salience should affect frontline employees' brand-building behaviors to a lesser extent than it is the case for employees with general low levels of organizational identification. The latter are likely to still have room to grow with regard to their performance levels in case of high organizational identity salience, as they generally perform below levels of highly identified employees and if increasing effort in favor of the organization, they are likely to more easily find ways to behave more customer-oriented and engage in more prototypical behaviors in conformity with the brand identity.

Consolidated, employees with a high between-person level of organizational identification, are suggested to be less sensitive towards changes in their daily level of organizational identity salience to transform into customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. Therefore, the following hypotheses are formally defined:

H5a: Frontline employees' organizational identification moderates the effect of daily organizational identity salience on daily customer-oriented behavior, with the effect for frontline-employees exhibiting high levels of organizational identification being weaker than for those exhibiting lower levels (a negative moderation.

H5b: Frontline employees' organizational identification moderates the effect of daily organizational identity salience on daily brand-congruent behavior, with the effect for frontline-employees exhibiting high levels of organizational identification being weaker than for those exhibiting lower levels (a negative moderation.

5.2.6 Control Variables

Daily Affect
Similar to the suggested approach to organizational identities, prior research has demonstrated that affect needs to be conceptualized with both a between-person and a within-person component, each representing a separable, valid construct and explaining unique variance (cf. Eid and Diener 1999; Watson 2000). The systematic variation of state affect and its association with employees' work behaviors has been shown in several studies, ever since (e.g., Heller *et al.* 2002; Ilies *et al.* 2006). Hence, an association of frontline employees' positive and negative daily affect with their daily levels of brand-building behaviors can be expected. To rule out a possible confounding effect of daily affect in study 1a, daily positive and negative affect were included as within-person control variables in study 1b.

Age and Gender

Based on empirical evidence, employee age (e.g., Waldman and Avolio 1986) and gender (e.g., Kidder 2002) were identified as factors that potentially cause be-tween-person differences in individual performance. Additionally, prior research investigating organizational performance outcomes similar to this work (e.g., cus-tomer orientation) have included *age and gender* as control variables in their anal-ysis (e.g., Franke and Park 2006; O'Hara *et al.* 1991; Thakor and Joshi 2005). To control for potential confounding effects of these variables, age and gender were included in the subsequent empirical analyses at the between-person level in study 1b.

5.2.7 Overview of the Framework and Research Hypotheses

In **Figure 8** and **Figure 9** a systematic overview of the developed conceptual frameworks of studies 1a and 1b are presented.
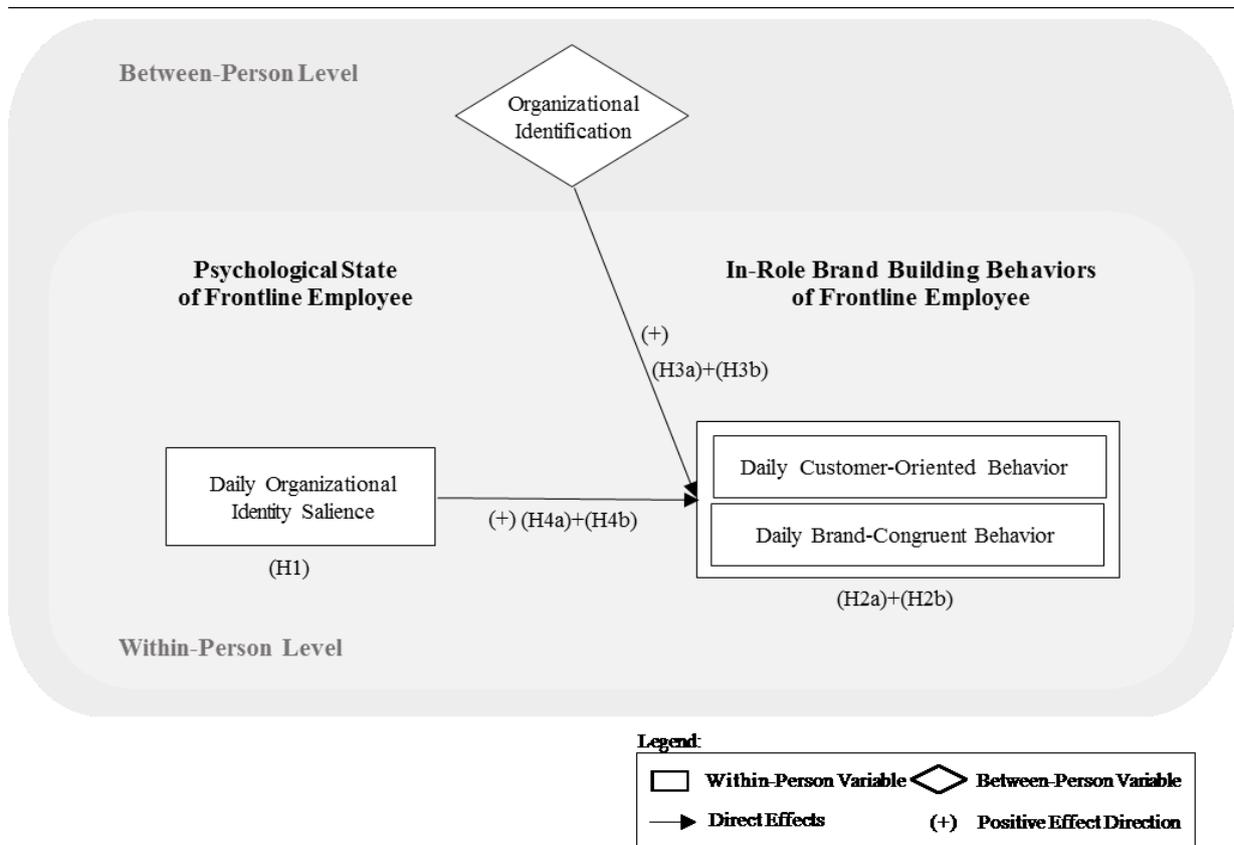
Figure 8: **Conceptual Framework of Study 1a**
Source: Author's illustration.

Cross-Level Interaction

Between-Person Level

Organizational Identification

Controls:
Age
Gender

Psychological State of Frontline Employee

In-Role Brand Building Behaviors of Frontline Employee

(-)

(+)

(H5a)+H5b)

(H3a)+(H3b)

Daily Organizational Identity Salience

Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior

Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior

(+) (H4a)+(H4b)

(H1)

(H2a)+(H2b)

Controls:
Daily Positive Affect
Daily Negative Affect

Within-Person Level

Legend:

☐ Within-Person Variable   ◇ Between-Person Variable

→ Direct Effects   --→ Cross-Level Interaction

(+) Positive Effect Direction   (-) Negative Effect Direction

Figure 9:   **Conceptual Framework of Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

5.3 Conception and Procedure of Data Assessment

5.3.1 Operationalization of the Variables

Study 1 of this work consists of two sub-studies, where study 1b depicts a replication and an extension of study 1a by incorporating organizational identification as a cross-level moderator on the suggested within-person effects. Both data sets of studies 1a and 1b therefore include the same set of latent constructs[10]. In study 1a, restrictions of the daily assessment duration (≤ 5 minutes daily) were imposed by the company which participants were recruited from, therefore reduced scales were used for some of the latent constructs (cf. Ohly et al. 2010). As there were no such time limits in study 1b for the daily questionnaire, for some constructs items were added for construct measurement in study 1b. In these cases separate descriptions of the measurements in study 1a and 1b are provided in the following. In order to ease understanding of the items for participants in study 1a, the respective company name was inserted into the items in all of the questionnaires (within- and between-person). For reasons of data privacy, however, the company name was removed in the representations below and the items are presented in their universal form. In study 1b participants were recruited from a range of different companies, therefore the items were presented in their universal form in the original questionnaires as depicted in the following. In both studies participants were native German speakers, therefore all original scales were translated from English to German.

5.3.1.1 Within-Person Variables

Independent Variable Study 1a and 1b
In studies 1a and 1b, *daily organizational identity salience* (see **Table 5** and **Table 6**) was measured with three items (study 1a), respectively four items (study 1b), using a scale combining the scales from Doosje *et al.* (1995) and Arnett *et al.* (2003). With regard to all within-person measures in studies 1a and 1b, participants had instructions to evaluate the following statements in virtue of *today's* thoughts and feelings. To highlight the items' focus on the participants' present-

---

[10] The control variables daily positive affect and daily negative affect as well as age and gender were solely included in study 1b.

day experiences, all items were adjusted to the day's context (e.g., "Today, I was glad to be part of the company I work for."). All of the items used in studies 1a and 1b were rated by the subjects on a 7-point likert-scale with a value of 1 representing strong disagreement and a value of 7 representing strong agreement.

Daily Organizational Identity Salience		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
OIS_1	Today, I identified with the company I work for.	adapted from
OIS_2	Today, I was glad to be part of the company I work for.	Doosje *et al.*
OIS_3	Today, being an employee of this company meant more to me than just working here.	(1995); Arnett *et al.* (2003)
7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)		

Table 5: **Measurement of Daily Organizational Identity Salience in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily Organizational Identity Salience		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
OIS_1	Today, I identified with the company I work for.	
OIS_2	**Today, I had the feeling that the company I work for is an important part of who I am.**[11]	adapted from Doosje *et al.*
OIS_3	Today, I was glad to be part of the company I work for.	(1995); Arnett *et al.* (2003)
OIS_4	Today, being an employee of this company meant more to me than just working here.	
7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)		

Table 6: **Measurement of Daily Organizational Identity Salience in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Dependent Variables Study 1a and 1b
Daily customer-oriented behavior (see **Table 7** and
 7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)
Table 8**)** was assessed adapting the well-established scales of Baker *et al.* (2014) and Thomas *et al.* (2001) to the daily context with four (study 1a), respectively five items (study 1b).

---

[11] This item was added in study 1b.

Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
COB_1	Today, I made sure that I could be reached whenever a customer needed something.	adapted from Baker *et al.* (2014); Thomas *et al.* (2001)
COB_2	Today, I provided a high-level service to all customers.	
COB_3	Today, I always tried to figure out what a customer's needs were.	
COB_4	Today, I always provided a courteous service to customers.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 7: **Measurement of Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
COB_1	Today, I made sure that I could be reached whenever a customer needed something.	adapted from Baker *et al.* (2014); Thomas *et al.* (2001)
COB_2	Today, I provided a high-level service to all customers.	
COB_3	Today, I always tried to figure out what a customer's needs were.	
COB_4	Today, I always provided a courteous service to customers.	
COB_5	**Today, I always recommended the product or service that was best suited to the customer's problem.[12]**	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 8: **Measurement of Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily brand-congruent behavior (see **Table 9**) was assessed with three items combining the scales of Morhart *et al.* (2009) and Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010), adapting them to the daily context.

---

[12] This item was added in study 1b.

Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
BCB_1	Today, I paid attention that my personal appearance was in line with our corporate brand's appearance.	adapted from Morhart *et al.* (2009), Baumgart and Schmidt (2010)
BCB_2	Today, I made sure that my actions were not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behavior.	
BCB_3	Today, I made no statement that was inconsistent with our brand communications in the media (e.g., advertising or web presence).	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 9:   **Measurement of Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior in Studies 1a and 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

5.3.1.2 Between-Person Variable

Independent Variable Studies 1a and 1b

Organizational identification (see **Table 10**) in both studies was assessed using a reduced form (five items) of the well-established scale by Mael and Ashforth (1992). Participants had instructions to evaluate the following statements in virtue of their *general* thoughts and feelings.

Organizational Identification		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
OI_1	When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult.	
OI_2	This organization's successes are my successes.	
OI_3	When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992)
OI_4	If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed.	
OI_5	I am very interested in what others think about this organization.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 10:   **Measurement of Organizational Identification in Studies 1a and 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

5.2.1.3 Control Variables in Study 1b

Within-Person Variables

In Study 1b participants' *daily positive affect* (see **Table 11**) and *daily negative affect* (see **Table 12**) were assessed using a reduced version of the well-established Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) by Watson *et al.* (1988) with five items each. As with all within-person measures, participants were asked to evaluate the following statements with regard to *present-day* feelings (e.g., "Today, during my work day, I felt irritable.").

Daily Positive Affect		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
	Today, during my work day, I felt …	
PA_1	… interested.	
PA_2	… excited.	adapted from
PA_3	… alert.	Watson *et al.*
PA_4	… active.	(1988)
PA_5	… attentive.	
7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)		

Table 11:   **Measurement of Daily Positive Affect in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily Negative Affect		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
	Today, during my workday, I felt …	
NA_1	… upset.	
NA_2	… distressed.	adapted from
NA_3	… jittery.	Watson *et al.*
NA_4	… irritable.	(1988)
NA_5	… nervous.	
7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)		

Table 12:   **Measurement of Daily Negative Affect in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Between-Person Variables

Gender was assessed with a single dichotomous item in the general questionnaire. Participants were asked to indicate if they were male (1) or female (2). *Age* was assessed with a single open question requesting the participants to indicate their current age in years in the general questionnaire.

5.3.2 Procedure and Description of the Samples

In the initial diary phase of both studies 1a and 1b an interval-contingent ESM (e.g. Nezlek *et al.* 2001) was used, i.e. participants replied to a daily questionnaire at *fixed intervals*, i.e., at the end of their work day, for the course of a workweek (Spence *et al.* 2011, p. 554). As stated above, performance variation depicts short-term fluctuations around a constant mean. These can occur across moments or days (Reb and Cropanzano 2007, p. 490). With work days representing transient settings and performance episodes by definition, short-term variation within performance across days is likely. Daily fluctuation in performance dimensions is well documented in the literature (e.g., Ilies *et al.* 2006; Zacher and Wilden 2014), therefore the daily assessment of self-reported performance outcomes and related attitudes and perceptions is reasonable. Such once-a day assessments are frequently implemented in studies on intra-individual performance (Spence *et al.* 2014) depicting the dynamic character of the employed constructs but not over-burdening participants by a more frequent assessment as suggested by Gunthert and Wenze (2012, p. 149).

The daily survey included all within-person constructs, namely daily organizational identity salience, daily customer-oriented behavior, daily brand-congruent behavior and daily positive and negative affect. Prior to the start of the daily experience sampling, participants filled out a general questionnaire at the between-person constructs, i.e., their typical level of organizational identification and demographics. To ensure regular participation in the daily assessment, participants could choose one particular week out of several upcoming work weeks, in which it was most suitable for them to take part in the study (e.g., because they had no vacation planned or worked regular hours). In both studies, participants registered for the study via e-mail. The link to the general questionnaire, e-mailed to the participants, was completed approximately a week before the daily experience

sampling started. The link to the daily online-questionnaires was e-mailed to the employees each day at noon. Timestamps provided by Unipark, the software-package that was used to set up the online questionnaires, were inspected carefully with regard to the specified intervals, ensuring consistency of the data. When participants had filled out questionnaires at the wrong day, or at inadequate times (e.g., late at night), the particular cases were eliminated from the final sample. Additionally, participants that filled out the general questionnaires in less than three minutes, the minimum time that was estimated to be necessary to read the instructions and answer all questions considerately, were deleted (including the associated event sampled data). Similarly, daily questionnaires that were answered in less than two minutes were eliminated from the final sample. In both studies 1a and 1b, a consistent anonymous four letter code was created by the participants in each of the questionnaires, which was used to link the general and the daily questionnaires of each participant. After data were cleaned with regard to the criteria explicated above, participants not providing data of a minimum of three daily diary questionnaires and the general survey, were excluded from the analysis in studies 1a and 1b.[13]

Sample for study 1a

In study 1a, overall 49 participants were recruited from seven different retail outlets and the headquarter of the Austrian branch of an internationally operating fast moving consumer goods company in a three-week period in January 2016. In order to avoid potential response biases (e.g. social desirability bias), subjects completed the survey completely anonymous. This particular company was chosen as an adequate research context for the following reasons. First, in line with the service-dominant logic also providers of tangible goods compete through excellent service these days (cf. Koudal 2006; sections 2.1). Second, the particular corporate brand of the company is generally associated with values like family, tradition, excellence and emotional warmth (due to confidentiality reasons no source is presented), as communicated by the means of advertising and other promotional activities. This underlines the importance of frontline employees as brand-champions holding up to these high standards at the customer interface. Finally, all

---

[13] Persons providing less than three measurement occasions generally do not exhibit enough within-person variability to be valuable for according analyses (c.f. Nohe *et al.* 2014).

products sold in the sales stores were under the single corporate umbrella brand, therefore confounding effects of different brands in the same organization could be ruled out. Although participation was encouraged by the respective store managers, it remained on a voluntary basis. However, if participants completed the general survey and at least three of the daily questionnaires, they had the chance to win one out of three 20-Euro-vouchers from a well-known online retailer. Overall, the final sample consists of 36 employees at level 2 (83.7% response rate) and 145 workdays at level 1 (i.e., an average 4.03 workdays per person). If every participant had completed each of the five daily surveys it would have resulted in 180 data points (36 x 5). However, the resulting mean of workdays per person is comparable to similar daily diary studies (e.g., Binnewies *et al.* 2009, 3.6 days; Nohe *et al.* 2014, 4.1 days).

All participants were customer-facing employees, of which 64% of employees worked at retail stores, 19% were sales representatives, 8% key account managers and 8% sales managers. 33% of the participants indicated to have daily personal as well as indirect (e.g., via telephone) customer contact, 64% had mainly personal customer contact, 3% reported to have mostly indirect customer contact. Overall, 55% of the participants were female and 78% of the participants worked full-time. The age distribution in the sample is quite balanced with 11% between 20 and 29 years old, 7% between 30 and 39 years old, 11% between 40 and 49 years old and 7% older than 50 year. Although the resulting sample size appears rather small, Scherbaum and Ferreter (2008) report in their review on power in multilevel designs that a sample size larger than 30 is acceptable in HLM studies, especially when testing level-1 effects. However, it has to be noted that the level-2 sample size in study 1a might provide insufficient power (i.e., the probability of detecting an effect when it does exist) for a reliable test of between-person associations in the data (Scherbaum and Ferreter 2008, p. 354).

Sample for study 1b

In study 1b, convenience sampled data were collected during a twelve-week period from November 2015 to February 2016. Participants were recruited in the author's personal environment, predominantly by e-mail and via Facebook. Additionally, a detailed description of the study and the link to the electronic general questionnaire to register for the event sampling study was posted in service-relevant forums on the career platform Xing. To encourage participation, respondents

could register for a small lottery. In case of successful completion of the study they could win a 20 Euro voucher of a well-known online-retailer. Employees from a variety of occupations (e.g., sales personnel, nurses, police officers, or teachers) and industries (e.g., public services, sales, health industry) were recruited, whereas daily direct (face-to-face) or indirect (telephone) customer contact was a prerequisite for participation. Prospective participants not fitting this criterion (addressed in a filter question at the beginning of the general survey) were not accepted for the subsequent diary study. Because the participants held many different professions, in study 1b customer-contact was defined by employee interactions with regular business customers (e.g., shoppers or recipients of services) but also with patients, pupils or chancellery clients. After applying the above mentioned exclusion criteria to the collected data (i.e., inspection of timestamps, adequate processing times, and sufficient number of completed questionnaires) 91 out of 326 participants that originally had started the general questionnaire, remained for analysis in study 1b. This yields in a response rate of 27.9%. At level 2, 367 out of 455 (91 x 5) possible workdays were included in the final analysis resulting in an average of 4.03 workdays per person. 55% of the participants indicated to have both, daily personal as well as indirect customer contact, 23% had mainly personal customer contact and another 22% reported to have primarily indirect customer contact. Additionally, more than 80% of the sample reported to spend more than 50% of their overall working-time interacting with customers. In order to test if participants had an understanding of what their employing organizations expected from them with regard to their role as organizational representatives, their average level of brand-knowledge dissemination (e.g., "The organization I work for communicates its brand promise well to its employees") was assessed. The mean value of 4.68 (SD=1.47) on a 7-point Likert scale indicated that participants in general terms had a good understanding of their role as organizational representatives. It can be summarized that the final sample in study 1b is of high relevance to the research context and appropriate to test the hypothesized effects.

As stated before, all participants were frontline-employees from a variety of different industries. More accurately, 27% of the participants worked in the public services sector, 25% in the sales sector, 13% had a retailing background, 11% were recruited from the health sector, and 7% from customer services. The remaining 17% disperse over a few other industries. Overall, 50% of the sample

consist of female and 82% of the participants indicated to work full-time. The average age in the sample is 41.2 years (SD = 11.41) and participants on average had worked for their company for 6.9 years (SD = 6.67). It is worth mentioning that in study 1b the final sample size, at both level 1 (n = 367) and level 2 (N = 91) can be assumed to be sufficiently large to fulfill the power requirements of hierarchical data analysis involving cross-level associations (cf. Scherbaum and Ferreter 2008, p. 354).

For both studies 1a and 1b, response bias can be ruled out, since no significant correlation was found between the subjects demographic information, namely age, gender and tenure, and the number of completed surveys (cf. Spence *et al.* 2014, p. 725).

5.4 Results of the Quantitative Investigation

5.4.1 Results of the Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses

At the beginning of the empirical analysis of the data the fit of the measurement model was inspected. For this purpose, the latent constructs included in the model were examined with regard to their reliability and validity, adopting the procedure and evaluation criteria presented in section 4.2 (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 133). A first EFA and CFA were conducted for all latent constructs at the within-person level employed in the model simultaneously. For constructs at the between-person level, a second EFA and CFA were conducted. In Study 1a and 1b, as introduced in 5.3.1, latent constructs at the within-person level are represented by daily organizational identity salience for the independent variable and daily customer-oriented behavior and daily brand-congruent behavior for the dependent variables. At the between-person level, organizational identification serves as the independent variable. Daily positive and negative affect at the within-person level are included in study 1b. The between-person control variables age and gender are not included in the EFA and CFA as they were assessed via single-item measures. Before conducting the EFA and CFA for both samples 1a and 1b, all items at the within-person level were centered around their respective *person-mean* in order to eliminate any person-level variance, items of organizational identification at the between-person level were centered around the respective grand-mean in the sample (Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 121).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The EFA at both the within- and between-person level were conducted using principal axis analysis with the number of extracted factors being determined by the Kaiser-criterion (Kaiser 1974, p. 31) and oblique-angled Promax-Rotation as the rotation method.

The results of both EFAs depicting the overall adequacy of the sample for a CFA are presented in **Table 13** and **Table 14**. For reasons of simplicity, the EFA results of Study 1a and 1b are presented sequentially, respectively.

Within-Person Level	*Between-Person Level*
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin-Criterion .822	**Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion** .763
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity .000	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** .000
Total Variance Explained 70.999%	**Total Variance Explained** 48.313%

Table 13:   **Sample Adequacy for Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Within-Person Level	*Between-Person Level*
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin-Criterion .775	**Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion** .680
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity .000	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** .000
Total Variance Explained 56.112%	**Total Variance Explained** 64.180%

Table 14:   **Sample Adequacy for Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion (KMO) values of .822 (within-person) and .763 (between-person) in study 1a and .775 (within-person) and .680 (between-person) in study 1b exceed or only marginally undercut the recommended threshold of .8 (Kaiser 1970, p. 405). All values exceed the less restrictive threshold of

.6 (Kaiser 1974, p. 111). These results indicate that a factor analysis can be reasonably applied to the given data (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 342). Second, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is highly significant with a *p*-value of .000 for both Studies 1a and 1b at the within- and between-person level, indicating that it can be assumed that the indicators in the population are indeed correlated and that a factor analysis is reasonable at both levels of analysis (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 341).

Moreover, the EFA maintains the theoretically sound three (within-person) and one (between person) factor solution in study 1a, in study 1b the suggested five (within-person) and one (between-person) factor solution is supported, respectively. The Total Variances Explained of 71% (within-person) and 48.31%[14] (between-person) in study 1a and 56.11% (within-person) and 64.18% (between-person) in study 1b, can be regarded as satisfying up to very good results (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 144).

Table 15 and **Table 16** show the Cronbach's Alphas of each construct and the item-wise results of the EFA at both levels of analysis for Study 1a and 1b.

---

[14] The Total Variance Explained at the between-person level in study 1a does not hold up to the threshold of 50% (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 144). However, as 48.31% is very close to this threshold, this result is considered to be acceptable to keep this factor for further analysis.

Variable Name	Corrected Item-to-Total Correlation	MSA Criterion	Cronbach's Alpha
Independent Variable Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience			.902
OIS_1	.707	.833	
OIS_2	.862	.839	
OIS_3	.765	.877	
Dependent Variables Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Customer Oriented Behavior			.885
COB_1	.837	.776	
COB_2	.749	.820	
COB_3	.834	.877	
COB_4	.609	.905	
Daily Brand Congruent Behavior			.885
BCB_1	.836	.730	
BCB_2	.855	.738	
BCB_3	.649	.823	
Independent Variable Level 2 (between-person)			
Organizational Identification			.805
OI_1	.609	.618	
OI_2	.433	.531	
OI_3	.582	.707	
OI_4	.707	.724	
OI_5	.689	.691	

Table 15:   **Results of the Exploratory Factor Analyses in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable Name	Corrected Item-to-Total Correlation	MSA Criterion	Cronbach's Alpha
Independent Variable Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience			.941
OIS_1	.851	.793	
OIS_2	.868	.854	
OIS_3	.881	.834	
OIS_4	.834	.803	
Dependent Variables Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Customer Oriented Behavior			.864
COB_1	.573	.693	
COB_2	.759	.752	
COB_3	.707	.811	
COB_4	.718	.803	
COB_5	.707	.820	
Daily Brand Congruent Behavior			.861
BCB_1	.767	.775	
BCB_2	.791	.795	
BCB_3	.665	.765	
Control Variables Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Positive Affect			.840
PA_1	.647	.826	
PA_2	.633	.796	
PA_3	.695	.799	
PA_4	.648	.769	
PA_5	.600	.754	
Daily Negative Affect			.854
NA_1	.605	.693	
NA_2	.656	.746	
NA_3	.653	.711	
NA_4	.777	.666	
NA_5	.683	.758	
Independent Variable Level 2 (between-person)			
Organizational Identification			.797
OI_1	.699	.788	
OI_2	.535	.733	
OI_3	.560	.752	
OI_4	.581	.737	
OI_5	.523	.788	

Table 16:   **Results of the Exploratory Factor Analyses in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

All constructs substantially exceed the recommended threshold of .7 for Cronbach's alpha (Nunnally 1978, p. 245). With regard to the Corrected-Item-to-Total Correlations all values exceed the recommended threshold of .5 (Zaichkowsky 1985, p. 343; Shimp and Sharma 1987, p. 282) with the only exception being item OI_2 in study 1a. As a deletion of this indicator does not lead to an increase in the respective Cronbach's Alpha, this item is not excluded from the model. Furthermore, all MSA values exceed the recommended threshold of .5 (Kaiser and Rice 1974, p. 111). This can be interpreted as a strong indication to keep all items in the measurement model.

Altogether, the results from the EFA suggest that the measures of the latent constructs are sufficiently reliable and a CFA should be conducted.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As outlined in section 4.3.1, *face validity* of each construct is a requirement for the empirical examination of the constructs in the CFA (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 157). For all construct-measurements in study 1a and 1b, items of well-established scales are used, which have been implemented in the literature before (see 5.3.1). Hence, *face validity* can be assumed in the studies (Cronbach and Meehl 1955, p. 282; Nunnally 1978, p. 79).

The results of the CFA with regard to local fit-indices are presented in **Table 17** and **Table 18**.

Variable Name	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Fornell-Larcker Criterion
Independent Variable Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience		.771	.529	✓
OIS_1	.763***			
OIS_2	.758***			
OIS_3	.657***			
Dependent Variables Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.889	.625		✓
COB_1	.748***			
COB_2	.828***			
COB_3	.793***			
COB_4	.628***			
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.826	.617		✓
BCB_1	.786***			
BCB_2	.892***			
BCB_3	.662***			
Independent Variable Level 2 (between-person)				
Organizational Identification	.846	.526		✓
OI_1	.756***			
OI_2	.820***			
OI_3	.736***			
OI_4	.643***			
OI_5	.644***			

***$p < 0.01$

Table 17: **Local Fit-Indices of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable Name	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Fornell-Larcker Criterion
Independent Variable Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience		.849	.590	✓
OIS_1	.690***			
OIS_2	.706***			
OIS_3	.724***			
OIS_4	.644***			
Dependent Variables Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior		.864	.563	✓
COB_1	.390***			
COB_2	.746***			
COB_3	.614***			
COB_4	.727***			
COB_5	.700***			
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior		.808	.584	✓
BCB_1	.775***			
BCB_2	.764***			
BCB_3	.537***			
Control Variables Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Positive Affect		.845	.533	✓
PA_1	.570***			
PA_2	.591***			
PA_3	.686***			
PA_4	.562***			
PA_5	.508***			
Daily Negative Affect		.845	.533	✓
NA_1	.706***			
NA_2	.427***			
NA_3	.687***			
NA_4	.809***			
NA_5	.641***			
Independent Variable Level 2 (between-person)				
Organizational Identification		.838	.514	✓
OI_1	.830***			
OI_2	.522***			
OI_3	.552***			
OI_4	.716***			
OI_5	.621***			

$***p < 0.01$

Table 18: **Local Fit-Indices of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

To begin with, in both studies the factor loadings of all items but one exceed the recommended threshold of 0.4 and are highly significant, strongly indicating that the factor loadings are statistically different from 0 in the population (Anderson and Gerbing 1993, p. 2; Bagozzi *et al.* 1991, p. 434; Hildebrandt 1984, p. 46; Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 124)[15]. Moreover, the composite reliability values are sufficiently high (≥ 0.771) for all constructs, indicating that the items are a good measurement for the respective construct (Bagozzi and Baumgartner 1996, p. 402). Additionally, for all constructs the average variance extracted (AVE) out-performs the suggested threshold (≥ 0.514) (cf. Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Relying on these results, *convergent validity* can be presumed in both studies.

Discriminant validity is tested by employing the Fornell-Larcker Criterion (Fornell and Larcker 1981, p. 46). This criterion is accomplished for every factor in the given studies.[16] Therefore, *discriminant validity* can be assumed as well.

In **Table 19** and **Table 20** the values for all relevant global fit-indices in study 1a and 1b can be found.

Level 1 (within-person)		Level 2 (between-person)	
Criterion	**Value**	**Criterion**	**Value**
Normed χ^2	1.8	Normed χ^2	1.4
RMSEA	.075	RMSEA	.011
SRMR	.069	SRMR	.062
CFI	.955	CFI	.961
TLI	.937	TLI	.922

Table 19: **Global Fit-Indices of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

---

[15] Item COB_1 in study 1b is the only exception to this. However, because the factor loading of 0.39 is very close to the recommended threshold of 0.4 and the factor loading is highly significant, the item remains in the measurement model.

[16] See **Table 57** and **Table 58** in Appendix B for details.

Level-1 (within-person)		Level-2 (between-person)	
Criterion	Value	Criterion	Value
Normed χ^2	2.24	Normed χ^2	1.98
RMSEA	.058	RMSEA	.010
SRMR	.062	SRMR	.045
CFI	.897	CFI	.971
TLI	.876	TLI	.928

Table 20: **Global Fit-Indices of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

The descriptive normed χ^2 values ≤ 2.24 indicate a very good up to excellent fit of the model to the data at hand in both studies. The absolute fit-indices fortify these results, with small values for both RMSEA ($\leq.075$) and SRMR ($\leq .069$). Finally, the incremental fit-indices support these results as well with values for the CFI $\geq .897$ and values for the TLI $\geq .876$. Overall, it can be concluded that in both studies 1a and 1b the global model fit is very good.

5.4.2 Specification of the Hierarchical Models and Test of Model Assumptions

As stated in section 4.3.5, in two-level hierarchical linear models specification assumptions apply at each level (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 252; Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 57). To test the adequacy of hierarchical modelling for study 1a and 1b, both levels of analysis were inspected based on the criteria introduced previously.

At first, the general assumptions of linear regression (1) and (2) were tested. (1) assumes that the model has been correctly specified (Leeflang 2000, p. 331; Wooldridge 2009, pp. 24–27). The correct specification of the form of the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables in study 1a and study 1b was visually inspected by plotting independent and dependent variables against each other (cf. Backhaus *et al.* 2016, p. 86; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 258). The scatterplots and the associated trend lines revealed an approximately linear trend for all of the tested relationships, therefore linearity

can be assumed in both studies.[17] Moreover, the assumption of no multicollinearity (2) (Field 2013, p. 220; Leeflang 2000, p. 347) was tested by examining the correlation matrix for the independent variables and checking whether there are any correlations larger than .90 (Hair 2010, p. 200). No correlations larger than .90 between any independent variables exist, therefore it can be concluded that multicollinearity is no problem in studies 1a and 1b.[18]

Next, the six assumptions applying for a two-level HLM at level 1, level 2 and across levels were tested. Assumption (3) refers to the normality dispersion, independence and homoscedasticity of level-1 residuals. Usually, the assumption that level-1 residuals are normally distributed (mean = 0, variance = σ^2) holds for level-1 models with continuous dependent variables (Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 56). Additionally, two formal tests, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test, were employed to examine the residuals' distribution (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96)[19]. In study 1a, both tests revealed an insignificant test statistic for brand-congruent behavior, therefore normality of residuals can be assumed. Although the test statistic for customer-oriented behavior was significant in both tests, following the central limit theorem, it can be assumed that linear regressions with sample sizes of $N \sim 40$ or larger are robust against any deviation from a normal distribution of the residuals (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96), which is the case for study 1a (n_{days} =145). Hence, for customer-oriented behavior in study 1a normality of residuals can be assumed. In study 1b, both tests revealed an insignificant test statistic for customer-oriented behavior, therefore normality of residuals can be assumed. Although the test statistic for brand-congruent behavior was significant for the Shapiro-Wilk test, again, due to the central limit theorem, in study 1b (n_{days} =367) normality of residuals is assumed for brand-congruent behavior.

---

[17] For reasons of simplicity, resulting graphs moderately deviating from the expected form of relationship were nevertheless be interpreted as approximately linear, since no other specification form seemed to be more appropriate in the given cases. The respective linearity plots can be found in the Electronic Appendix.

[18] Respective correlation matrices are presented in section 5.4.3.

[19] Due to the large number of groups in the studies, for the test statistics residuals pooled across groups were used as recommended by Raudenbush and Bryk (2002, p. 266).

The assumption of independence of residuals is generally not likely to be fulfilled in repeated measurements designs (Hofmann 1997, p. 739). To test for possible consequences of misspecified residuals for the model estimation, the full models estimated with model-based standard errors were compared with the results obtained with robust standard errors (cf. Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 259; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280). In both studies the model-based standard errors in the full model are in fair agreement with the robust standard errors and related p values, therefore it can be assumed that dependence of residuals is not a problem in any of the two studies.[20]

Furthermore, it is postulated that the variance of the error term must not depend on the level of the respective predictor variable. This was tested by computing the standardized measure of dispersion for each group (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 263) for both studies 1a and 1b. As both tests revealed low explanatory power in the full models predicting Customer-Oriented Behavior ($\chi^2_{1a} = 20.312, p > .500$; $\chi^2_{1b} = 31.093, p > .500$) and Brand-Congruent Behavior ($\chi^2_{1a} = 38.605, p > .310$; $\chi^2_{1b} = 37.512, p > .500$), homoscedasticity can be assumed in both studies 1a and 1b (Raudenbusch et al., p. 55).

Assumption (4) relates to the problem of level-1 endogeneity occurring when the independent variables included in the model at level 1 correlate with the level-1 residuals of the regression (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). To test for endogeneity at level 1, independent variables at level 1 in both studies 1a and 1b were correlated with the respective level-1 residuals. Since, no level-1 predictors inside the model were significantly correlated with the residuals at level 1, it can be assumed that endogeneity is not a problem at level 1 in study 1a or 1b (Antonakis et al. 2014, p. 99; Petrin and Train 2010, p. 4).[21]

Assumption (5) refers to the distribution of the residuals at level 2 and requires that all error terms are normally distributed (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). Again, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test can be employed to test the residuals' distribution (Backhaus et al. 2011, p. 96).

---

[20] For further details see **Table 59**, **Table 60**, **Table 61** and **Table 62** in Appendix B.
[21] For further details see **Table 63**, **Table 64**, **Table 65** and **Table 66** in Appendix B.

In study 1a at level 2 the test statistic for customer-oriented behavior was significant for both tests. Nevertheless, due to the central limit theorem ($N_{persons}=36$), in study 1a normality of residuals can be assumed for customer-oriented behavior. For brand-congruent behavior both tests revealed an insignificant test statistic, therefore normality of residuals at level 2 can be assumed. In study 1b, for customer-oriented behavior both tests revealed an insignificant test statistic, therefore normality of residuals at level 2 can be assumed. The test statistic for brand-congruent behavior was significant for the Shapiro-Wilk test. However, due to the sample size in study 1b ($N_{persons}=91$) being large enough, normality of residuals can be assumed for brand-congruent behavior.

Additionally, it is required that the residuals at level 2 are independent of each other, i.e., the level-2 error terms do not correlate significantly (Leeflang 2000, p. 332). To formally test for autocorrelation of level-2 residuals the Durbin-Watson test statistic is employed. The results revealed values of $DW_{Customer-Oriented\ Behavior}=1.629$ and $DW_{Brand-Congruent\ Behavior}=1.910$ in study 1a, respectively $DW_{Customer-Oriented\ Behavior}=1.927$ and $DW_{Brand-Congruent\ Behavior}=1.971$ in study 1b. All values in study 1a and 1b are fairly close to the value of 2 and distant to values of 0 or 4, suggesting that that the residuals are uncorrelated (Field 2013, p. 221; Leeflang 2000, p. 339).

Moreover, homogeneity at level 2 is assumed (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 273), but no direct test for level-2 homogeneity is available. However, as the full models estimated with model-based standard errors and robust standard errors are in high agreement in studies 1a and 1b, a possible misspecification of the variance of residuals at level 2 is not likely to bias results in these studies (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 259; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280).[22]

Assumption (6) relates to the problem of level-2 endogeneity is indicated when the independent variables included in the model at level 2 correlate with the level-2 residuals of the regression (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). No significant correlations of any independent variable with the respective level-2 residual could be detected in studies 1a or 1b, therefore it can be assumed that these models do

---

[22] For further details see **Table 59**, **Table 60**, **Table 61** and **Table 62** in Appendix B.

not suffer from level 2 endogeneity (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115) (c.f. assumption (2)).[23]

Independence of residuals across levels is required by assumption (7). As the comparison of the estimated full models with model-based and robust standard errors revealed close agreement of the models[24], a possible violation of the assumption of independent residuals across levels 1 and 2 does not lead to a bias in the estimation of the models of studies 1a and 1b (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280).

Assumption (8) relates to the problem of cross-level endogeneity is indicated when the independent variables included in the model at level 1 or level 2 correlate with the residuals of the regression across levels (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255). No significant correlations of the independent variables at level 1 or level 2 with the residual term at the different level could be detected in study 1a or study 1b.[25] Hence, it can be assumed that cross-level endogeneity is not a problem in the models in any of the two studies (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115).

Concluding, the inspection of level 1 and level 2 data and residuals for studies 1a and 1b revealed that the general assumptions of multiple regression as well as the assumptions of hierarchical linear modeling - at both levels of analysis as well as across the levels - are fulfilled. In cases of unavailability of a formal test (assumptions (3), (5) and (7)), consequences of possible misspecification of residuals for hypothesis testing could be ruled out. Deductively, in study 1 no formal reasons exist *not* to apply hierarchical linear modeling.

An overview of the assumptions, related criteria, respective results and the associated interpretations for studies 1a and 1b are presented in **Table 21** and **Table 22**.

---

[23] For further details see **Table 63**, **Table 64**, **Table 65** and **Table 66** in Appendix B.
[24] For further details see **Table 59**, **Table 60**, **Table 61** and **Table 62** in Appendix B.
[25] For further details see **Table 63**, **Table 64**, **Table 65** and **Table 66** in Appendix B.

Assumption	Criterion	Results	Interpretation	
General Assumptions of Linear Regression				
(1) Correct specification of the relationship between IVs and DVs	Visual inspection of scatterplot and linear trend line	Identification of linear relationships between IVs and DVs	Linear relationship between IVs and DVs can be assumed	✓
(2) No multicollinearity	Correlations among IVs	No correlations among IVs >.90	No multicollinearity in the data	✓
Assumptions of Hierarchical Linear Models				
(3) Normality of residuals at level 1	Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test; Sample size	KS-Test$_{COB}$ = .191 p = .002, SW-Test$_{COB}$ = .890 p = .002; KS-Test$_{BCB}$ = .081 p = .200, SW-Test$_{BCB}$ = .971 p = .456	Sample size is sufficiently large to assume normality of residuals for COB; Normality of BCB can be assumed	✓
Independence of residuals at level 1 (no autocorrelation)	Comparison of HLM (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Dependence of residuals is not a problem in the data	✓
Constant variance of residuals at level 1 (homoscedasticity)	Test of homoscedasticity (inherent in HLM7 software package)	χ^2_{COB} = 20.312 p > .500 χ^2_{BCB} = 38.605 p > .310	Homoscedasticity at level 1 can be assumed	✓
(4) No endogeneity at level 1	Correlations of IVs and residuals at level 1	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem at level 1	✓
(5) Normality of residuals at level 2	Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test; Sample size	KS-Test$_{COB}$ = .207 p = .000 SW-Test$_{COB}$ =.882 p = .001 KS-Test$_{BCB}$ = .091 p = 200 SW-Test$_{BCB}$ = .962 p = .242	Sample size is sufficiently large to assume normality of residuals for COB. Normality can be assumed for BCB	✓
Independence of residuals at level 2 (no autocorrelation)	Durbin-Watson test	DW$_{COB}$ = 1.629 DW$_{BCB}$ = 1.910	Autocorrelation is not a problem at level 1	✓
Constant variance of residuals at level 2 (homoscedasticity)	Comparison of HLM (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Heteroscedasticity is not a problem in the data at level 2	✓

Assumption	Criterion	Results	Interpretation	
(6) No endogeneity at level 2	Correlations of IVs and residuals at level 2	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem in the data at level 2	✓
(7) Independence of residuals across levels 1 and 2 (no cross-level autocorrelation)	Comparison of HLM (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Cross-level auto-correlation is not a problem in the data	✓
(8) No endogeneity across levels 1 and 2	Correlations of IVs at level 1 and residuals at level 2 and vice versa	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem across levels 1 and 2	✓

Table 21: **Inspection of Assumptions for Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Assumption	Criterion	Results	Interpretation	
General Assumptions of Linear Regression				
(1) Correct specification of the relationship between IVs and DVs	Visual inspection of scatterplot and linear trend line	Identification of linear relationships between IVs and DVs	Linear relationship between IVs and DVs can be assumed	✓
(2) No multicollinearity	Correlations among IVs	No correlations among IVs >.90	No multicollinearity in the data	✓
Assumptions of Hierarchical Linear Models				
(3) Normality of residuals at level 1	Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test; Sample size	KS-Test$_{COB}$ = .078 p = .200, SW-Test$_{COB}$ = .981 p = .206; KS-Test$_{BCB}$ = .078 p = .200, SW-Test$_{BCB}$ = .965 p = .014	Normality of COB can be assumed sample size is sufficiently large to assume normality of residuals for BCB;	✓
	Independence of residuals at level 1 (no autocorrelation)	Comparison of HLMs (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Dependence of residuals is not a problem in the data	✓
	Constant variance of residuals at level 1 (homoscedasticity)	Test of homo-scedasticity (Inherent in HLM7 software package)	χ^2_{COB} = 31.098 p > .500 χ^2_{BCB} = 37.512 p >.510	Homoscedasticity at level 1 can be assumed	✓
(4) No endogeneity at level 1	Correlations of IVs and residuals at level 1	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem at level 1	✓

Table continues on the next page

Assumption	Criterion	Results	Interpretation	
(5) Normality of residuals at level 2	Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test ; Sample size	KS-Test$_{COB}$ = .077 p = .200 SW-Test$_{COB}$ = .983 p = .270 KS-Test$_{BCB}$ = .075 p = .200 SW-Test$_{BCB}$ = .959 p = .006	Normality can be assumed for COB; Sample size is sufficiently large to assume normality of residuals for BCB	✓
Independence of residuals at level 2 (no autocorrelation)	Durbin-Watson-Test	DW$_{COB}$=1.927 DW$_{BCB}$=1.971	Autocorrelation is not a problem at level 1	✓
Constant variance of residuals at level 2 (homoscedasticity)	Comparison of HLMs (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Heteroscedasticity is not a problem in the data at level 2	✓
(6) No endogeneity at level 2	Correlations of IVs and residuals at level 2	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem in the data at level 2	✓
(7) Independence of residuals across levels 1 and 2 (no cross-level autocorrelation)	Comparison of HLMs (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Cross-level auto-correlation is not a problem in the data	✓
(8) No endogeneity across levels 1 and 2	Correlations of IVs at level 1 and residuals at level 2 and vice versa	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem across levels 1 and 2	✓

Table 22: Inspection of Assumptions for Study 1b

Source: Author's illustration.

5.4.3 Results of the Hierarchical Models: Hypotheses Testing

Table 23 and **Table 24** show the means, standard deviations and both between- and within-person correlations for the key study variables of study 1a and 1b. In order to test the hypotheses of study 1, two-level hierarchical linear modeling via the software package HLM7 was applied. The statistical and conceptual foundations of this approach are outline in section 4.3. Formally, days (level-1) were nested within individuals (level-2). Model testing proceeded in two phases for study 1a as an unconstrained (null) model (one-way ANCOVA with random effects) and a combined intercepts-as-outcomes and random coefficient regression

model were estimated in order to test for level-1 and level-2 effects while control-ling for the other level respectively. For study 1b additionally a random-slopes model to test for significant slope variance and an intercepts-and-slopes-as-out-comes model in order to test for cross-level associations were run. To estimate the effect sizes (pseudo-R^2) of organizational identification at level 2 and organiza-tional identity salience at level 1 on the outcome variables, separate intercepts-as-outcome models and random-coefficient regressions, excluding control variables at both levels, were estimated for study 1b.[26]

---

[26] Results for pseudo-R^2 are reported in the text, while the associated models for study 1b are presented in **Table 67** and **Table 68** in Appendix B.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
Within-Person Variables						
1. Daily Organizational Identity Salience	5.92	1.19		.59 **	.57 **	.53 **
2. Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	6.19	1.11	.55 **		.56 **	.46 **
			.50 **			
3. Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	4.62	1.80	.54 **	.56 **		.37 *
			.34 **	*.21* *		
Between-Person Variable						
4. Organizational Identification	4.97	1.22				

Note: Correlations above the diagonal are between-person correlations, whereas within-person variables were computed by aggregating each variable across days within participants. Correlations below the diagonal are within-person correlations. Correlations presented in *italics* are within-person correlations calculated with variables centered at the respective group mean (i.e. person mean). All correlations are Pearson's coefficients. n = 145 within-person observations; N = 36 participants. *p<.05; **p<.01

Table 23:   **Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Within-Person Variables										
1. Daily Organizational Identity Salience	4.39	1.68						.49 **	-.14	-.05
2. Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	5.66	1.11	.24 **					.13	.01	-.11
			.30 **							
3. Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	5.62	1.26	.37 **	.51 **				.26 *	.08	-.05
			.27 **	*.43* **						
4. Daily Positive Affect	3.77	.77	.41 **	.49 **	.33 **			.12	-.10	-.06
			.36 **	*.31* **	*.18* **					
5. Daily Negative Affect	1.52	.73	-.30 **	-.15 **	-.19 **	-.28 **		-.04	-.31 **	.15
			-.25 **	*-.23* **	*-.25* **	*-.20* **				
Between-Person Variables										
6. Organizational Identification	4.25	1.31							.04	-.08
7. Age	41.19	.30								-.18
8. Gender	1.43	.62								

Note: Correlations above the diagonal are between-person correlations, whereas within-person variables were computed by aggregating each variable across days within participants. Correlations below the diagonal are within-person correlations. Correlations presented in *italics* are within-person correlations calculated with variables centered at the respective group mean (i.e. person mean), therefore all between-person variance is removed. All correlations are Pearson's coefficients. n = 367 within-person observations. N = 91 participants. Gender is dummy coded 1 = males 2 = females. *p<.05; **p<.01

Table 24: **Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

5.4.3.1 Within-Person Variance

Before proceeding with the hierarchical linear analyses, it was verified whether multilevel analyses were at all reasonable by partitioning the daily variables' within- and between-person variance. Little or no variation in the daily variables is an unequivocal indication that the respective construct should be conceptualized as stable and thus at a between-person level rather than a within-person level (Spence *et al.* 2014, p. 722). This testing procedure also provides a test of hypotheses 1, 2a and 2b, proposing that organizational identity salience, customer-oriented behavior and brand-congruent behavior fluctuate within-person across days.

In order to differentiate observed within-person variance from between-person variance, a null model without any present independent variables at neither the between- nor the within-person level was executed on all of the three daily variables and ICCs were calculated. As presented in **Table 25,** this procedure yields evidence that all three daily variables vary statistically significant at the within-person level, albeit most of the variance is found between the subjects.

Variable	Within-Person Variance (σ^2)	Between-Person-Variance (τ_{00})	Percent of within-person variance ($\sigma^2/(\sigma^2+\tau_{00})$)	
Study 1a				
Organizational Identity Salience	.37	1.05	26%	H1✓
Customer-Oriented Behavior	.47	.71	40%	H2a✓
Brand-Congruent Behavior	1.12	2.07	35%	H2b✓
Study 1b				
Organizational Identity Salience	.66	2.23	23%	H1✓
Customer-Oriented Behavior	.52	.69	43%	H2a✓
Brand-Congruent Behavior	.67	.93	42%	H2b✓

Note: To partition variance components the null model was estimated using the restricted maximum-likelihood estimator. All of the variance components were significant (p<.001).

Table 25: **Partitioned Variance Components of Within-Person Variables in Study 1a and Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Further, hypotheses 1a, 2a and 2b could be supported for both studies 1a and 1b. To exemplify the systematic variation in the variables at hand across days, **Figure 10** shows the within-person variance in customer-oriented behavior of two participants over five study days. The customer-oriented behavior of frontline employee A (anonymous study-code: IBAK$_{study1a}$) varied to a large extent over the five days of the study (2, 5.33, 6, 5, 7, mean: 5.1), while frontline employee B (anonymous study-code: SAAA$_{study1a}$) tended to be more stable, albeit still varying from day to day, with regard to customer-oriented behavior (6.75, 6.25, 6.75, 6, 5.25, mean: 6.2). These two individuals do not only exhibit mean differences between-persons in customer-oriented behavior, but also noteworthy variance within-person across days. On day 5, despite the generally lower mean of 5.1 compared to 6.2, employee A even outperforms employee B with regard to B's customer-oriented behavior.
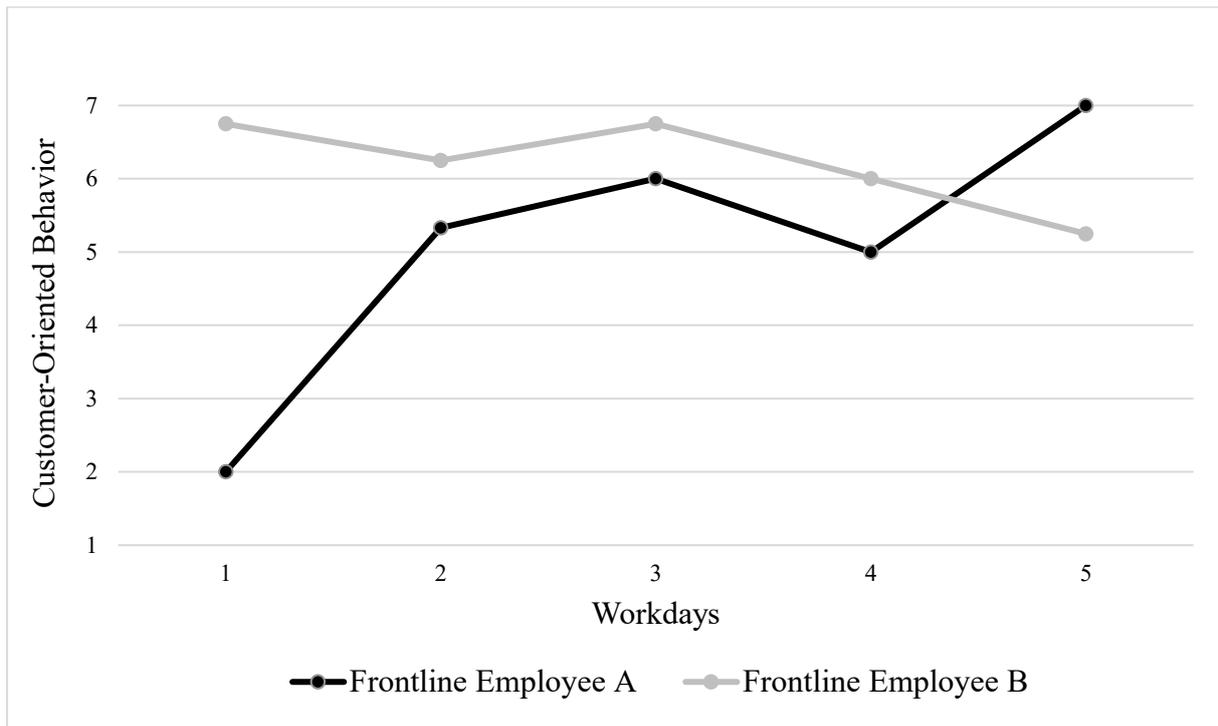
Figure 10: **Within-Person Variation in Customer-Oriented Behavior**

Source: Author's illustration.

5.4.3.2 Between-Person Effects

Hypotheses 3a and 3b postulated between-person organizational identification would be positively related to the mean level of daily customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. In order to test these hypotheses, individuals' person-means, i.e., the intercepts, of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior were regressed on between-person scores of organizational identification (intercepts-as-outcomes model), controlling for within-person effects of organizational identity salience in the random-coefficient regression model simultaneously. In study 1b, the responses for between-person controls age and gender at level 2 and within-person controls daily positive and negative affect at level 1 were additionally regressed on the outcome scores. As appropriate when comparing effects between individuals, all between-person variables were centered around the grand-mean (cf. section 4.3.3). In study 1a, the results of the intercepts-as-outcomes model showed support for both hypotheses 3a and 3b as the between-person level of organizational identification revealed a positive effect on the mean levels of customer-oriented (standardized estimate = .34, SE = .11, t = 3.08, p <. 01) and brand-congruent behaviors (standardized estimate = .46, SE = .19, t = 2.39, p <

.05). In study 1b, the results did not confirm the effect of general level of organizational identification on customer-oriented behavior (standardized estimate = .09, $SE = .07$, $t = 1.28$, $p = .205$), but the effect on mean levels of brand-congruent behavior (standardized estimate = .21, $SE = .08$, $t = 2.563$, $p < .05$) was found. Hence, in study 1b, hypothesis 3a was supported, whereas hypothesis 3b had to be rejected. The calculation of the pseudo-R^2 in study 1a revealed that organizational identification explained 21% of the between-person variance in customer-oriented behavior and 14% of the between-person variance in brand-congruent behavior. In study 1b, organizational identification, age and gender, accounted for only 1% of the between-person variance of customer-oriented behavior. 8% of the between-person variance in brand-congruent behavior were accounted for in study 1b. Effect sizes remained at those levels for organizational identification when control variables were excluded from the model.

5.4.3.3 Within-Person Effects

Hypotheses 4a and 4b predicted that daily organizational identity salience would be positively related to daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. In order to test these hypotheses the same models that were used to test hypotheses 3a and 3b were employed, but within-person effects were interpreted. Particularly, daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior were regressed on daily organizational identity salience scores in a random-coefficient regression, controlling for between-person effects of organizational identification at level 2. In study 1b the daily levels of positive and negative affect were additionally regressed on the daily outcome scores, in order to rule out affect as an alternative explanation of the results. As appropriate when comparing measurement occasions within-persons, all scores of the daily predictor variables (organizational identity salience, positive and negative affect) were centered around the respective person-mean (cf. section 4.3.3), consequently eliminating all between-person variance in the scores. In both sub-studies, the results of the random-coefficient regression showed support for both hypotheses 4a and 4b, as the daily level of organizational identity salience had a positive effect on individuals' daily levels of customer-oriented (study 1a: standardized estimate = .58, $SE = .09$, $t = 6.26$, $p < .001$; study 1b: standardized estimate = .17, $SE = .05$, $t = 3.15$, $p < .001$) and brand-congruent behaviors (study 1a: standardized estimate = .66, $SE = .16$, $t = 4.24$, $p < .001$; study 1b: standardized estimate = .22, $SE = .06$, $t = 3.48$, $p < .001$).

Controlling for all between-person variance of organizational identification (studies 1a and 1b) and controlling for within-person variance of positive and negative affect (study 1b), hypotheses 4a and 4b could be supported. At the within-person level, in study 1a, organizational identity salience accounted for 26% of the variance in customer-oriented behavior and 14% of the variance in brand-congruent behavior. In study 1b, organizational identity salience solely explained 9% of the within-person variance of customer-oriented behavior, and 16% when adding positive and negative affect to the model. Regarding brand-congruent behavior, organizational identity salience separately explained 7%, while 11% were explained when organizational identity salience was augmented with positive and negative affect.

5.4.3.4 Cross-Level-Interactions

In study 1b, hypotheses 5a and 5b predicted a negative interacting effect of between-level organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on reported daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. Before testing these cross-level moderator effects, it was reasonable to examine whether there is significant variance in the intra-individual slopes of organizational identity salience for predicting customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior among individuals. Hence, the slope of organizational identity salience was allowed to vary randomly in the model by adding a random error term to it (random-slopes model). While the χ^2 test for the variance in the organizational identity salience slope on customer-oriented behavior did not reach significance ($p > .500$), the results of the random-slopes model revealed significant variability in the intra-individual slopes for predicting brand-congruent behavior ($p < .05$). To formally test the predicted cross-level interaction of organizational identification, in a next step the detected slope variances were predicted by estimating a full intercepts-and-slopes model. In this model, organizational identification (predicting the slope of organizational identity salience) was centered around the sample grand-mean (cf. section 4.3.3.). No support for the interactive effect of organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on customer-oriented behavior was found (standardized estimate = -.052, $SE = .05$, $t = -1.16$, $p = .247$), therefore hypotheses 5a was rejected. This comes as no surprise, given the absence of significant variance in the respective intra-individual regression coefficient. However, even if in a strict sense not interpretable, the direction of the

insignificant effect points to the predicted effect direction. For reported levels of daily brand-congruent behavior, the results showed strong support for the interactive effect of organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience. At the between-person level organizational identification significantly predicted the first-level regression coefficient of organizational identity salience and the direction of the effect was negative (standardized estimate = -.10, SE = .06, t = -1.72, p = .09), hence hypothesis 5b was confirmed. Overall, pseudo-R^2 revealed that 9% of the between-person variance in the within-person slope of organizational identity salience for predicting daily brand-congruent behavior could be explained by between-person scores of organizational identification.

Figure 11 and **Figure 12** show the cross-level interactions of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. The graphs indicate that not only do frontline employees who score high on organizational identification engage more often in customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior (between-person effect), but also that these frontline employees indicate a more consistent pattern of these behaviors across days. That is, when highly identified frontline employees are compared to those who are less identified, the extent to which the identified individuals engage in brand-building behaviors is less dependent on their momentary organizational identity salience (within-person effect). Although the between-person direct and interactive effects are not significant for the outcome customer-oriented behavior, the effect directions as depicted in **Figure 11** suggest the same trends.
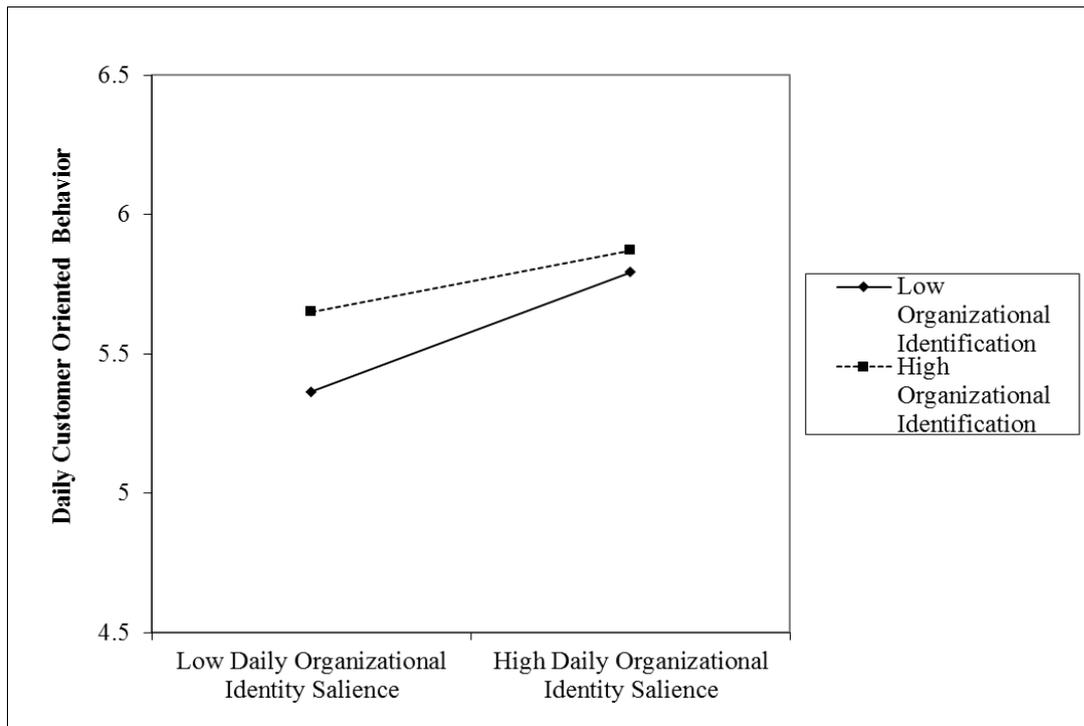
Figure 11: **Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification and Identity Salience on Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.
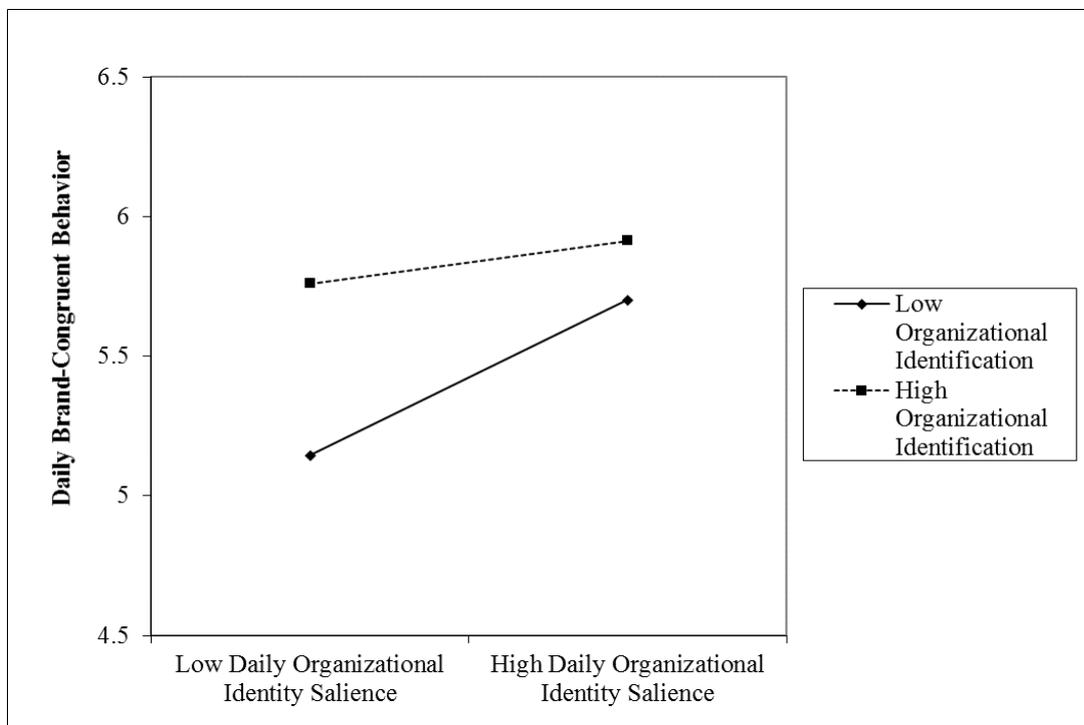
Figure 12: **Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification and Identity Salience on Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

The results of the estimated models are presented in **Table 26** and **Table 27** for study 1a and in **Table 28** and **Table 29** for study 1b.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Intercepts-as-Outcomes and Random Coefficient Regression Model				
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		
Intercept	6.201	.150	41.42	***	6.199	.133	46.703	***	
Between-Person Predictor									
Organizational Identification					.338	.110	3.083	**	H3a✓
Within-Person Predictor									
Daily Organizational Identity Salience					.583	.093	6.256	***	H4a✓
-2*log (lh)	369.943				328.05				
Diff -2*log					40.95	**			
df					2				
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)	.474 (.064)				.349 (.047)				
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)	.685 (.191)				.544 (.150)				
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1					26%				
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					21%				

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SE = Standard Error

Table 26: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Intercepts-as-Outcomes and Random Coefficient Regression Model			
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	4.622	.252	18.306	***	4.619	.234	19.714	***
Between-Person Predictor								
Organizational Identification					.463	.194	2.388	* H3b✓
Within-Person Predictor								
Daily Organizational Identity Salience					.655	.155	4.235	*** H4b✓
-2*log (lh)		501.290				479.393		
Diff -2*log						21.897	*	
df						2		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.119 (.152)				.962 (.130)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		2.007 (.542)				1.729 (.467)		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1						14%		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2						14%		

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SE = Standard Error

Table 27: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)			Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model			Random-Slopes Model			Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)			
	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	5.669	.094	60.024 ***	5.670	.092	61.031 ***				5.670	.093	61.041 ***	
Between-Person Predictors													
Organizational Identification				.091	.072	1.278				.091	.071	1.277	H3a✗
Age				-.001	.009	-.153				-.001	.008	-.174	
Gender				-.155	.158	-.982				-.158	.154	-1.031	
Within-Person Predictors													
Daily Organizational Identity Salience				.168	.053	3.148 ***				.162	.055	2.957 **	H4a✓
Daily Positive Affect				.283	.079	3.599 ***				.286	.079	3.639 ***	
Daily Negative Affect				-.220	.084	-2.603 **				-.221	.084	-2.630 **	
Cross-Level Interaction													
Organizational Identification x Daily Organizational Identity Salience										-.052	.045	-1.157	H5a✗
-2*log (lh)		962.239			911.943			911.455			910.34		
Diff -2*log					50.269 ***			.488			1.115		
df					5			2			1		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.515 (.044)			.434 (.037)			.422 (.039)			.427 (.040)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.678 (.162)			.670 (.116)			.672 (.116)			.670 (.116)		
Daily Organizational Identity Salience Slope								.019 (.028) n.s.			.007 (.025)		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1					16%								
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					1%								

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SE = Standard Error

Table 28:   Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1b

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)			Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model			Random-Slopes Model			Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)			
	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	5.633	.109	51.463 ***	5.632	.105	53.462 ***				5.632	.106	53.345 ***	
Between-Person Predictors													
Organizational Identification				.207	.081	2.563 *				.207	.081	2.567 *	H3b✓
Age				.001	.009	.632				.002	.009	.259	
Gender				-.035	.175	-.200				-.022	.164	-.133	
Within-Person Predictors													
Daily Organizational Identity Salience				.219	.063	3.482 ***				.177	.071	2.490 *	H4b✓
Daily Positive Affect				.028	.092	.301				.112	.091	1.227	
Daily Negative Affect				-.330	.099	-3.333 ***				-.294	.096	-3.065 **	
Cross-Level Interaction													
Organizational Identification x													
Daily Identity Salience										-.101	.059	-1.719 +	H5b✓
-2*log (lh)		1063.087			1023.794			1010.681			1007.961		
Diff -2*log					39.293 ***			13.112 **			2.720 +		
df					6.000			2.000			1.000		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.673 (.057)			.599 (.051)			.536 (.055)			.540 (.051)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.916 (.162)			.855 (.150)			.878 (.150)			.875 (.151)		
Daily Organizational Identity Salience Slope								.115 (.056) *			.089 (.050) +		
Pseudo-R² Level 1					11%								
Pseudo-R² Level 2					8%								
Pseudo-R² Slope											23%		

Note. Est. = Estimate; $^+$p<.10*p<.05; **p<.01;***p<.001; SE = Standard Error

Table 29: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

5.4.3.5 Additional Analyses

Given the design of the study, even though the within-person hypotheses was derived from social identity approach, which suggests a causal effect of organizational identification and its salience on performance outcomes, the statistical analyses presented above cannot rule out a reversed causal effect. To investigate causality, adopting the procedure of Ilies *et al.* (2006, p. 569) and Spence *et al.* (2014, p. 729), the effects of brand-building behavior ratings submitted at day $d - 1$ on organizational identity salience submitted at day d in study 1a were estimated. The analyses revealed that neither customer-oriented (standardized estimate =-.13, $SE = .08$, $t = -.16$, $p = .873$) nor brand-congruent behavior (standardized estimate =.06, $SE = .05$, $t = 1.01$, $p = .315$) predicted organizational identity salience on the next day. These results are in line with the social identity approach, suggesting causality from organizational identity to performance outcomes and not the other way around.

A convenience sample with participants stemming from various organizational and occupational backgrounds, as used in study 1b, naturally exhibits high levels of heterogeneity. In order to further underpin the robustness of the findings and to rule out the possibility of alternative explanations effects other than the ones tested (age and gender), a set of additional control variables of high relevance in the study context were included in the analyses at the between-person level. Particularly, it was controlled for employees' reported levels of brand-knowledge dissemination, i.e., the degree to which the organization generally provides employees with information on the specific behaviors that are desired to be exhibited in the customer encounter. Controlling for this effect, it was ruled out that employees differed in the degree to which they actually knew how to behave according to brand standards and therefore differed in their general level of brand-building behaviors. Further, the frontline employees' typical amount of customer contact at work was controlled for at the between-person level, thereby the option of highly experienced employees outperforming less experienced ones was controlled for. The inclusion of any of the additional control variables did not alter the results (direction and significance levels) for the hypothesized direct effects.[27]

---

[27] Results of the analyses can be found in **Table 69** and **Table 70** in Appendix B.

5.5 Discussion of the Findings

Study 1, consisting of two daily ESM sub-studies, represents a first successful empirical approach towards the disaggregation of between-person and within-person components with regard to organizational identification and the investigation of related isolated as well as interacting effects of both levels on two important dimensions of frontline employees' brand-building behaviors, namely customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. A first approximation of the up to this day overlooked dynamic components of brand-building behaviors and the social identity approach has been administered.

Specifically, pertaining to the first research question addressed in this investigation, significant between-person as well as within-person variance in all daily constructs could be demonstrated in studies 1a and 1b. Particularly, within-person variance in customer-oriented behavior (40% and 43%) and brand-congruent behavior (35% and 42%) exhibited more than a third [in some cases almost half] of the overall variance in the constructs. These findings are in line with the within-person performance approach to work behavior (e.g., Dalal *et al.* 2009; Sonnentag and Frese 2009) and speak for the conceptual and practical importance of studying the brand-building behavior of frontline-employees at both the between-person and within-person level. Regardless of their typical levels of brand-building behaviors, frontline employees fluctuate to a substantial degree in daily levels of these behaviors, i.e., on some days perform in a customer-oriented and brand-congruent manner above their personal mean, on other days they perform below that level. In line with the predictions of the social identity approach as well as the conceptual reflections of Becker et al. (2013) on within-person variation in company-employee bonds (e.g., commitment or identification), the findings of study 1 suggest that both between-person and within-person levels of analysis are important when studying the link of organizational identification and frontline-employees brand-building behaviors. In accordance with Ketturat et al. (2016), who showed disaggregated effects of between-person and within-person identification with sport teams on students' stress reactions, the within-person variance in organizational identification salience in study 1 depicted approximately one quarter of the overall variance of the construct (26% and 23%). These results indicate that frontline employees on some days have a high sense of shared identity with their employing organization (high organizational identity salience) and then

experience little or no identification on other days (low organizational identity salience).

Responding to the second research question of this work, the hierarchical linear modeling of direct effects revealed that both between-person levels of organizational identification and within-person levels of organizational identity salience contributed significantly to explaining frontline employees' brand-building behaviors. At the between-person level, organizational identification predicted general tendencies of frontline employees to engage in customer-oriented and brand-congruent behaviors in study 1a, which is in line with previous research on this relationship (cf. Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014; Morhart *et al.* 2009). Same results could be obtained for brand-congruent behavior in study 1b. At the within-person level, daily scores of organizational identity salience explained within-person fluctuations across days in both brand-building behaviors, controlling for between-person effects of organizational identification. With regard to the expected cross-level interaction of organizational identification addressed in the third research question, in case of brand-congruent behavior, the buffering effect of between-person organizational identification could be detected, indicating that frontline employees who on average are more strongly identified with their organization are less sensitive toward daily changes in their experienced identification with regard to their subsequent brand-congruent behavior at the customer encounter. Vice versa, those less identified at the between-person level, more strongly act on their daily levels of organizational identity salience and consequently fluctuate more in daily brand-congruent behaviors.

Despite the fact that most of the proposed relationships could be supported in study 1a and 1b, the main effect of between-person organizational identification as well as the predicted cross-level interaction with organizational identity salience on customer-oriented behavior was not supported by the data of study 1b. There are several possible explanations for these insignificant effects. First, due to limitations of the statistical power at the between-person level, there is an increased risk of attaining insignificant effects. Ketturat *et al.* (2016, p. 153) showed in their study with regard to power that a comparable sample size at the between-person level (N=85) and four measurement occasions per individual at the within-person level, exhibited limited power for detecting between-person effects. In line with that, in study 1b between-person level results could have partially become

equivocal and further research should employ a stronger study design in order to gain conclusive results on these effects. Second, because a large part of participants only took part in the daily diary-study on three out of the overall five work days, the detected within-person variation in the daily constructs is likely to be restricted compared to their true dimension. This limitation could have led to the absence of a significant slope of daily organizational identity salience in customer-oriented behavior and caused the insignificant cross-level interaction of organizational identification. The significant moderation of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on brand-congruent behavior, however, affirmed the assumption that a buffering effect of organizational identification exists.

Overall, this study directly advances research on intra-individual patterns of service performance by introducing a novel intra-individual perspective on the social identity approach in organizations and relating it to customer-oriented and brand-building behaviors of frontline employees at the customer encounter. Across two diary studies, evidence for the dynamic conceptualization of these behaviors was provided and disaggregated between- and within-person effects of organizational identification could be linked to respective levels of brand-building behaviors of frontline-employees. These findings held above and beyond several theoretically relevant controls at both the between- and within-person level. However, all findings depict rather conservative representations of the true relationships, as neither of the samples of studies 1a and 1b offered ideal suitability. Despite the small sample size of study 1a at the between-person level and the heterogeneous convenience sample in study 1b, most of the proposed relationships could be detected. While there was strong evidence for the within-person effects of daily organizational identity salience on daily patterns of brand-building behaviors, first hints on direct between-person and cross-level interacting effects of organizational identification were found.

6 Study 2

6.1 Objective and Proceeding

Study 2 of this work pursued the twofold objective of replicating and extending the findings of study 1, in order to further enhance confidence in the importance of within-person variation of organizational identity salience, beyond the between-person conceptualization of organizational identification, in predicting within-person levels of frontline employees' brand-building behaviors. In order to achieve this, several design changes were implemented compared to study 1. First, in order to optimize power at the between-person level, a larger sample size of $N_{persons}$=102 participants (n_{days}=381) was realized. Second, following the example of high-ranking ESM studies (e.g., Rothbard and Wilk 2011; Spence *et al.* 2014), the daily measurement of variables was implemented at two separate measurement points (before and after the work shift), therefore reducing one source of endogeneity in the data and ruling out reversed causality between some of the constructs.

As demonstrated in study 1, two facets of frontline employees' brand-building behavior, namely customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, do significantly vary within-persons across days. Between-person effects of organizational identification and within-person effects of daily organizational identity salience could be empirically disaggregated and isolated effects of both components on frontline employees' brand-congruent behaviors could be identified, as well as an interacting effect on daily brand-congruent behavior. Building upon the valuable, albeit limited, insights that were gained in study 1, in study 2 the previous conceptual reference frame is extended in two directions. First, a further important dimension of frontline-employees' brand-building behavior supplementing customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, namely emotional labor, is included as an outcome variable of the disaggregated effects of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on both levels of the investigation (research questions 1, 2 and 3). Particularly, two emotional labor strategies, deep and surface acting, are introduced as additional dependent variables in study 2. Second, the focus of the study is broadened by considering intra-individual levels of frontline employees' organization-based self-esteem as a psychological within-person predictor of daily organizational identity salience (research question 4), thereby drawing on considerations rooted in the social identity approach and in

theory on self-esteem. At this, a particular emphasis is placed on the investigation of interacting effects of frontline employees' general level of organization-based self-esteem to explain intra-induvial differences in frontline employees' sensitivity to daily within-person changes of this same construct (research question 4).

The extended conceptual frame is developed by implementing a procedure analogous to study 1. Based on the theoretical foundations of the social identity approach, hypotheses of the disaggregated effects of general organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on frontline-employees' emotional labor strategies are derived. Existing empirical literature will further be consulted to support the presented argumentation. Finally, the integrative framework for study 2 will be depicted in section 6.2.2.

The developed hypotheses in study 2 were examined by means of a daily ESM-study for the course of a work week (similar to study 1) among 102 frontline employees (over 381 days) from different German sales shops of an internationally operating FMCG company. The control variables age and gender assessed in study 1 at the between-person level were re-included in the hierarchical linear model in study 2. Frontline employees' tenure was added as a complementary control variable at the between-person level in study 2. Additionally, personality traits that have been linked to frontline employees' engagement in emotional labor at the between-person level in academic literature, were incorporated as control variables for the suggested direct and interacting effects in the respective analyses predicting deep acting and surface acting. Daily positive and negative affect in study 2 was assessed at the start of the work-shift and controlled for in all analyses at the within-person level.

6.2 Hypotheses and Conceptualization of the Framework

6.2.1 Effects on Emotional Labor

As study 2 party depicts a replication of study 1, hypotheses 1 to 5 of study 1 are also tested in study 2. A repeated presentation and formal derivation of these relationships is abstained from at this point. The detailed development of hypotheses 1 to 5 is depicted in section 5.2.1. In the following, hypotheses 6 to 10 are conceptually derived and stated.

6.2.1.1 Between-Person Effects of Organizational Identification

A frontline employee's role involves the duty of creating a favorable image of the organization and its brand through positive emotional displays (Hochschild 2003, p. 137). In order to display those emotions that are desired by their organization, frontline employees perform emotional labor strategies, which are especially needed when employees do not actually experience the emotions they ought to express (Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013, p. 475). In line with the social identity approach and equal to the presented reasoning on between-person effects of frontline employees' general level of organization identification on customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior (section 5.2.1.2), it is argued that a general high level of organizational identification induces frontline employees to generally engage in organizationally desired forms of emotional display, namely deep acting, and leads them to avoid emotional labor strategies, which harm the customer-company relationship, like surface acting. Deep acting, i.e., the active modification of inner feelings in order to display authentic emotions (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 95; Hochschild 2003, p. 34), leaves customers with perceptions of high service quality and sincerity (Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 68), which fosters their positive evaluation of the overall service brand (Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 113). Prone to enhance their own self-esteem, employees with generally high levels of organization identification classify the overall achievement of organizational goals as their own success (Tajfel and Turner 1979, p. 34). Hence, they will be generally motivated to display authentic emotions and truly experience the feelings they exhibit, as these behaviors lead to overall organizational success (cf. Groth *et al.* 2009, p. 968; Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 68) and therefore reflect positively on their own general self-esteem.

Moreover, the display of authentic emotions during the customer encounter can be regarded as a part of most service organizations' identities, as service companies oftentimes provide written or unwritten statements of requirements with regard to emotional display by requesting frontline employees to display authentic emotions and to avoid mainly superficial outer modification of emotional expressions (cf. Allen *et al.* 2010, p. 102; Grandey *et al.* 2010, p. 389). These norms on emotional display are deployed in successful service companies to guide frontline employees' behavior at the service encounter. According to the social identity approach, the more employees define themselves in terms of their membership in the organization, the more they are prone to act in accordance with the group's norms (cf. Ashforth and Mael 1989; Dutton *et al.* 1994; Turner *et al.* 1987) and therefore should be generally prone to follow organizationally enacted display rules and authentically modify their emotions by engaging in deep acting and minimizing surface acting. In line with that, previous research has demonstrated that when frontline employees' organizational identification is low, the value of being an employee of that organization is of minor importance to their sense of self and they lack an inherent need to conform to organizational norms or act on behalf of the organization (Bhattacharya and Elsbach 2002, p. 26), which should result in surface acting rather than deep acting. Additionally, as highly identified employees are cognitively aligned with the in-group prototype and adapt their behaviors accordingly (cf. Turner *et al.* 1987, p. 11), they will be prone to engage in emotional labor strategies that are representative for a prototypical group member and are consistent with the core characteristics of the brand. As the display of sincere and authentic positive emotions should be core to most modern service brands (cf. Grandey *et al.* 2010, p. 389), frontline employees with high general level of organization identification should engage in deep acting and avoid surface acting.

Subsumed, the higher frontline-employees' general level of organization identification is, the more relevant this part of the self-concept will be for their self-definition and the more will they align their behavior in terms of the group prototype. Consequently, the more identified with the organization on average, the more likely frontline employees will be to engage in deep acting and avoid surface acting in the service encounter. Hence, the following is formally hypothesized:

H6a: Frontline employees' organizational identification has a positive effect on their average level of deep acting.

H6b: Frontline employees' organizational identification has a negative effect on their average level of surface acting.

6.2.1.2 Within-Person Effects of Organizational Identity Salience

Based on the suggested within-person component of organization identification, namely organizational identity salience, and the reasoning developed in hypotheses 4a and 4b (section 5.2.3), daily within-person depersonalization and self-stereotyping processes determine the extent to which frontline employees are aware of their organizational membership on the given day (cf. van Knippenberg 2000, p. 357). Subsequently, the extent to which the organizational membership is experienced on that respective day (daily organizational identity salience) will, irrespective of the frontline employee's general level of organizational identification, affect behaviors that are performed as a consequence of the organizational membership on the associated day (cf. Becker *et al.* 2013, p. 143). With respect to the consequences of daily organizational identity salience, in addition to customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior (H4a and H4b), it is suggested that daily levels of frontline employees' organizational identity salience will affect their engagement in emotional labor strategies, namely deep and surface acting, on the respective day.

Particularly, on a workday when a frontline-employee's organizational identity is notably activated, depersonalization and self-assimilation in terms of the social group and the group prototype should be accentuated compared to the average level (cf. van Knippenberg 2000, p. 360). On days when frontline employees experience organizational membership more strongly than usually (increase in organizational identity salience), they should be more likely to act in the interest of the organization (cf. Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 102). Moreover, they should strongly feel the sense of a common fate with their organization (cf. Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 22) and have an increased personal interest to comply to the organization's best interest on that day (cf. van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006, p. 572). Because the degree of organizational identity salience on a given day, represents the level of awareness and therefore the actual experience of the cognitive link between the self-definition and the organizational identity that day, it follows that the linkage between organizational goals and the individual goals should be enhanced when organizational identity salience is high (cf. Tajfel

1978b, p. 71). Employees will define themselves as a prototypical member of the organization and organizational interest will become self-interests, resulting in increased levels of employee behaviors that are in line with organizational goals, e.g., displaying authentic and sincere emotions by actually modifying felt emotions (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, p. 32). As deep acting is motivated by employees' true care for the benefit accruing to the organization and the wish to increase company performance by displaying authentic emotions towards the customer (Mishra *et al.* 2012, p. 205), this behavior should be strongly pronounced when organizational interests become self-interests above an average degree, i.e., when frontline employees daily organizational identity salience is increased. Condensed, when frontline employees' organizational identity is strongly pronounced, they are more likely to assimilate and display emotions towards customers that are desirable from an organizational perspective, i.e. by engaging in deepacting.

A decrease of organizational identity salience on a given work day, however, will result in the converse effect, i.e., frontline employees' depersonalization and self-stereotyping as an organizational member should be inhibited compared to typical days (van Knippenberg 2000, p. 360). In surface acting, employees adapt their superficial emotional display and behavior in order to conform but do not change their true emotions (Grandey 2003, p. 88), risking hampered customer-company relationships (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 101; Von Gilsa *et al.* 2014, p. 884). The underlying motive is thus keeping ones job in the first place and not helping the customer or the organization. Accordingly, this "faking in bad faith" (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, p. 32) should be intensified when employees feeling of belongingness and assimilation of organizational goals and self-goals is reduced by decreased levels of organizational identity salience (cf. Tajfel 1978b, p. 71). If their experienced daily level of shared identity is below average, frontline employees consequently will be less motivated to modify their felt emotions in order to serve organizational goals and satisfy the customer, but rather "put on a service mask" (cf. Grandey 2003, p. 87). Not being intrinsically motivated to serve organizational goals, frontline employees will less than usually try to actually feel the emotions that should be displayed while interacting with customers, but are more likely to engage in surface acting (Zerbe 2002, p.191).

Subsumed, the degree of daily activation of a frontline employee's organizational identity (organizational identity salience), referring to the degree to which depersonalization and self-stereotyping processes in terms of the organization take place on a given day, should predict the extent to which frontline employees engage in deep and surface acting on the related day. These relationships should be found irrespective of frontline employees' general tendency to engage in emotional labor strategies, as this should be fostered by their average levels of organizational identification (cf. Ashforth and Mael 1989; Dutton *et al.* 1994; Turner *et al.* 1987). Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

H7a. Frontline employees' daily organizational identity salience has a positive effect on their daily levels of deep-acting when compared to an average workday.

H7b. Frontline employees' daily organizational identity salience has a negative effect on daily levels of their surface-acting when compared to an average workday.

6.2.1.3 Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification

Equivalent to the reasoning developed in hypotheses 5a and 5b, it is likely that frontline employees' general level of organizational identification interacts with their daily level of organizational identity salience, causing differences between individuals with respect to the intensity of organizational identity salience actually transforming into frontline employees' emotional labor. When frontline employees on a general level are strongly identified with the organization they work for, due to their strong bond and their increased general tendency to define themselves as an organizational member (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 34), they are likely to almost habitually engage in favorable organizational behaviors (Tajfel and Turner 1979, p. 34), i.e., they should tend to choose deep acting over surface acting with respect to emotional labor (cf. H6a and H6b). In addition to this general tendency, frontline employees' general level of organizational identification is likely to influence the degree to which frontline employees are sensitive with regard to changes in their daily levels of organizational identity salience.

Particularly it is argued that a strong general level of organizational identification can buffer against decreased daily levels of organizational identity salience and

counterbalance, at least to a certain degree, the negative effects of diminished daily experienced levels of identification. Pertaining to the previously introduced reasoning, frontline employees' general high level of organizational identification, i.e., their deeply-routed self-interest to foster organizational value in order to enhance their own self-esteem (cf. Turner and Tajfel 1986, pp. 16 f), is likely to operate as a mental reserve leading the employee to hold on to typical and generally desirable emotional labor strategies of deep acting and further avoid surface acting, even on days when their bond with the organization is less accentuated than typically (low organizational identity salience). The degree to which highly identified frontline employees' derive their own general self-esteem, proportionally depends more significantly on the organizations' success than it does for other employees. Therefore, highly identified employees should try to keep up their typical levels of deep acting, fearing the potential negative consequences of inauthentic emotional display through surface acting. (Groth *et al.* 2009, p. 968; Hennig-Thurau *et al.* 2006, p. 68; Sirianni *et al.* 2013, p. 113) Aiming on the protection of their own self-esteem, they will try to hold on to their typical high performance levels and consequently diminish the negative behavioral consequences of low organizational identity salience. Frontline employees with a generally weak bond with the organization (low general level of organizational identification) lacking this motivation (cf. Turner and Tajfel 1986, p. 16), are likely to be more cue sensitive with regard to daily changes of organizational identity salience and therefore more strongly increase surface acting and even less than usually engage in deep acting when their organizational identity salience falls below average. Subsumed, the general level of organizational identification buffers against negative consequences of the diminished current awareness of the social identity (daily organizational identity salience) and therefore decreases the extent to which a highly identified frontline employee adapts his or her daily emotional labor strategies to the experienced level of organizational identity salience. Low identified employees, however, lack this subconscious buffer of a general high level of organizational identification and therefore more strongly act out their daily levels of organizational identity salience and engage in surface acting over deep acting.

Moreover, for highly identified frontline employees, when experiencing increased levels of daily organizational identity salience on the other hand, it might be more difficult to more strongly engage in deep acting compared to other days as they

typically modify their inner feelings and try to display authentic and sincere emotions towards the customer and typically avoid surface acting (cf. Mishra *et al.* 2012, p. 204). They might lack strategies on how to further increase deep acting or diminish already generally low levels of surface acting, even if their organizational identity is rendered salient above average. Therefore, higher daily levels of organizational identity salience should affect frontline employees' choice and degree of emotional labor strategies to a lesser extent than it is the case for employees with general low levels of organizational identification. The latter are likely to still improve with regard to their performance levels in case of high organizational identity salience, as they generally perform below levels of highly identified employees and if increasing effort in favor of the organization, they are likely to more easily find ways to modify inner emotions compared to average days.

Consolidated, employees with a high general level of organizational identification, are suggested to be less dependent on the state level of their organizational identity salience to transform into emotional labor.

H8a: Frontline employees' organizational identification moderates the effect of daily organizational identity salience on daily deep-acting, with the effect for frontline-employees exhibiting high levels of organizational identification being weaker than for those exhibiting lower general levels (a negative moderation).

H8b: Frontline employees' organizational identification moderates the effect of daily organizational identity salience on daily surface acting, with the effect for frontline-employees exhibiting high levels of organizational identification being weaker than for those exhibiting lower general levels (a positive moderation).

6.2.2 Effects on Organizational Identity Salience

6.2.2.1 Within-Person Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

In line with the social identity approach, a social identity becomes salient depending on the degree to which it is relevant (Hogg and Terry 2000, p. 125). From an organizational perspective frontline employees' organizational identification and related behaviors can be considered as relevant to fulfil organizational needs at any point in time, especially during customer interactions (Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 313). By contrast, according to theory for employees the relevance and activation of the organizational identity category should depend for the most part on the degree of how much this identity helps to fulfill their personal pursuit of positive self-esteem as an organizational member, namely organization-based self-esteem, as enhancement of self-esteem is the underlying motive of social identification (Arnett *et al.* 2003, p. 92; Dutton *et al.* 1994, p. 239). Organization-based self-esteem is a reflection of the value that individuals attach to themselves in the context of acting as representatives of the organization (Pierce *et al.* 1989, p. 625). Drawing on the social identity approach and theory on self-esteem, an employee's daily organizational identity salience, i.e., the degree to which an employee defines his own identity in terms of the particular organizational identity on a given day, is likely to depend on the level of their momentary self-evaluation (cf. Korman 1966, p. 479). Driven by the motivation to enhance or protect their own level of organization-based self-esteem, it is likely that employees compare their own momentary perception of capability to serve organizational goals, i.e., their momentary level of organization-based self-esteem, with their image of the prototype of an ideal organizational member (cf. Pierce *et al.* 1989, p. 625).

As stated above, individuals pursue behaviors and take attitudes that fit to their self-cognitions. Hence, within-person changes in organization-based self-esteem, for instance a boost of organization-based self-esteem above the employees' typical mean level, will help them to have a more positive image of their own capability of serving organizational goals than typically, and they will see themselves as a good representative of an ideal organizational employee, i.e. the group prototype, and as being capable of performing favorably in order to reach organiza-

tional goals. (cf. Korman 1970, p. 32) In line with self-consistency and self-enhancement mechanisms, defining themselves as a part of the organization on these days will be consistent with that prevalent self-image and subsequent performance in line with that identity will be further reinforcing organization-based self-esteem. In this case, functional antagonism will be triggered and in-group *similarities* will be highlighted. (cf. Turner *et al.* 1987, pp. 49 ff)

Vice versa, on days, when employees perceive a diminished feeling of self-worth as an organizational member compared to their typical organization-based self-esteem level, they will be likely to be driven by self-protective motives rather (cf. Dipboye 1977, p. 110). They will see themselves as less capable to serve the organization and therefore their momentary self-evaluation will not fit their image of the prototypical organizational member as a strong performer and ideal representative of the organization as much as usually (cf. Turner *et al.* 1987, pp. 49). Therefore, functional antagonism will be triggered and in-group *differences* will be highlighted. Consequently, employees' organizational identity will be less pronounced on such days than usually, resulting in decreased levels of favorable in-group behaviors (cf. Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 34). According to social identity approach, when rendering their organizational identity less salient than usually, employees are less likely to attribute their expected diminished performance level to the their own personal lack of capability, but rather to their weak bond with the organization (cf. Campbell 1990, p. 703), accompanied by a diminished proneness to serve organizational goals (Dipboye 1977, p. 110). When employees define their self-concepts less than usually in terms of the organizational identity but rather as individual, depersonalization processes due to organizational membership are not as pronounced (Turner and Tajfel 1986, p. 11). Consequently, employees' personal self-esteem should not be as dependent on their organization-based self-esteem as usually (cf. Tajfel and Turner 1979, p. 36), serving self-protecting goals. Deductively, when employees' daily organizational identity is less salient than usually, their overall self-esteem is protected against performance failure in their organizational roles as self-protective mechanisms are in progress. Consequently, the following is hypothesized:

H9: An increase in daily organization-based self-esteem compared to an average workday, has a positive effect on frontline employees' daily organizational identity salience.

6.2.2.2 Cross-Level Interaction of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Behavioral plasticity refers to the extent to which individuals are affected by situational cues and consequently adapt their attitudes and behaviors accordingly (Brockner 1988, p. 27). With respect to dissimilarities in changes of organizational identity salience across frontline employees, in line with theory on behavioral plasticity, it is suggested that employees differ in their sensitivity towards within-person changes of organization-based self-esteem and therefore differ in the strength of the predicted effect of daily organization-based self-esteem changes on daily organizational identity salience (H9). Assumed that a change in employees' organization-based self-esteem compared to their typical level of organization-based self-esteem serves as an internal cue on their momentary organizational self-worth to frontline employees (cf. Xanthopoulou *et al.* 2009, p. 185), due to their general self-concept confusion and typical uncertainty about their competences and organizational worth (Becker, Ullrich, and van Dick 2013, p. 140; Korman 1976, p. 56), frontline employees with low levels of organization-based self-esteem are likely to be more dependent on and therefore reactive to an increase or decrease in state organization-based self-esteem compared to the ones more identified. In other words, due to increased uncertainty as to the correctness of their general organizational attitudes and behaviors (cf. Korman 1976, p. 56), employees with a lower general level of organization-based self-esteem will be more reactive to daily changes in organization-based self-esteem (Brockner 1988, p. 29), will use this transient information more intensely for judging their actual ability to serve organizational goals and consequently adapt their daily level of organizational identity salience (H9). Hence, the following is hypothesized:

H10: Frontline employees' general level of organization-based self-esteem moderates the effect of daily organization-based self-esteem on daily organizational identity salience, with the effect for frontline-employees exhibiting high levels of general organization-based self-esteem being weaker than for those exhibiting lower levels.

6.2.3 Control Variables

Positive and Negative Affect
The state component of positive and negative affect, by academic research has been demonstrated to systematically affect within-person variation of employees' work attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Heller *et al.* 2002; Ilies *et al.* 2006). To rule out confounding effects of daily variation in frontline-employees positive and negative effect with organization-bases self-esteem, organizational identity salience and frontline employees' brand-building behaviors in study 2, their day-level positive and negative affect was measured at the first measurement occasion during the workday (before the respective work shift) and included as control variables in the analyses.

Gender, Age, Tenure
To ensure comparability of the replicated findings of study 1, the same control variables at the between-person level as in study 1b were included in the analysis in study 2 (cf. section 5.2.1.6). Because there is ample support for potential linkages between participants' gender and how they express emotions (LaFrance and Banaji 1992), as well as for the linkage between age and emotional control and experience (Gross *et al.* 1997), to control for resulting differences in emotional labor due to gender and age, the same variables were controlled for when analyzing frontline employees' emotional labor strategies. Additionally, frontline employees' tenure with the organization was included in study 2 as a control variable, as previous research has demonstrated a link between tenure and organizational identification (e.g., Hall *et al.* 1970; Hall and Schneider 1972).

Personality Traits
In addition to demographics, frontline employees' personality traits are likely to confound direct (between-person level) as well as cross-level effects of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on their emotional labor. Extraversion, summarized as the "degree to which a person is outgoing" (Brown *et al.* 2002, p. 112), has been found to predict both emotional labor strategies of surface and deep acting (Mesmer-Magnus *et al.* 2012; Ozcelik 2013). Agreeableness, subsumed as the "general warmth of feelings towards others" (Brown *et al.* 2002, p. 112) and indicating the general need of individuals to invest in positive

relationships by engaging in social behaviors, was shown to positively affect pro-social behaviors of deep acting and negatively affect surface acting (Diefendorff *et al.* 2005; Kammeyer-Mueller *et al.* 2013).As agreeable and extraverted individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors that foster positive relationships with others, frontline employees scoring high on agreeableness or extraversion should be highly intrinsically motivated, even on days when their organizational identity salience is low, to maintain positive relationships with customers and their organization by sticking to favorable display of genuine emotions and engaging in deep acting. Their high levels of agreeableness and extraversion therefore work like trait buffers against the negative consequences of decreased levels of organizational identity salience on a given day. To rule out the possibility of the cross-level effect of organizational identification to be confounded with frontline-employees' personality traits, direct and moderating effects of agreeableness and extraversion on emotional labor were controlled for in study 2.

6.2.4 Overview of the Framework and Research Hypotheses

A systematic overview of the developed conceptual framework of study 2 is provided in **Figure 13.**
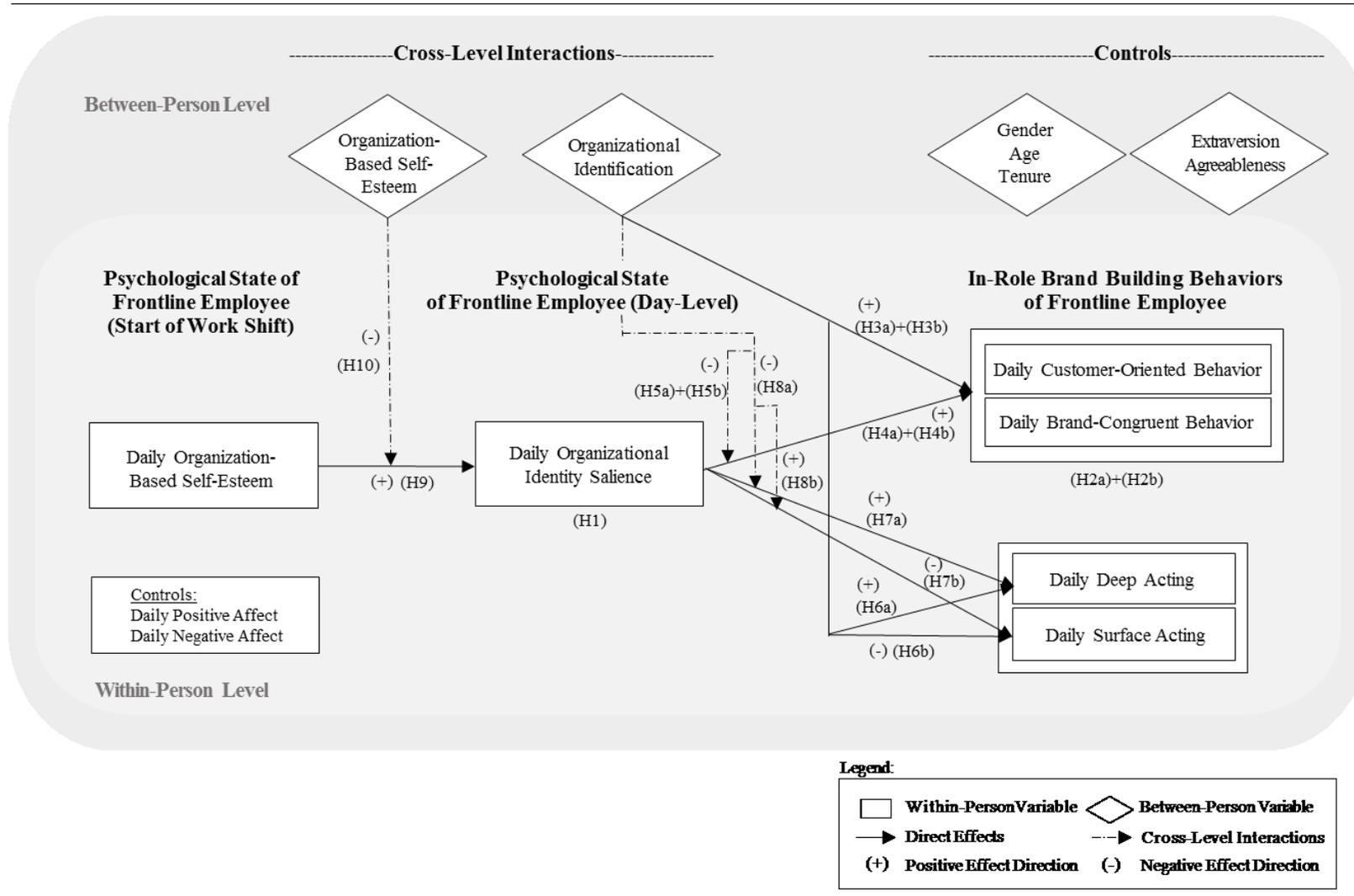
Figure 13: **Conceptual Framework of Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

6.3 Conception and Procedure of Data Assessment

6.3.1 Operationalization of the Variables

Because study 2 partly represents a replication of study 1, several of the constructs of study 2 have been introduced in study 1 in the preceding chapter (cf. section 5.3.1). To ensure comparability for study 1 and 2, for the repeating constructs identical scales were used. However, in order to increase explanatory power and to attain a complete representation of all facets of the constructs, some of the measures were extended and additional items were integrated. Whenever possible, the company name of the organization participants stemmed from was inserted into the items in the original questionnaires in study 2, in order to enable participating employees to more easily relate to the statements involving their employer's name. Due to privacy reasons, as stipulated in a confidentiality agreement prior to the study, the company name will remain confidential. Consequently, in the following all items used in study 2 are presented in their universal form, not mentioning the respective company name. All participants were native German speakers, therefore German translations of the items were used in the questionnaires.

6.3.1.1 Within-Person Variables

Independent Variables
In study 2 *daily organizational identity salience* (see **Table 30**) was again measurmed with four items using a joint version of the scales from Doosje *et al.* (1995) and Arnett *et al.* (2003). Equally to study 1, concerning the within-person measures assessed at the end of the workday in study 2, participants had instructions to evaluate the following statements in virtue of *today's* thoughts and feelings. To highlight the items' focus on the participants' *present-day* experiences, all items were adjusted to the day's context (e.g., "Today, I identified with the company I work for."). To reduce endogeneity and reversed causality in the data, as recommended by other ESM researchers (e.g., Spence *et al.* 2014), some of the within-person constructs were assessed each day before the start of the employees' work shift, namely *daily organization-based self-esteem*, *daily positive affect* and *daily negative affect*. In these cases, participants had to rate their agreement to the statements based on their *current* thoughts and feelings (at the beginning of

the work day). Accordingly, items were adjusted to the *momentary* context (e.g., "Now at this moment, I have the feeling that I am trusted around here."). Identical to study 1, all of the scales used in studies 2 had to be rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (I strongly disagree) to 7 (I strongly agree).

Daily Organizational Identity Salience		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
OIS_1	Today, I identified with the company I work for.	
OIS_2	Today, I had the feeling that the company I work for is an important part of who I am.	adapted from Doosje et al.
OIS_3	Today, I was glad to be part of the company I work for.	(1995); Arnett et
OIS_4	Today, being an employee of this company meant more to me than just working here.	al. (2003)

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 30:   **Measurement of Daily Organizational Identity Salience in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily organization-based self-esteem (see **Table 31**) was measured using the well-established scale of Pierce et al. (1998) with 10 items adapted to the momentary context.

Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem (Start of Work-Shift)		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
	Now at this moment, I have the feeling that…	
OBSE_1	… I count around here.	
OBSE_2	… I am taken serious around here.	
OBSE_3	… there is faith in me around here.	
OBSE_4	… I am trusted around here.	
OBSE_5	… I am helpful around here.	adapted from
OBSE_6	… I am an important part at this place.	Pierce et al.
OBSE_7	… I make a difference around here.	(1998)
OBSE_8	… I am efficient around here.	
OBSE_9	… I am cooperative around here.	
OBSE_10	… I am a valuable part of this place.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 31:   **Measurement of Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Dependent Variables

In study 2, *daily customer-oriented behavior* (see **Table 32**) was again assessed adapting the well-established scales of Baker et al. (2014) and Thomas, Soutar and Ryan (2001) to the daily context with 5 items.

Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
COB_1	Today, I made sure that I could be reached whenever a customer needed something.	
COB_2	Today, I provided a high-level service to all customers.	adapted from Baker et al.
COB_3	Today, I always tried to figure out what a customer's needs were.	(2014);
COB_4	Today, I always provided a courteous service to customers.	Thomas et al. (2001)
COB_5	Today, I always recommended the product or service that was best suited to the customer's problem.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 32: **Measurement of Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Correspondent to study 1, *daily brand-congruent behavior* (see **Table 33**) was assessed with 3 items combining the scales of Morhart, Herzog and Tomczak (2009) and Baumgart and Schmidt (2010) and adapting them to the daily context.

Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
BCB_1	Today, I paid attention that my personal appearance was in line with our corporate brand's appearance.	adapted from
BCB_2	Today, I made sure that my actions were not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behavior.	Morhart et al. (2009), Baum-
BCB_3	Today, I made no statement that was inconsistent with our brand communications in the media (e.g. advertising or web presence).	gart and Schmidt (2010)

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 33: **Measurement of Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily *deep acting* (see **Table 34**) was assessed using three items from the well-established scale of emotion regulation strategies by Grandey (2003). All Items were adapted to the daily context.

Daily Deep Acting		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
DA_1	Today, I tried to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers.	
DA_2	Today, when working with customers, I attempted to create certain emotions that present the image my company desires.	adapted from Grandey (2003)
DA_3	Today, I worked hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 34: **Measurement of Daily Deep Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

The same scale by Grandey (2003) was used to assess *daily surface acting* (see **Table 35**) with three items adjusted to the daily context.

Daily Surface Acting		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
SA_1	Today, I faked a good mood when interacting with customers.	
SA_2	Today, I put on a mask in order to display the emotions my company wants me to display.	adapted from Grandey (2003)
SA_3	Today, at times I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 35: Measurement of Daily Surface Acting in Study 2

6.3.1.2 Between-Person Variables

Independent Variables

Organizational identification (see **Table 36)** in study 2 was assessed using the full scale (six items) of the well-established scale by Mael and Ashforth (1992). Referring to all between-person constructs, participants had instructions to evaluate the following statements in virtue of their *general* thoughts and feelings.

Organizational Identification		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
OI_1	**When I talk about my organization, I usually say "we" rather than "they".**[28]	
OI_2	When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult.	
OI_3	This organization's successes are my successes.	adapted from
OI_4	When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	Mael and Ashforth (1992)
OI_5	If a story in the media criticized this organization, I would feel embarrassed.	
OI_6	I am very interested in what others think about this organization.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 36:   **Measurement of Organizational Identification in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Organization-based self-esteem (see **Table 37**) at the between-person level was measured using the well-established scale of Pierce et al. (1998). The ten items presented below in contrast to daily organization-based self-esteem, were formulated in a way referring to the participants *general* thoughts and feelings.

---

[28] This item was added in study 2 (compared to study 1).

Organization-Based Self-Esteem		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
	Generally, I have the feeling that…	
OBSE_T_1	… I count around here.	
OBSE_T_2	… I am taken serious around here.	
OBSE_T_3	… there is faith in me around here.	
OBSE_T_4	… I am trusted around here.	
OBSE_T_5	… I am helpful around here.	adapted from Pierce et al. (1998)
OBSE_T_6	… I am an important part at this place.	
OBSE_T_7	… I make a difference around here.	
OBSE_T_8	… I am efficient around here.	
OBSE_T_9	… I am cooperative around here.	
OBSE_T_10	… I am a valuable part of this place.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 37: **Measurement of Organization-Based Self-Esteem in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

6.3.1.3 Control Variables

Within-Person Variables

In Study 2 participants' *daily positive affect* (see **Table 38**) and *daily negative affect* (see **Table 39**) were measured in the questionnaire before the start of the work shift, again referring to their *momentary* feelings. A reduced version of the well-established Positive Affect and Negative Affect scale (PANAS) by Watson *et al.* (1988) was used, employing six items for daily positive affect and five items for negative affect.

Daily Positive Affect		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
	Just at this moment, I feel …	
PA_1	… enthusiastic.	
PA_2	… interested.	
PA_3	… excited.	adapted from Watson et al. (1988)
PA_4	… alert.	
PA_5	… active.	
PA_6	… attentive.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 38: **Measurement of Positive Affect in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Daily Negative Affect		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
	Just at this moment, I feel…	
NA_1	… jittery.	
NA_2	… irritable.	adapted from Watson et al. (1988)
NA_3	… hostile.	
NA_4	… upset.	
NA_5	… sad.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 39: **Measurement of Negative Affect in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Between-Person Variables

The personality traits *extraversion* (see **Table 40**) and *agreeableness* (see **Table 41**) were measured using a reduced scale adapted from the Big-Five Inventory by Goldberg (1993) in the between-person questionnaire. The four items measuring extraversion and the three items assessing agreeableness referred to participant's *typical* attitudes and behaviors.

Extraversion		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
EXTRA_1	I am a talkative.	Adapted from the Big-Five Inventory by Goldberg (1993)
EXTRA_2	I am full of energy.	
EXTRA_3	I am able to inspire others.	
EXTRA_4	I have an assertive personality.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 40:   **Measurement of Extraversion in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Agreeableness		
Variable Labels	Items	Source
AGR_1	I am considerate and kind to almost everyone.	Adapted from the Big-Five Inventory by Goldberg (1993)
AGR_2	I have a forgiving nature.	
AGR_3	Generally, I am a trustful person.	

7-point Likert Scale (1: I strongly disagree; 7: I strongly agree)

Table 41:   **Measurement of Agreeableness in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Gender was assessed with a single dichotomous item in the general questionnaire. Participants were asked to indicate if they were male (1) or female (2). *Age* and *tenure* were assessed with an open question each, requesting the participants to indicate their current age or the time they had spent with the organization in years.

6.3.2 Procedure of the Study and Description of the Sample

In study 2, again an interval-contingent experience sampling design was implemented. Participants were recruited from a number of sales stores of one internationally operating consumer goods company. Salespersons in general are expected to maintain the balance between attentive and obliging service and efficiency and competence about products, thus holding constant performance expectations (cf. Rafaeli 1989, p. 245; Tolich 1993, p. 361). The respective brand promise of the participating organization, as positioned by public brand communications, is characterized by priorizing on customers' satisfaction, winning trust and making its

customer's lives better day for day[29], imposing employees to deliver on these brand promises. Before the start of the survey, store managers confirmed that high demands with regard to customer-oriented and brand-congruent behaviors as well as authentic emotional display are put on frontline employees in that organization. Therefore, the sample appears ideal for the given research context examining these kind of performance dimensions. Although participation was encouraged by the respective store managers and incentivized by a small lottery, it remained on a voluntary basis. The daily diary portion of the study was implemented for the course of one work week for each participant from Monday to Saturday over a total duration of eight weeks in April and May 2016. Data were assessed at two different occasions on each workday. One short survey had to be finished at each day before the actual start of the work shift. The second daily assessment took place right at the end of each work day as the last duty of the workday.

The daily survey at the beginning of the work day included the momentary organization-based self-esteem and the participants' current positive as well as negative affect right before they started to work. The second daily assessment involved daily organizational identity salience, daily customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, as well as daily surface and deep acting. In the week prior to the start of the daily experience sampling, participants filled out a general questionnaire at the between-person constructs, i.e., organizational identification, organization-based self-esteem, extraversion and agreeableness, as well as some demographical questions. Because employees at the sales shops had only limited or no internet access at work, data were assessed via paper-and-pencil questionnaires in study 2. Shop managers coordinated the distribution of the surveys by providing questionnaires for the employees in the common room of the respective shops (where employees naturally start and end their daily work shift) and reminding employees of the daily assessments.[30] To guarantee anonymous data entry and prevent employees from changing their answers worrying about store managers gaining insights into their questionnaires, participants were provided with envelopes to insert and seal their finished daily questionnaires. The envelopes as well

---

[29] To not reveal the respective brand identity due to confidentiality reasons, the exact wording of the brand positioning is alternated.

[30] To compensate their effort, shop managers were provided with a general statistic on their employees' self-reported brand-building performance and tailored implications for management.

as remaining blank questionnaires were collected in a box in the respective sales shops. The boxes were picked up at the end of the assessment period.

Overall, 150 general and 1000 daily questionnaires (500 for each assessment occasion) were handed out to the sales shops. 25 of the general questionnaires were returned blank, with unfeasible data (e.g., due to missing data or visible response patterns) or were not returned at all. In 23 cases the general questionnaire could only be matched with less than three associated daily questionnaires for one of the daily measurement occasion. These general and daily questionnaires were eliminated from the final sample. The final sample consisted of 102 employees at level 2 (68% response rate) and 381 workdays at level 1 (i.e., an average 3.74 workdays per person). If every participant had completed both surveys on each workday it would have resulted in 510 data points (102 x 5).

Participants were customer-facing employees, working in 14 different sales stores located in North Rhine-Westphalia and Lower Saxony, Germany. Overall, 83% of the participants were female and 52% of the participants worked fulltime. The average age in the sample is 35.25 years (SD = 10.53) and the average time participants had worked for the respective company was 4.25 years (SD = 3.32) at the time of assessment.

6.4 Results of the Quantitative Investigation

6.4.1 Results of the Explorative and Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Analogous to study 1, at first, the fit of the measurement model was inspected adopting the procedure to test for reliability and validity and the respective evaluation criteria presented in section 4.2 (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 133). Again, separate EFAs and CFAs were conducted at the within-person level and the between-person level. In Study 2, as introduced in section 6.3.1, latent constructs at the within-person level are represented by daily organizational identity salience, daily organization-based self-esteem and daily positive and negative affect as IVs, daily customer-oriented behavior, daily brand-congruent behavior, daily deep acting and daily surface acting for DVs. Moreover, daily organizational identity salience represents a DV in study 2. At the between-person level, organ-

izational identification, organization-based self-esteem, extraversion and agreea-
bleness are IVs in study 2. Equal to study 1, all items at the within-person level
were centered around their respective person-mean in order to eliminate any per-
son-level variance, items at the between-person level were centered around the
respective grand-mean in the sample (cf. Enders and Tofighi 2007, p. 121).

Exploratory Factor Analysis
Again, the EFA on both the within- and between-person level are conducted using
principal axis analysis with the number of extracted factors being determined by
the Kaiser-criterion (Kaiser 1974, p. 31) and oblique-angled Promax-Rotation as
the rotation method.

The results of both EFA depicting the overall adequacy of the sample for a CFA
are presented in **Table 42**.

Within-Person Level	*Between-Person Level*
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion .904	**Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion** .863
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity .000	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** .000
Total Variance Explained 74.012%	**Total Variance Explained** 69.569%

Table 42: Sample Adequacy for Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 2

Source: Author's illustration.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Criterion (KMO) values of .904 (within-person) and
.863 (between-person) in study 2 exceed the recommended threshold of .8 (Kaiser
1970, p. 405), therefore in can be assumed that a factor analysis is reasonable for
the given data (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 342). Second, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
is highly significant with a *p*-value of .000 both, at the within- and between-person
level, indicating significant correlation of the indicators in the population and
therefore adequateness of a factor analysis at both levels of analysis (Backhaus *et
al.* 2011, p. 341).

Moreover, the EFA maintain the theoretically sound eight (within-person) and four (between-person) factor solution in study 2. The Total Variances Explained of 74.01% (within-person) and 69.57% (between-person), can be considered as an excellent result (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 144).

Table 43 depicts the Cronbach's Alphas of each construct and the item-wise results of the EFA at both levels of analysis for Study 2.

Variable Name	Corrected Item-to-Total Correlation	MSA Criterion	Cronbach's Alpha
Independent Variables Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience			.937
OIS_1	.836	.940	
OIS_2	.866	.936	
OIS_3	.869	.935	
OIS_4	.830	.945	
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem			.960
OBSE_1	.808	.945	
OBSE_2	.808	.948	
OBSE_3	.801	.954	
OBSE_4	.838	.953	
OBSE_5	.817	.961	
OBSE_6	.838	.945	
OBSE_7	.859	.950	
OBSE_8	.838	.943	
OBSE_9	.845	.959	
OBSE_10	.775	.960	
Dependent Variables Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Customer Oriented Behavior			.912
COB_1	.762	.924	
COB_2	.838	.914	
COB_3	.814	.922	
COB_4	.793	.923	
COB_5	.688	.926	
Daily Brand Congruent Behavior			.915
BCB_1	.851	.835	
BCB_2	.827	.842	
BCB_3	.813	.856	
Daily Surface Acting			.910
SA_1	.800	.879	
SA_2	.837	.860	
SA_3	.824	.857	
Daily Deep Acting			.891
DA_1	.805	.737	
DA_2	.744	.755	
DA_3	.813	.707	

Table continues on the next page

Variable Name	Corrected Item-to-Total Correlation	MSA Criterion	Cronbach's Alpha
Control Variables Level 1 (within-person)			
Daily Positive Affect			.841
PAM_1	.538	.815	
PAM_2	.570	.735	
PAM_3	.677	.902	
PAM_4	.674	.908	
PAM_5	.635	.841	
PAM_6	.644	.832	
Daily Negative Affect			.761
NAM_1	.581	.909	
NAM_2	.583	.796	
NAM_3	.662	.843	
NAM_4	.593	.865	
NAM_5	.534	.778	
Independent Variable Level 2 (between-person)			
Organization-Based Self-Esteem			0.934
OBSE_T_1	.591	.892	
OBSE_T_2	.774	.908	
OBSE_T_3	.745	.911	
OBSE_T_4	.794	.920	
OBSE_T_5	.710	.880	
OBSE_T_6	.837	.889	
OBSE_T_7	.714	.909	
OBSE_T_8	.770	.864	
OBSE_T_9	.727	.890	
OBSE_T_10	.741	.907	
Organizational Identification			0.915
OI_1	.671	.887	
OI_2	.851	.868	
OI_3	.829	.831	
OI_4	.802	.862	
OI_5	.722	.890	
OI_6	.733	.892	
Control Variables Level 2 (between-person)			
Extraversion			0.863
EXTRA_1	.696	.769	
EXTRA_2	.688	.778	
EXTRA_3	.770	.804	
EXTRA_4	.722	.838	

Variable Name	Corrected Item-to-Total Correlation	MSA Criterion	Cronbach's Alpha
Agreeableness			0.850
AGR_1	.696	.658	
AGR_2	.688	.645	
AGR_3	.770	.662	

Table 43: **Results of the Exploratory Factor Analyses in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

First of all, all constructs exceed the recommended threshold of .7 for Cronbach's Alpha (Nunnally 1978, p. 245). Additionally, all Corrected-Item-to-Total Correlations exceed the recommended threshold of .5 (Shimp and Sharma 1987, p. 282; Zaichkowsky 1985, p. 343) and all MSA values exceed the recommended threshold of .5 (Kaiser and Rice 1974, p. 111).

Overall, the results from the EFA suggest that the measures of the latent constructs are sufficiently reliable and a CFA should be conducted.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As outlined in 4.2, *face validity* of each construct is a requirement for the empirical examination of the constructs in the CFA (Weiber and Mühlhaus 2014, p. 157). For all construct-measurements in study 2, exclusively well-established scales were used, which have been implemented in the literature before (cf. section 5.3.1). Hence, *face validity* can be assumed in the study (Cronbach and Meehl 1955, p. 282; Nunnally 1978, pp. 79)

The results of the CFA with regard to local fit-indices are presented in **Table 44**.

Variable Name	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Fornell-Larcker Criterion
Independent Variables Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience		.937	.789	✓
OIS_1	.874***			
OIS_2	.906***			
OIS_3	.907***			
OIS_4	.866***			
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem		.960	.708	✓
OBSE_1	.826***			
OBSE_2	.824***			
OBSE_3	.822***			
OBSE_4	.858***			
OBSE_5	.831***			
OBSE_6	.857***			
OBSE_7	.881***			
OBSE_8	.859***			
OBSE_9	.863***			
OBSE_10	.792***			
Dependent Variables Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior		.914	.686	✓
COB_1	.810***			
COB_2	.891***			
COB_3	.865***			
COB_4	.829***			
COB_5	.738***			
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior		.917	.786	✓
BCB_1	.919***			
BCB_2	.882***			
BCB_3	.857***			
Daily Surface Acting		.911	.773	✓
SA_1	.844***			
SA_2	.908***			
SA_3	.884***			
Daily Deep Acting		.893	.736	✓
DA_1	.894***			
DA_2	.793***			
DA_3	.883***			

Table continues on next page

Control Variables Level 1 (within-person)				
Daily Positive Affect		.888	.575	✓
PAM_1	.575***			
PAM_2	.595***			
PAM_3	.759***			
PAM_4	.776***			
PAM_5	.714***			
PAM_6	.720***			
Daily Negative Affect		.838	.519	✓
NAM_1	.557***			
NAM_2	.539***			
NAM_3	.773***			
NAM_4	.626***			
NAM_5	.649***			
Independent Variables Level 2 (between-person)				
Organization-Based Self-Esteem		.930	.651	✓
OBSE_T_1	.610***			
OBSE_T_2	.787***			
OBSE_T_3	.759***			
OBSE_T_4	.837***			
OBSE_T_5	.703***			
OBSE_T_6	.888***			
OBSE_T_7	.730***			
OBSE_T_8	.773***			
OBSE_T_9	.751***			
OBSE_T_10	.761***			
Organizational Identification		.917	.651	✓
OI_1	.695***			
OI_2	.914***			
OI_3	.879***			
OI_4	.848***			
OI_5	.750***			
OI_6	.731***			
Control Variables Level 2 (between-person)				
Extraversion		.858	.605	✓
EXTRA_1	.660***			
EXTRA_2	.773***			
EXTRA_3	.933***			
EXTRA_4	.719***			
Agreeableness		.765	.526	✓
AGR_1	.833***			
AGR_2	.579***			
AGR_3	.743***			

***p < .01

Table 44: **Local Fit-Indices of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

First, in both studies the factor loadings of all items exceed the recommended threshold of .4 and are highly significant, strongly indicating that the factor loadings are statistically different from 0 in the population (Anderson and Gerbing 1993, p. 2; Bagozzi *et al.* 1991, p. 434; Hildebrandt 1984, p. 46; Homburg and Giering 1998, p. 124). Moreover, the composite reliability values are sufficiently high ($\geq$ .765) for all constructs, indicating that the items are a good measurement for the respective construct (Bagozzi and Baumgartner 1996, p. 402). Additionally, for all constructs the Average Variance Extracted outperforms the suggested threshold ($\geq$ .519) (e.g., Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Relying on these results, *convergent validity* can be presumed in both studies.

Discriminant validity is tested by employing the Fornell-Larcker-Criterion (Fornell and Larcker 1981, p. 46). This criterion is accomplished for every factor in the given study.[31] Therefore, *discriminant validity* can be assumed as well.

In **Table 45** the values for all relevant global fit-indices in study 2 can be found.

Level-1 (within-person)		Level-2 (between-person)	
Criterion	**Value**	**Criterion**	**Value**
Normed χ^2	1.803	Normed χ^2	1.606
RMSEA	.046	RMSEA	.077
SRMR	.046	SRMR	.077
CFI	.938	CFI	.917
TLI	.933	TLI	.903

Table 45:   **Global Fit-Indices of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

The descriptive normed χ^2 values $\leq$ 1.803 indicate an excellent fit of the model to the data at hand in both studies. The absolute fit-indices fortify these results, with small values for both RMSEA ($\leq$ .077) and SRMR ($\leq$ .077). Lastly, the incremental fit-indices support these results as well with values for the CFI $\geq$ .917 and values for the TLI $\geq$ .903. Overall, it can be concluded that the global model fit is very good in study 2.

---

[31] See **Table 71** in Appendix C for details.

6.4.2 Specification of the Hierarchical Models and Test of Model Assumptions

To test the specification assumptions for hierarchical linear modeling in study 2, both levels of analysis were inspected based on the criteria presented in section 4.3.5, applying the identical procedure as in study 1a and 1b (cf. section 5.4.2).

Initially, the general assumption of multiple regression (1) assuming correct specification of the model (Leeflang 2000, p. 331; Wooldridge 2009, pp. 24–27) was tested. The correct specification of the form of the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables in study 2 was visually inspected by plotting independent and dependent variables against each other (Backhaus *et al.* 2016, p. 86; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 258). The scatterplots and the associated trend lines, revealed an approximately linear trend for all of the tested relationships, therefore linearity can be assumed in both studies.[32] Moreover, the general assumption of multiple regression no multicollinearity (2) (Field 2013, p. 220; Leeflang 2000, p. 347) was tested by examining the correlation matrix for the independent variables and checking for any correlations larger than .90 (Hair 2010, p. 200). Correlations between the independent variables revealed no values larger than .90.[33] Consequently, it can be assumed that multicollinearity is not present in study 2 (c.f. 5.3.1).

As a next step, the six level-1, level-2 and cross-level assumptions applying for a two-level hierarchical linear models were tested for study 2. Assumption (3) refers to the normality dispersion, independence and homoscedasticity of level-1 residuals. Although, the assumption that level-1 residuals are normally distributed (mean = 0, variance = $\sigma^{2)}$ usually holds for level-1 models with continuous dependent variables (Woltman *et al.* 2012, p. 56), as it is the case in study 2, two formal tests, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test, were employed to examine the residuals' distribution (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96)[34]. In study 2, for the independent variables customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior, surface acting and organizational identity salience at least one of

---

[32] For further details see the Electronic Appendix.

[33] A respective correlation matrix is presented in section 5.4.3.

[34] Due to the large number of groups in study 2, for the test statistics residuals pooled across groups were used Raudenbush and Bryk (2002, p. 266).

the tests revealed a significant test statistic, not supporting the hypothesis of normally distributed residuals in the sample. However, following the central limit theorem and the sufficiently large sample size in the study at hand ($N_{=102}$; $n_{days}=381$), normal distribution of the residuals can be assumed (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96). For Deep Acting both tests revealed an insignificant test statistic, therefore normality of residuals can be assumed in this case.

Against the background that the assumption of independence of residuals in repeated measurements designs is supposedly violated (Hofmann 1997, p. 739), possible consequences of misspecified residuals for the model estimation were tested by comparing models with model-based standard errors and estimated robust standard errors with regard to the associated p-values (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 259; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280). In study 2 the model-based standard errors in all full models are in fair agreement with the robust standard errors, therefore it can be assumed that dependence of residuals is not a problem in study 2.[35]

Additionally, for hierarchical linear models homoscedasticity is assumed, i.e. that the variance of the error term must not depend on the level of the respective predictor variable. Since the computation of the standardized measure of dispersion for each group (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 263) resulted in low explanatory power of the statistics in the full models predicting customer-oriented behavior ($\chi^2 = 41.488$, $p > .500$), brand-congruent behavior ($\chi^2 = 54.292$, $p > .500$), surface acting ($\chi^2 = 44.925$, $p > .500$), deep acting ($\chi^2 = 49.869$, $p > .500$) and organizational identity salience ($\chi^2 = 25.159$, $p > .500$), it can be assumed that at level 1 homoscedasticity is given in study 2 (Raudenbusch et al., p. 55).

To test for level-1 endogeneity, assumption (4), independent variables at level 1 were correlated with the respective level-1 residuals. No level-1 predictors inside the models in study 2 were significantly correlated with the respective residuals at level 1, indication that endogeneity is not a problem at level 1 in study 2 (Antonakis *et al.* 2014, p. 99; Petrin and Train 2010, p. 4).[36]

---

[35] For further details see **Table 72**, **Table 73**, **Table 74**, **Table 75** and **Table 76** in Appendix C.

[36] For further details **Table 77**, **Table 78**, **Table 79**, **Table 80** and **Table 81** in Appendix C.

Assumption (5) requiring normal distribution of the residuals at level 2 (Raud-enbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255), was tested by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test (Backhaus *et al.* 2011, p. 96). In study 2 at level 2 the test statistics for customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and surface acting were insignificant for both tests, indicating that normality of resid-uals can be assumed in these cases. For deep acting and organizational identity salience the Shapiro-Wilk test revealed a significant result, whereas the test sta-tistic of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was insignificant. Nevertheless, due to the central limit theorem, in study 2 normality of residuals can be assumed for deep acting and organizational identity salience at level 2.

Moreover, residuals at level 2 are required to be independent of each other (Leeflang 2000, p. 332). The Durbin-Watson test was applied, to formally test for autocorrelation of level-2 residuals. The results revealed values of $DW_{\text{Customer-Oriented Behavior}}=2.117$ and $DW_{\text{Brand-Congruent Behavior}}=1.811$, $DW_{\text{Surface Acting}}=1.924$ and $DW_{\text{Deep Acting}}=1.818$ and $DW_{\text{Organizational Identity Salience}}=1.840$. In study 2 all values of the Durbin-Watson statistic are close to the value of 2, suggesting that that the residuals are fairly uncorrelated (Field 2013, p. 221; Leeflang 2000, p. 339).

In lack of a formal direct test of homogeneity at level 2 (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 273), possible consequences of miss-specified residuals in the models were inspected. Biased model estimation due to level-2 homogeneity could be ruled out, since results with model-based standard errors in study 2 are in high agreement with the results with robust standard errors in all models (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 259; Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280).[37]

Assumption (6), requiring no level-2 endogeneity (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255), can be concluded to be fulfilled in study 2, since no significant correla-tions of any independent variable with the respective level-2 residual could be detected in study 2 (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115) (c.f. assumption (2).[38]

Due to the unavailability of a formal test for assumption (7), the independence of residuals across levels 1 and 2, possible consequences of violation were tested.

---

[37] For further details see **Table 72**, **Table 73**, **Table 74**, **Table 75** and **Table 76** in Appendix C.

[38] For further details **Table 77**, **Table 78**, **Table 79**, **Table 80** and **Table 81** in Appendix C.

As close conformity of the models was given (cf. assumption (5)), it can be concluded that possible violation of the assumption of independent residuals across levels 1 and 2 does not lead to a severe bias in the estimation of standard errors and related p values in the models in study 2 (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 280), i.e., dependence of residuals across levels is not a problem in study 2.

Finally, assumption (8), requiring no cross-level endogeneity (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002, p. 255), was tested in study 2. Since no significant correlations of any independent variable at level 1 or level 2 with the residual term on the other level could be detected[39], cross-level endogeneity can be assumed not to be a problem in study 2 (Ebbes *et al.* 2011, p. 1115).

Concluding, in study 2 the general assumptions of multiple regression as well as the assumptions of hierarchical linear modeling, on both levels of analysis as well as across the levels, are met. In some cases, when a formal test was not applicable (assumptions (3), (5) and (7), it could be shown that possible misspecification of residuals does not substantially bias the subsequent model estimations. Consistently, there are no formal reasons *not* to apply hierarchical linear modeling in study 2.

An overview of the assumptions, adducted criteria, respective results and the associated interpretations are presented in **Table 46**.

---

[39] For further details see Table x in Appendix C.

Assumption	Criterion	Results	Interpretation	
General Assumptions of Linear Regression				
(1) Correct specification of the relationship between IVs and DVs	Visual inspection of scatterplot and linear trend line	Identification of linear relationships between IVs and DVs	Linear relationship between IVs and DVs can be assumed	✓
(2) No multicollinearity	Correlations among IVs	No correlations among IVs >.90	No multicollinearity in the data	✓
Assumptions of Hierarchical Linear Models				
(3) Normality of residuals at level 1	Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test; Sample size	KS-Test$_{COB}$ = .086 p = .063, SW-Test$_{COB}$ = .966 p = .011; KS-Test$_{BCB}$ = .086 p = .061, SW-Test$_{BCB}$ = .973 p = .037 KS-Test$_{SA}$ = .098 p = .019, SW-Test$_{SA}$ = .964 p = .008; KS-Test$_{DA}$ = .066 p = .200, SW-Test$_{DA}$ = .978 p = .093 KS-Test$_{OIS}$ = .097 p = .021, SW-Test$_{OIS}$ = .895 p = .000	Normality of Residuals for COB, BCB and DA can be assumed; Sample size is sufficiently large to assume normality of residuals for SA and OIS	✓
Independence of residuals at level 1 (no autocorrelation)	Comparison of HLM (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Non-independence of residuals is not a problem in the data	✓
Constant variance of residuals at level 1 (homoscedasticity)	Test of homoscedasticity (inherent in HLM7 software package)	χ^2_{COB} = 41.488 p > .500 χ^2_{BCB} = 54.292 p > .500 χ^2_{SA} = 44.925 p > .500 χ^2_{DA} = 49.869 p > .500 χ^2_{OIS} = 25.159 p > .500	Homoscedasticity at level 1 can be assumed	✓
(4) No endogeneity at level 1	Correlations of IVs and residuals at level 1	No significant Correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem at level 1	✓

Table continues on the next page

Assumption	Criterion	Results	Interpretation	
(5) Normality of residuals at level 2	Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test; Sample size	KS-Test$_{COB}$ = .056 p = .200, SW-Test$_{COB}$ = .986 p = .362; KS-Test$_{BCB}$ = .074 p = .192, SW-Test$_{BCB}$ = .976 p = .059 KS-Test$_{SA}$ = .064 p = .200, SW-Test$_{SA}$ = .984 p = .268; KS-Test$_{DA}$ = .058 p = .200, SW-Test$_{DA}$ = .972 p = .033 KS-Test$_{OIS}$ = .084 p = .073, SW-Test$_{OIS}$ = .953 p = .001	Normality can be assumed for COB, BCB and SA. Sample size is sufficiently large to assume normality of residuals for DA and OIS.	✓
Independence of residuals at level 2 (no autocorrelation)	Durbin-Watson-Test	DW$_{COB}$ = 2.117 DW$_{BCB}$ = 1.311 DW$_{SA}$ = 1.924 DW$_{DA}$ =1.818 DW$_{OIS}$ = 1.840	Autocorrelation is not a problem at level 1	✓
Constant variance of residuals at level 2 (homoscedasticity)	Comparison of HLM (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Heteroscedasticity is not a problem in the data at Level 2	✓
(6) No endogeneity at level 2	Correlations of IVs and residuals at level 2	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem in the data at level 2	✓
(7) Independence of residuals across levels 1 and 2 (no cross-level autocorrelation)	Comparison of HLM (model-based errors and robust standard errors)	Fair agreement of the models is given	Cross-level auto-correlation is not a problem in the data	✓
(8) No endogeneity across levels 1 and 2	Correlations of IVs at level 1 and residuals at level 2 and vice versa	No significant correlations	Endogeneity is not a problem across levels 1 and 2	✓

Table 46: **Inspection of Assumptions for Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

6.4.3 Results of the Hierarchical Models: Hypotheses Testing

Table 47 and **Table 48** show the means, standard deviations and both within-person and between-person correlations for the key study variables of study 2. As with study 1, in order to test the hypotheses of study 2, two-level hierarchical linear modeling via the software package HLM7 was applied (cf. section 4.3.3). Formally, days (level 1) were nested within individuals (level 2), therefore within-person variables consisted of the daily diary measures at measurement occasions one (positive affect, negative affect and organization-based self-esteem) and two (organizational identity salience, customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior, deep acting and surface acting), and between-person variables consisted of the pre-diary measures (organization-based self-esteem, organizational identification, extraversion, agreeableness and demographics). Identical to the analytical procedure in study 1, model testing proceeded in four phases as an unconstrained null model, a combined intercepts-as-outcomes and random coefficient regression model, a random-slopes model and an intercepts-and-slopes-as-outcomes model were run for each of the outcome variables. To estimate separate effect sizes (pseudo-R^2) of organizational identification and organization-based self-esteem at level 2 and organizational identity salience and daily organization-based self-esteem at level 1, isolated intercepts-as-outcome models and random-coefficient-regressions, excluding all control variables at both levels, were estimated.[40]

---

[40] Results for pseudo-R^2 are reported in the text, associated models for study 2 are depicted in **Table 82**, **Table 83**, **Table 84**, **Table 85** and **Table 86** in Appendix C.

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Within-Person Variables										
1. Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem	4.47	1.32								
2. Daily Organizational Identity Salience	4.78	1.50	.57 **							
			.38 **							
3. Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	5.50	1.16	.27 **	.55 **						
			.17 **	*.56* **						
4. Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	5.25	1.57	.16 **	*.34* **	*.49* **					
			-.05	*.24* **	*.40* **					
5. Daily Surface Acting	2.70	1.32	-.18 **	-.56 **	-.45 **	-.11 *				
			-.15 **	*.42* **	*-.24* **	*-.02*				
6. Daily Deep Acting	3.87	1.40	.04	-.03	-.06	-.02	.27 **			
			-.04	*-.08*	*.08*	*.07*	*.09*			
7. Positive Affect	3.51	0.82	.12 *	.22 **	.13 *	.04	-.21 **	-.10 *		
			-.05	*.15* **	*.10* *	*.13* *	*.02*	*.02*		
8. Negative Affect	1.37	1.37	-.13 *	-.19 **	-.01	-.06	.04	-.17 **	-.22 **	
			-.01	*-.16* **	*-.10* *	*-.09*	*.07*	*.11* *	*-.07*	

Note: The presented correlations are within-person correlations. Correlations presented in *italics* are within-person correlations calculated with variables centered at the respective group mean (i.e., person mean), therefore all between-person variance is removed. All correlations are Pearson's coefficients. n = 381 within-person observations; N = 102 participants. *p<.05; **p<.01

Table 47:   **Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations at the Within-Person Level in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variables	M	SD	9	10		11		12		13		14		15	
Within-Person Variables															
1. Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem			.11	.40	**	.31	**	-.14		-.15		-.05		.04	
2. Daily Organizational Identity Salience			.25	*	.63	**	.28	**	-.85		-.06		.06		.02
3. Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior			.15	.44	**	.22	*	-.95		-.10		.10		-.07	
4. Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior			-.03	.21	*	.06		.12		-.07		.07		-.06	
5. Daily Surface Acting			-.14	-.45	*	-.09		-.04		.06		.02		.01	
6. Daily Deep Acting			.22	*	.05		-.03		-.22	*	.07		.01		-.02
7. Positive Affect			-.18	.16		.03		.24	*	-.20	*	-.01		.02	
8. Negative Affect			.07	.00		.02		-.20	*	-.13		.21	*	-.05	
Between-Person Variables															
9. Organization-Based Self-Esteem	3.94	1.15		.52	**	.20	*	-.26	**	-.23		-.11		.09	
10. Organizational Identification	4.58	1.44				.50	**	-.15		-.30		-.13		-.03	
11. Extraversion	5.01	1.17						.02		-.06		-.05		-.03	
12. Agreeableness	5.02	1.01								-.12		.05		-.08	
13. Age	35.25	10.53										-.11		.62	**
14. Gender	1.86	0.51												-.08	
15. Tenure	4.25	3.32													

Note: Presented correlations are between-person correlations, whereas within-person scores were computed by aggregating each variable across days within participants. All correlations are Pearson's coefficients. n = 381 within-person observations; N = 102 participants. Gender is dummy coded, 1 = males and 2 = females. *p<.05; **p<.01

Table 48:   Means, Standard-Deviations and Correlations at the Between-Person Level in Study 2

Source: Author's illustration.

6.4.3.2 Replication of Study 1

Within-Person Variance
As in the previous diary studies 1a and 1b, before proceeding to the multi-level analyses, it was verified whether this method is at all reasonable by partitioning the daily variables' within- and between-person variance. The observed within-person variance was differentiated from between-person variance by executing a null model without any present independent variables at neither the between- nor the within-person level of the three daily variables and ICCs were calculated. Similar to study 1, this procedure yields evidence that all three daily variables vary statistically significant at the within-person level. Particularly, in study 2 the calculated ICC revealed that daily organizational identity salience exhibited 28%, daily customer-oriented behavior 54%, daily brand-congruent behavior 64%, daily deep acting 58%, daily surface acting 58% and daily organization-based self-esteem 36% within-person variance. These results provide support for hypotheses 1, 2a and 2b, which propose that organizational identity salience, customer-oriented behavior and brand-congruent behavior fluctuate within persons across days. Additionally, although not explicitly hypothesized, these results indicate (in line with previous research) that surface and deep acting as well as organization-based self-esteem vary at the within-person level. The within-person and between-person variance components for the daily variables as well as the resulting ICCs are presented in **Table 49**.

Variable	Within-Person Variance (σ^2)	Between-Person-Variance (τ_{00})	Percent of within-person variance $(\sigma2/(\sigma2+\tau_{00}))$	
Organizational Identity Salience	.64	1.68	28%	H1✓
Customer-Oriented Behavior	.72	.62	54%	H2a✓
Brand-Congruent Behavior	1.58	.88	64%	H2b✓
Daily Deep Acting	1.15	.84	58%	
Daily Surface Acting	1.03	.74	58%	
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.64	1.13	36%	

Note: To partition variance components the null model was estimated using the restricted maximum-likelihood estimator. All of the variance components were significant ($p<.001$)

Table 49: **Partitioned Variance Components of Within-Person Variables in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Due to the significant variance at the within-person and between-person level in the outcome variables, hierarchical linear modeling was required for data analysis in order to account for both levels of analysis.

Between-Person Effect of Organizational Identification

Hypotheses 3a and 3b predicted between-person organizational identification would be positively related to the mean level of daily customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. As in study 1, to test hypotheses at the between-person level, intercepts-as-outcomes-models were estimated. Particularly, individuals' person-means, i.e., the intercepts, of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior were regressed on between-person scores of organizational identification. For customer-orientated and brand-congruent behavior submitted scores for gender, age and tenure were additionally regressed on the outcome scores, in order to control for their influence on the intercept. Again, as appropriate when comparing effects between individuals, all between-person variables were centered around the grand-mean (cf. section 4.3.3). In study 2, the results of the intercepts-as-outcomes-model showed support for both hypotheses 3a and 3b as the between-person level of organizational identification had a positive effect on the mean levels of customer-oriented (standardized estimate = .31, *SE* = .06, *t* = 5.71, *p* < .01) and brand-congruent behavior (standardized estimate = .20, *SE* = .08, *t* = 2.60, *p* < .05). The calculation of the pseudo-R^2 revealed that organizational identification explained 31% of the between-person variance in customer-oriented behavior and 9% of the between-person variance in brand-congruent behavior. In both cases, the control variables did not significantly contribute to explaining between-person variance in the outcome variables.

Within-Person Effect of Organizational Identity Salience

Hypotheses 4a and 4b predicted that daily organizational identity salience would be positively related to daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. In order to test these hypotheses, daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior were regressed on daily organizational identity salience scores in a random-coefficient regression. The daily levels of positive and negative affect were additionally regressed on the daily outcome scores, in order to rule out affect as an alternative explanation of the results. In order to eliminate all

between-person variance, all scores of the daily predictor variables (organizational identity salience, positive and negative affect) were centered around the respective person-mean (cf. section 4.3.3). The results of the random-coefficient regression revealed that the daily level of organizational identity salience had a positive effect on individuals' daily levels of customer-oriented (standardized estimate = .58, *SE* = .05, *t* = 10.79, *p* <. 001) and brand-congruent behaviors (standardized estimate = .35, *SE* = .09, *t* = 3.73, *p* < .001). Controlling for all between-person variance of organizational identification and controlling for within-person positive and negative affect, hypotheses 4a and 4b could be supported. At the within-person level, pseudo-R^2 revealed that organizational identity salience accounted for 31% of the variance in customer-oriented behavior and 6% of the variance in brand-congruent behavior when excluding positive and negative affect as within-person control variables.

Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification
Hypotheses 5a and 5b predicted a negative interacting effect of between-level organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on reported daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. Prior to testing these hypothesized effects, the relationships between the intra-individual slopes of organizational identity salience, on the on hand, and customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior among individuals, on the other hand, were tested for significance. Hence, identical to the procedure in study 1, the slope of organizational identity salience was allowed to vary randomly in the model by adding a random error term to it. While the χ^2 test for the variance in the organizational identity salience slope on customer-oriented behavior marginally approached significance (p < .071), the results of the random-slopes model did not reveal significant variability in the intra-individual slopes for predicting brand-congruent behavior (p < .233). To formally test the predicted cross-level interaction of organizational identification, in a next step the detected slope variances were predicted by estimating a full intercepts-and-slopes model. For reported levels of daily customer-oriented behavior, the results showed strong support for the interactive effect of organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience. At the between-person level organizational identification, again centered around the grand-mean, significantly predicted the first-level regression coefficient of organizational identity salience and the effect direction was negative (standardized estimate = -.11, *SE* = .039, *t* = -2.67, *p* <.05), hence hypothesis 5a was confirmed.

Overall, pseudo- R^2 revealed that 28% of the between-person variance in the within-person slope of organizational identity salience for predicting daily customer-oriented behavior could be explained by between-person scores of organizational identification. No support for the interaction effect of organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on brand-congruent behavior was found (standardized estimate = 0.02, *SE* = .06, *t* = 0.27, *p* = .790), therefore hypothesis 5b was rejected. This comes as no surprise, since no significant variance was found in the respective intra-individual regression coefficient.

Figure 14 and Figure 15 show the cross-level interactions of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. The graphs, on the one hand, demonstrate the significant between-person effect, i.e., frontline employees who score high on organizational identification on average engage more often in customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. On the other hand, the figures also depict that highly identified frontline employees more strongly engage in these behaviors on days when the organizational identity is more salient compared to other days. Additionally, for highly identified frontline employees, a more consistent pattern of customer-oriented behaviors is indicated across days. That is, when highly identified frontline employees are compared to those who are less identified, the extent to which the identified individuals engage in customer-oriented behaviors is less dependent on their momentary organizational identity salience (within-person effect). For brand-congruent behavior, however, the interactive effect is not significant as demonstrated by the almost parallel slope line for high and low identified employees.
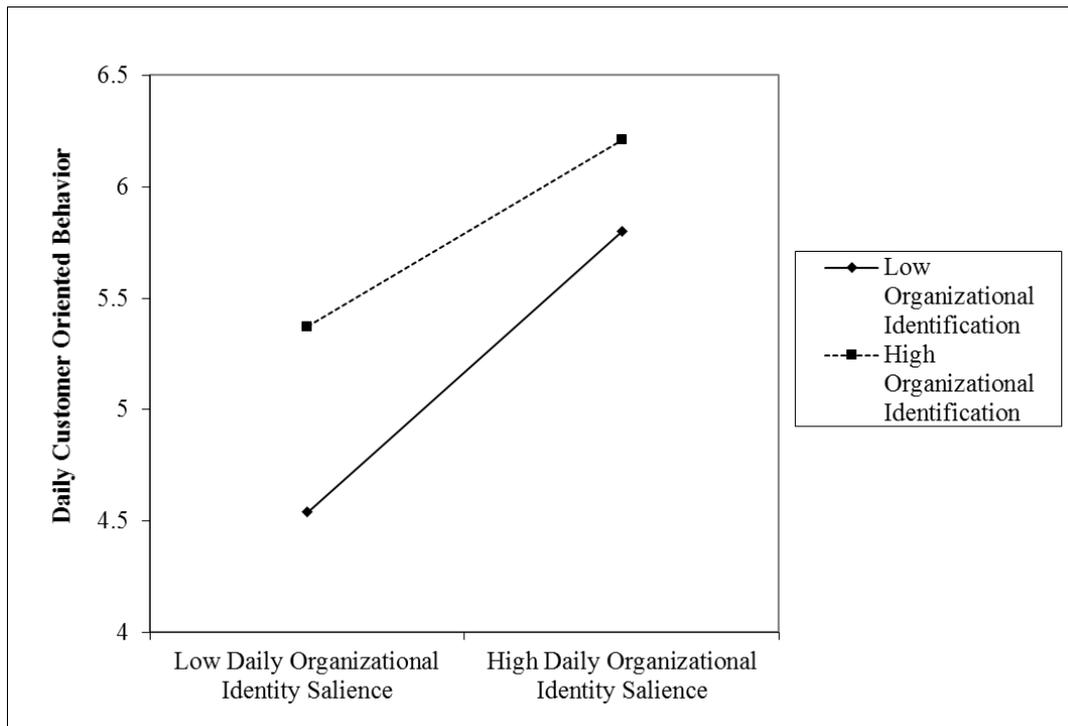
Figure 14: **Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification and Identity Salience on Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.
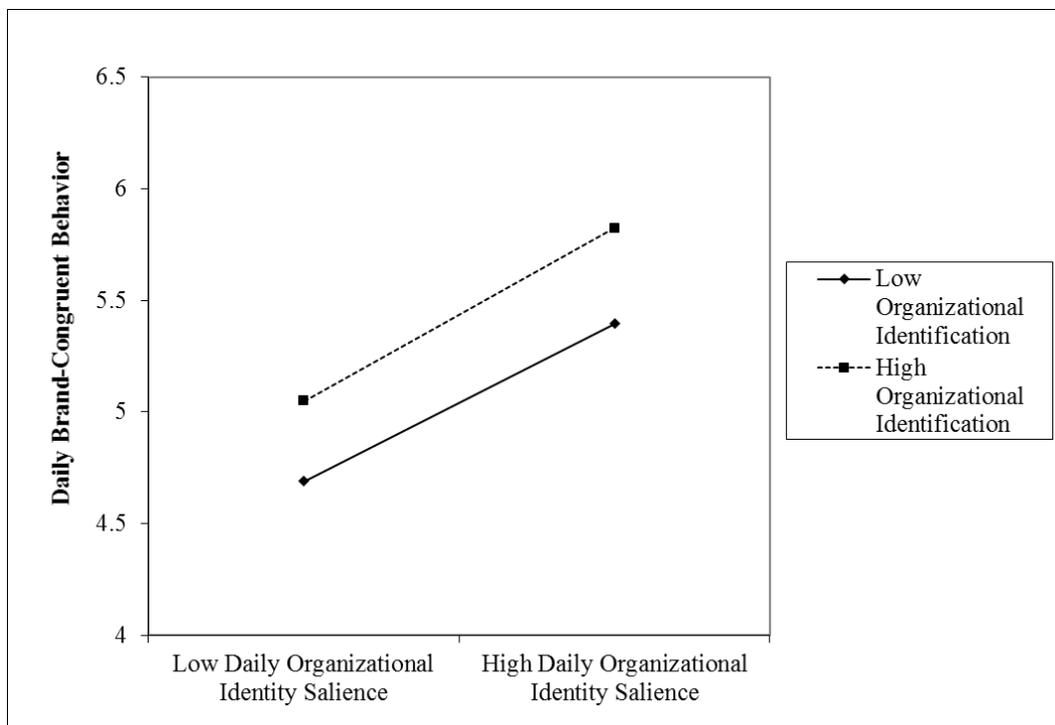
Figure 15: **Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification and Identity Salience on Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

The results of all estimated models for customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior are shown in **Table 50** and **Table 51**.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model				Random-Slopes Model				Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)				
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		
Intercept	5.482	.090	61.058	***	5.481	.077	70.543	***					5.482	.077	70.530	***	
Between-Person Predictors																	
Organizational Identification					.312	.055	5.711	***					.311	.055	5.688	***	H3a✓
Tenure					-.005	.030	-.170						-.005	.029	-.159		
Age					-.002	.009	-.184						-.003	.009	-.270		
Gender					.185	.157	1.179						.148	.155	.954		
Within-Person Predictors																	
Daily Organizational Identity Salience					.582	.054	10.793	***					.524	.062	8.498	***	H4a✓
Daily Positive Affect					.062	.087	.707						.094	.086	1.088		
Daily Negative Affect					-.040	.051	-.781						-.032	.050	-.639		
Cross-Level Interaction																	
Organizational Identification x Daily Organizational Identity Salience													-.105	.039	-2.699	**	H5a✓
-2*log (lh)		1094.151				961.554				958.307				951.140			
Diff -2*log						132.446	***			3.247				7.167	**		
df						6.000				2.000				2.000			
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.725 (0.062)				.499 (.042)				.481 (.045)				.465 (.044)			
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.614 (0.116)				.472 (.086)				.479 (.087)				.482 (.087)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience Slope										.032 (.036)	+			.023 (.037)			
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1						31%											
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2						29%											
Pseudo-R^2 Slope														28%			

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]$p<.100$ *$p<.05$; **$p<.01$; ***$p<.001$

Table 50: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model				Random-Slopes Model			Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)				
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t		
Intercept	5.243	.113	46.255	***	5.243	.109	47.956	***				5.244	.109	47.840	***	
Between-Person Predictors																
Organizational Identification					.199	.077	2.596	**				.197	.077	2.560	**	H3b✓
Tenure					-.016	.042	-.380					-.016	.041	-.393		
Age					-.003	.013	-.244					-.004	.013	-.267		
Gender					.150	.221	.678					.104	.218	.478		
Within-Person Predictors																
Daily Organizational Identity Salience					.347	.093	3.728	***				.370	.103	3.584	***	H4b✓
Daily Positive Affect					.162	.102	1.590					.162	.102	1.597		
Daily Negative Affect					-.157	.177	-.892					-.130	.176	-.737		
Cross-Level Interaction																
Organizational Identification x																
Daily Organizational Identity Salience												.017	.062	.267		H5b✗
-2*log (lh)		1358.078				1330.359				1326.575			1326.424			
Diff -2*log						27.719.712	***			3.783			.073			
df						6.000				2			2.000			
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.585 (.135)				1.472 (.125)				1.438 (.133)			1.438 (.133)			
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.863 (.186)				.802 (.173)				.818 (.174)			.818 (.174)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience Slope										.055 (.105) n.s.			.056 (.105)			
Pseudo-R² Level 1						6%										
Pseudo-R² Level 2						10%										

Note. Est. = Estimate; ⁺p<.100 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 51:   Estimation of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 2

Source: Author's illustration.

6.4.3.3 Effects on Emotional Labor

Between-Person Effect of Organizational Identification
Hypotheses 6a and 6b predicted that at the between-person level organizational identification would be positively related to deep acting and negatively related to surface acting of frontline employees. Equivalent to the previous procedure, intercepts-as-outcomes models were estimated. Specifically, individuals' person-means, i.e., the intercepts, of deep acting and surface acting were regressed on between-person scores of organizational identification. Additionally, submitted scores for the personality characteristics extraversion and agreeableness were regressed on the outcome scores, in order to control for possible confounding effects. All between-person variables were centered around the grand-mean. The results of the intercepts-as-outcomes model showed no support for hypothesis 6a as the between-person level of organizational identification had no effect on the mean levels of deep acting (standardized estimate = .02, *SE* = .09, *t* = .22, *p* = .823). Additionally, even if not hypothesized, while extraversion had no significant effect (standardized estimate = -.01, *SE* = .10, *t* = -.11, *p* <. 912), agreeableness had a negative effect on deep acting (standardized estimate = -0.26 *SE* = .10, *t* = -2.52, *p* <. 01). In contrast, strong support for hypothesis 6b was provided as organizational identification significantly predicted between-person levels of surface acting (standardized estimate = -.44, *SE* = .07, *t* = -6.23, *p* < .001). Moreover, beyond hypotheses, extraversion had a positive effect on between-person levels of surface acting (standardized estimate = .19, *SE* = .09, *t* = 2.22, *p* < .05). Separate estimations of pseudo-R^2 for organizational identification revealed that the between-person construct accounted for no variance in deep acting and 34% of between-person variance in surface acting.

Within-Person Effect of Organizational Identity Salience
Hypotheses 7a and 7b predicted that daily organizational identity salience would be positively related to daily levels of deep acting and surface acting. In order to test these hypotheses, daily levels of deep acting and surface acting were regressed on daily organizational identity salience scores in a random-coefficient regression. Furthermore, daily scores of positive and negative affect (at the start of the work shift) were regressed on the daily outcome scores. In order to eliminate all between-person variance, all scores of the daily predictor variables (organizational identity salience, positive and negative affect) were centered around the

respective person-mean. The results of the random-coefficient regression revealed that the daily level of organizational identity salience had no significant effect on individuals' daily levels of deep acting (standardized estimate = -.09, *SE* = .08, *t* = -1.06, *p* < .290), but a significant negative effect on daily surface acting (standardized estimate = -.54, *SE* = .07, *t* = -7.67, *p* < .001). Hence, hypothesis 7a was rejected, while hypotheses 7b was confirmed. At the within-person level, pseudo-R^2 revealed that organizational identity salience accounted for 17% of the variance in surface acting when excluding positive and negative affect as within-person control variables.

Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification
Hypothesis 8a predicted a negative interacting effect of between-person organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on reported daily levels of deep acting. Because there were no significant main effects of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on deep acting, an analysis of the interacting effect was omitted and hypothesis 8a had to be rejected.

Hypothesis 8b predicted that there is a positive interacting effect of between-person organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience on daily levels of surface acting. Equal to the previously conducted procedure, before testing these cross-level moderator effect, the variance in the intra-individual slope of organizational identity salience for predicting surface acting was estimated, i.e., the slope of organizational identity salience was allowed to vary randomly in the model by adding a random error term to it. The χ^2 test for the variance in the organizational identity salience slope on surface acting did not reach significance (*p* < .138), however the model fit significantly increased when adding the random error term (Diff -2*log = 8.47, *p* < .05). Consequently, the test of the cross-level interaction was conducted. To formally test the predicted cross-level interaction of organizational identification, in a next step the detected slope variances were predicted by estimating a full intercepts-and-slopes model adding organizational identification and the personality traits extraversion and agreeableness as predictors of the slope. For reported levels of daily surface acting, the results showed strong support for the interactive effect of organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience. At the between-person level organizational identification significantly predicted the first-level regression coefficient of organizational identity salience and the effect direction was positive

(standardized estimate = .18, SE = .06, t = 3.10, p <.01), hence hypothesis 8b was confirmed. Additionally, although not hypothesized, support for cross-level interactions of extraversion (standardized estimate = -.23, SE = .06, t = -3.08, p <.001) and agreeableness (standardized estimate = -.16, SE = .07, t = -2.35, p <.01) on the effect of organizational identity salience on surface acting was found. Subsumed, pseudo-R^2 revealed that 60% of the between-person variance in the within-person slope of organizational identity salience for predicting daily surface acting could be explained by between-person scores of organizational identification, extraversion and agreeableness.

The three cross-level interactions of organizational identification, extraversion as well as agreeableness and organizational identity salience on surface acting are depicted in **Figures 16**, **17** and **18**. The graphs indicate that frontline employees who score high on organizational identification engage less often in surface acting (between-person effect), and that these frontline employees fluctuate less with regard to surface acting across days. That is, when highly identified frontline employees are compared to those who are less identified, the extent to which the identified individuals engage in surface acting is less dependent on their momentary organizational identity salience (within-person effect).
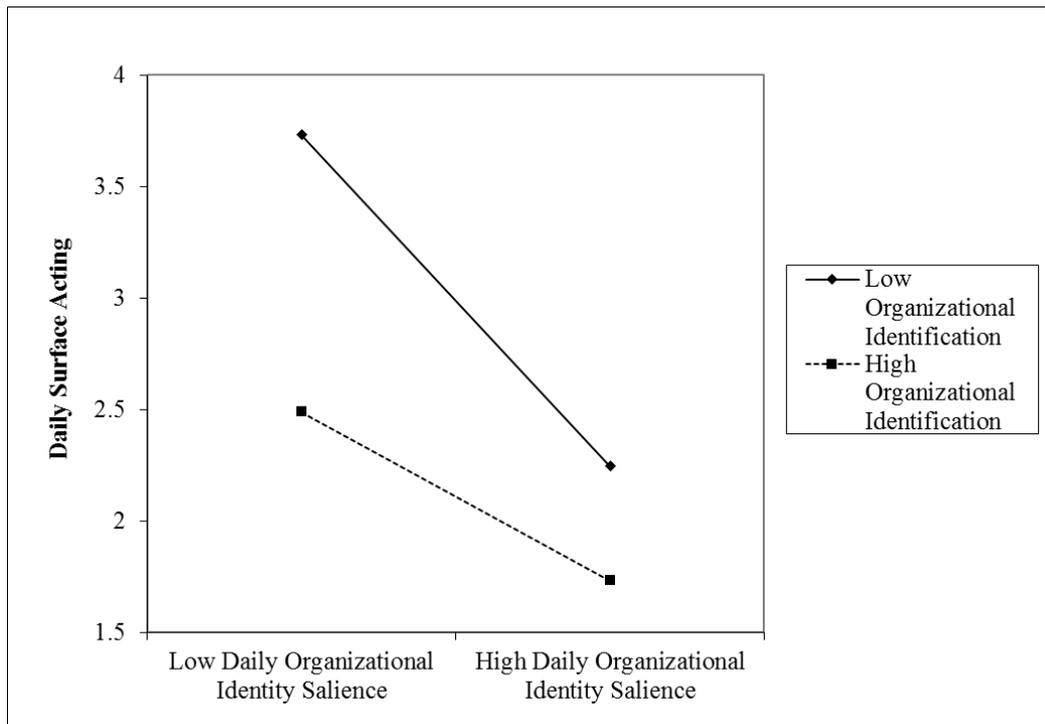
Figure 16: **Cross-Level Interaction of Organizational Identification and Identity Salience on Surface Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

For extraversion and agreeableness the opposite effect is graphically demonstrated. Highly extraverted employees, on the one hand, engage more often in surface acting and fluctuate more strongly with regard to their daily surface acting. Compared to employees low on extraversion, on days when their organizational identity salience is low, they engage in surface acting more strongly. Agreeable employees, on the other hand, tend to use surface acting less than other individuals (although the main effect was not significant), but again significantly fluctuate more strongly with regard to their daily surface acting. That is, when highly agreeable frontline employees are compared to those who are less agreeable, the degree to which they use surface acting is more dependent on their momentary organizational identity salience (within-person effect).
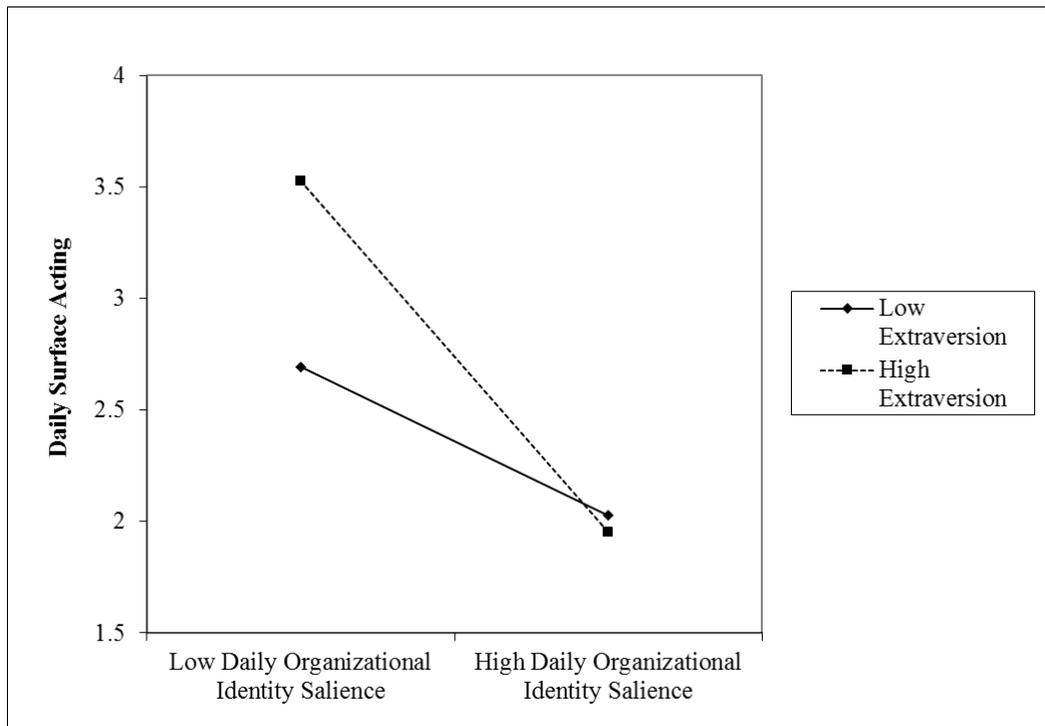
Figure 17: **Cross-Level Interaction of Extraversion and Identity Salience on Surface Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.
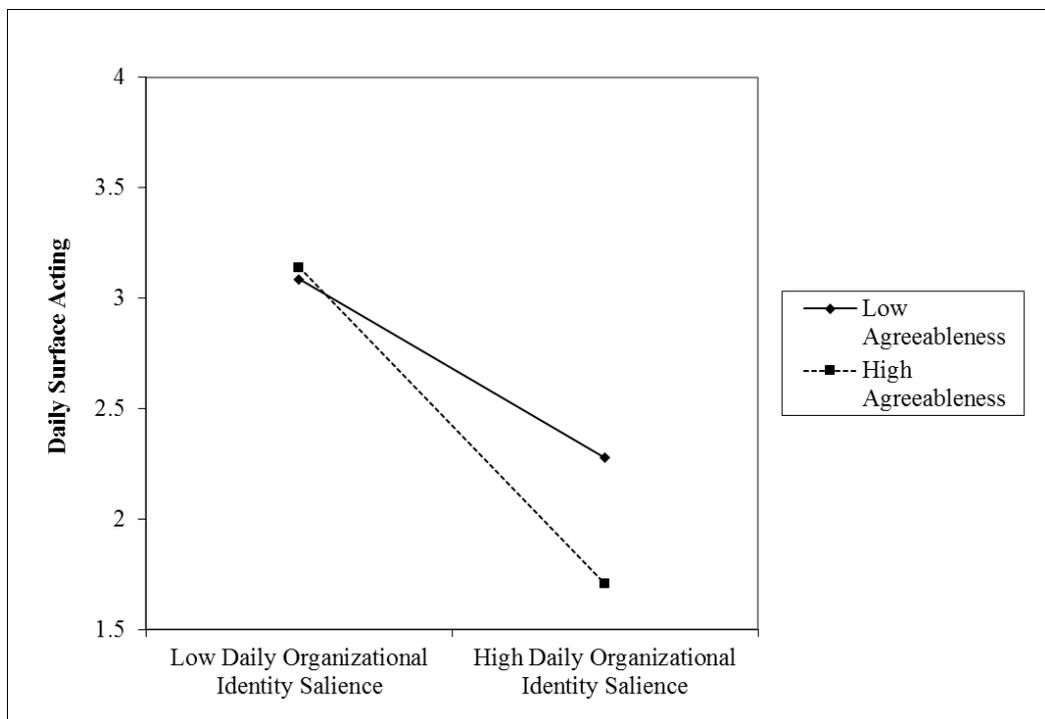
Figure 18: **Cross-Level Interaction of Agreeableness and Identity Salience on Surface Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

The results of all estimated models for deep acting and surface acting are shown in **Table 52** and **Table 53**.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)			Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model			
	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	2.726	.107	25.564 ***	2.726	.103	26.452 ***	
Between-Person Predictors							
Organizational Identification				.019	.085	.224	H6a✗
Extraversion				-.011	.103	-.111	
Agreeableness				-.261	.103	-2.524 **	
Within-Person Predictors							
Daily Organizational Identity Salience				-.086	.082	-1.059	H7a✗
Daily Positive Affect				.054	.089	.609	
Daily Negative Affect				.252	.156	1.628	
Cross-Level Interactions							
General Level of Organizational Identification x							(not tested)
Daily Organizational Identity Salience							H8a✗
-2*log (lh)		1256.313			1245.162		
Diff -2*log					11.151 +		
df					6		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.147 (.097)			.113 (.096)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.833 (.163)			.761 (.153)		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1					0%		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					9%		

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 52: **Estimation of the Hierarchical Model for Deep Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Random Coefficient Regression and Means-as-Outcomes Model				Random-Slopes Model				Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)				
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		
Intercept	2.551	.100	25.410	***	2.549	.085	30.037	***					2.552	.085	29.978	***	
Between-Person Predictors																	
Organizational Identification					-.436	.070	-6.225	***					-.439	.070	-6.254	***	H6b✓
Extraversion					.188	.085	2.220	*					.189	.085	2.234	**	
Agreeableness					-.127	.085	-1.492						-.129	.085	-1.504		
Within-Person Predictors																	
Daily Organizational Identity Salience (OIS)					-.545	.070	-7.668	***					-.560	.076	-7.359	***	H7b✓
Daily Positive Affect					.127	.077	1.635						.131	.074	1.785	+	
Daily Negative Affect					-.016	.133	-.112						-.069	.129	-.541		
Cross-Level Interactions																	
Organizational Identification x Daily OIS													.182	.059	3.098	**	H8b✓
Extraversion x Daily OIS													-.227	.061	-3.076	***	
Agreeableness x Daily OIS													-.156	.066	-2.349	**	
-2*log (lh)		1214.660				1125.789				1117.324				1093.825			
Diff -2*log						88.013	***			8.465	**			23.499	***		
df						6.000				2.000				3.000			
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.032 (.088)				.846 (.072)				.793 (.074)				.745 (.069)			
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.733 (.145)				.495 (.104)				.535 (.107)				.527 (.104)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience Slope										.097 (.065)				.038 (.050)			
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1						17%											
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2						37%											
Pseudo-R^2 Slope														60%			

Note. Est. = Estimate; +p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 53:   Estimations of the Hierarchical Model for Surface Acting in Study 2

Source: Author's illustration.

6.4.3.4 Effects on Organizational Identity Salience

Within-Person Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem
Hypothesis 9 predicted that daily levels of organization-based self-esteem would be positively related to daily levels of organizational identity salience. In order to test this hypothesis, daily levels of organizational identity salience were regressed on daily organization-based self-esteem scores in a random-coefficient regression. Furthermore, daily scores of positive and negative affect were regressed on the daily outcome scores to control for their effect. The scores of the daily predictor variables (organization-based self-esteem, positive and negative affect) were centered around the respective person-mean. The results of the random-coefficient regression revealed that the daily level of organization-based self-esteem significantly predicted daily levels of organizational identity salience (standardized estimate = .29, SE = .04, t = 7.07, p < .001). Hence, hypothesis 9 was confirmed. Additionally, the control variables positive (standardized estimate = .18, SE = .06, t = 2.98, p < .01) and negative affect (standardized estimate = -.28, SE = .10, t = -2.68, p < .01) significantly predicted daily levels of organizational identity salience. At the within-person level, pseudo-R^2 revealed that organization-based self-esteem accounted for 14% of the variance in organizational identity salience. When adding positive and negative affect to the model, additional 6% of within-person variance were explained.

Cross-Level Interaction of Organization Based-Self-Esteem
Hypothesis 10 predicted a negative interacting effect of between-person organization-based self-esteem and daily organization-based self-esteem on reported daily levels of organizational identity salience. When estimating cross-level interactions, the main effect of the moderator has to be controlled for, therefore as an intermediate step, organizational identity salience was regressed on between-person organization-based self-esteem and the control variables age, gender and tenure. The means-as-outcomes model revealed a positive between-person effect of organization-based self-esteem (standardized estimate = .41, SE = .11, t = 3.55, p < .001) on organizational identity salience, accounting for 11% of employees' average level of organizational identity salience. Equal to the previously conducted procedure, before testing the cross-level moderator effect, the variance in the intra-individual slope of organization-based self-esteem for predicting organ-

izational identity salience was estimated. The χ^2 test for the variance in the organization-based self-esteem slope on surface acting reached significance ($p < .05$). In a next step the detected slope variances were predicted by estimating a full intercepts-and-slopes model adding between-person organization-based self-esteem as a predictor of the slope. The results showed strong support for the interactive effect of between-person organization-based self-esteem and daily organization-based self-esteem. At the between-person level organization-based self-esteem significantly predicted the first-level regression coefficient of organization-based self-esteem and the effect direction was negative (standardized estimate = -.14, $SE = .03$, $t = -4.96$, $p < .01$). The pseudo-R^2 revealed that organization-based self-esteem explained 51% of the slope variance in the effect of daily organization-based self-esteem on organizational identity salience. Consequently, hypothesis 10 was confirmed.

Figures 19 depicts the cross-level interactions of between-person organization-based self-esteem and daily organization-based self-esteem on organizational identity salience. The graph indicates that not only do frontline employees who score high on organization-based self-esteem at the between-person level experience a general higher level of organizational identity salience (between-person effect), but also that these frontline employees experience organizational identity salience more consistently. That is, when frontline employees with high levels of organization-based self-esteem are compared to those with a lower level, the extent to which their organizational identity is rendered salient depends less on their momentary organization-based self-esteem (within-person effect).
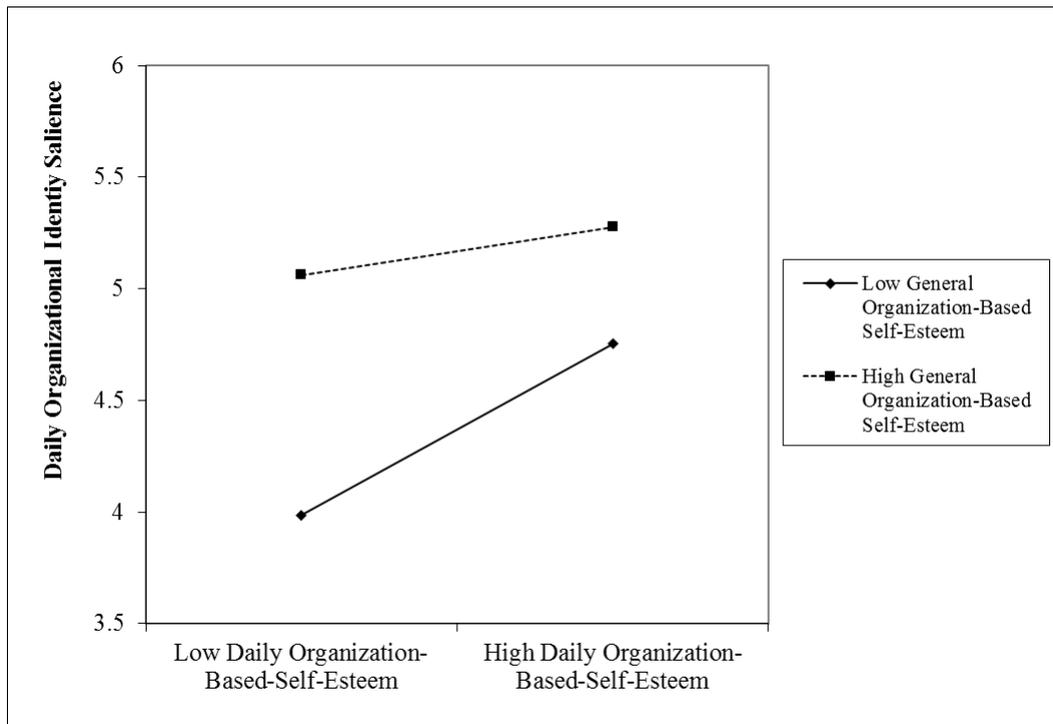
Figure 19: **Cross-Level Interaction of General and Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem on Organizational Identity Salience in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

The results of all estimated models for organizational identity salience are presented in **Table 54**.

	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model				Random-Slopes Model		Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)				
Model Variables	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t				Est.	SE	t		
Intercept	4.769	.135	35.399	***	4.770	.127	37.515	***			4.770	.128	37.394	***	
Between-Person Predictors															
Organization-Based Self-Esteem					.406	.114	3.553	***			.400	.114	3.496	***	
Age					-.018	.016	-1.139				-.017	.015	-1.102		
Gender					.077	.254	.303				-.071	.242	-.293		
Tenure					.019	.049	.387				.001	.047	.007		
Within-Person Predictors															
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem					.289	.041	7.067	***			.245	.042	5.858	***	H9✓
Daily Positive Affect					.180	.060	2.983	**			.183	.057	3.197	**	
Daily Negative Affect					-.279	.104	-2.685	**			-.316	.099	-3.195	**	
Cross-Level Interaction															
Organization-Based Self-Esteem x Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem											-.138	.028	-4.962	**	H10✓
-2*log (lh)		1143.206				1071.775				1062.501		1046.060			
Diff -2*log						71.431	***			9.265	**		16.441	***	
df						6				2			6		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.643(.055)				.518 (.044)				.480 (.046)			.470 (.044)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.661(.259)				1.489 (.230)				1.541 (.235)			1.512 (.230)		
Organization-Based Self-Esteem Slope										.039 (.033)	*		.019 (.022)		
Pseudo-R² Level 1						20%									
Pseudo-R² Level 2						12%									
Pseudo-R² Slope													51%		

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 54: **Estimations of the Hierarchical Model for Organizational Identity Salience in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

6.4.3.5 Additional Analyses

As meaningful within-person effects of frontline employees' organization-based self-esteem on organizational identity salience, and of organizational identity salience on three of the suggested dimensions of brand-building behaviors (customer-oriented behavior, brand-congruent behavior and surface acting) could be detected in study 2, the next logical analytical step would be to examine a possible mediating effect of organizational identity salience between organization-based self-esteem and the performance outcomes. In order to implement this, a multi-level path-analysis via Mplus 6.11 (cf. Heck and Thomas 2000) was conducted, estimating direct effects from organization-based self-esteem to all dimensions of brand-building behaviors and estimating respective indirect effects including organizational identity salience as a mediator. Level-1 variables were centered as described above, i.e., around the respective group-mean. Results revealed strong support for the full mediating effect of daily organizational identity salience on daily customer-oriented behavior (indirect effect: standardized estimate = .17, SE = .03, t = 6.85, p <.01; direct effect: standardized estimate = -.04, SE = .04, t = -1.01, $n.s.$) and daily surface acting (indirect effect: standardized estimate = -.16, SE = .03, t = -5.93, p <.01; direct effect: standardized estimate = .01, SE = .05, t = -0.22, $n.s.$). A partial mediation effect was found in case of brand-congruent behavior (indirect effect: standardized estimate = .13, SE = .03, t = 4.41, p <.01; direct effect: standardized estimate = -.18, SE = .06, t = -2.80, p <.01). There were no significant effects of for daily deep acting (indirect effect: standardized estimate = -.03, SE = .02, t = -1.30, $n.s.$; direct effect: standardized estimate = -.01, SE = .06, t = -0.19, $n.s.$), which was in accordance with hypotheses testing and prior analysis via HLM7. The results of the mediation analysis are presented in **Table 87** in Appendix C.

To further test robustness of the results, all models were estimated integrating additional control variables. Exemplarily, hypotheses on customer-oriented behavior and brand-congruent behavior were tested integrating agreeableness and extraversion as control variables. Similarly, effects on emotional labor were reanalyzed controlling for age, gender and tenure. All initial results withstood the additional robustness testing.

6.5 Discussion of the Findings

Study 2 depicts a replication as well as an extension of study 1 of this work, by incorporating emotional labor of frontline employees as an additional outcome, next to customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, and testing within-person, between-person as well as interacting effects of organizational identification on these brand-building behaviors. Further, the role of within-person levels of organization-based self-esteem as well as its interplay with the respective between-person component of organization-based self-esteem as a predictor of daily organizational identity salience was examined.

Similar to study 1, significant within-person variance in all daily constructs could be detected, accounting for significant amounts between almost a third (28% for organizational identity salience) and more than a half of the overall construct variance (e.g., 54 % for customer-oriented behavior), further substantiating the necessity to approach these constructs from a multi-level perspective and directly responding to the first research question of this work. Demonstrated within-person variance in deep acting and surface acting (both 58 %) in study 2, is in line with former research conceptualizing emotional labor strategies as dynamic constructs (e.g., Beal *et al.* 2006; Huang *et al.* 2015; Scott and Barnes 2011; Totterdell and Holman 2003). Therefore, results of study 1 with respect to the first research question could be replicated and extended, indicating that frontline employees fluctuate in their organizational identity salience, their customer-oriented and brand-congruent behaviors as well as with regard to their emotional labor across days. This again underpins the importance to study organizational identity processes (cf. Becker *et al.* 2013; Ketturat *et al.* 2016) and brand-building performance (cf. Dalal *et al.* 2014) on both between-person and within-person levels of analysis.

In study 2, via hierarchical linear modeling direct effects of organizational identification at the between-person and organizational identity salience at the within-person level, pertaining to the second research question, could be replicated to predict typical as well as daily levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior. Moreover, the analysis of the disaggregated effects on emotional labor revealed between-person effects of organizational identification and within-per-

son levels of organizational identity salience as strong predictors on their respective levels of analysis for surface acting, but no such effects for deep acting on either level could be detected. Hence, it can be concluded that frontline employees who score generally high on organizational identification, to a lesser extend engage in surface acting as a typical strategy for emotion regulation compared to less identified employees. This is line with Mishra et al. (2012), who demonstrated a negative effect of organizational identification on between-person levels of surface acting among pharmaceutical sales representatives. Simultaneously, study 2 revealed that on days when frontline employees experience increased levels of organizational identity salience, they engage less in surface acting than on other days. These findings plead for the concept of emotional labor variability (cf. Scott et al. 2012), suggesting that a person varies in their use of surface acting over time, which predicts more immediate levels of engagement in this emotional labor strategy compared to average levels. This result yields further support for the relevance of varying levels of surface acting, i.e., "acting in bad faith" (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, p. 32), by brand representatives at the customer encounter. Experiencing and displaying expected emotions plays a key role in successful service interactions (Hochschild 2003, p. 137). Increased daily levels of surface acting, fueled by diminished levels of organizational identity salience, are likely to pose a risk to customers' beneficial service brand experience on that day and negatively influence subsequent brand perceptions, as surface acting is perceived as inauthentic (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2006, p. 61) and known to lessen the effect of the display of positive emotions during the service encounter (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993, p. 97), resulting in dissociating of customers from the respective service brand (Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013, p. 485). This notion directly complements the study of Gilsa *et al.* (2013), who demonstrated that employees' motives to improve the self (pleasure motive) were linked to less surface acting, while days when employees wanted to prevent arguments (prevention motive) or intended to just conform to requirements (instrumental motive) were linked to surface acting. According to the results obtained in study 2, with respect to daily levels of surface acting it seems feasible that daily levels of organizational identity salience particularly drive these underlying motives of frontline employees to engage in emotional labor. In line with the presented argumentation based on the social identity approach, on days, when employees' organizational identity is less salient, they are likely to just conform to requirements as their self concepts are

less aligned with the organizational goals and they have less of an intrinsic motivation to comply to the organization's best interest on that day (cf. van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006, p. 572). Vice versa, there should be an increased linkage between organizational goals and self-goals when a strong bond with the organization is experienced (cf. Tajfel 1978b, p. 71). In this case, employees will define themselves as a prototypical member of the organization and organizational interest will become self-interests. Consequently, motives to improve the self by improving organizational success are likely to be triggered and employees on days with increased levels of organizational identity salience will avoid surface acting more than usually. This is in line with the documented results of study 2.

Suggested effects on deep acting did not hold true in study 2, i.e., frontline employees scoring high or low on organizational identification did not differ with regard to their average levels of deep acting, neither did they engage in increased levels of deep acting on days when their organizational identity was more salient compared to other days. There are several possible explanations for the absence of these relationships in the data. Notably, the applied operationalization of the construct assumes that emotion regulation is consciously performed (e.g., "Today, I tried to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers."). While until recently emotional labor was viewed as intentional and conscious endeavor, first innovative considerations with respect to automatic emotion regulation were taken and it was stated that individuals might be able to regulate their emotions without actually knowing they are doing so (Mauss et al. 2009, p. 54). Against this background, emotion regulation, particularly cognitive regulation, i.e., deep acting, may become instinctive over time and hence easier to perform (cf. Mauss *et al.* 2009, p. 42). While deliberate processing requires attentional resources and is goal-driven, automatic processing is suggested to be initiated through the activation of certain knowledge structures (schemas, scripts, or concepts). Taking into account that organizational identity itself represents a cognitive schema as a part of the self-concept of frontline employees (cf. Turner *et al.* 1987, p. 11), in case of increased organizational identity salience on a given day, the increased activation of this very knowledge structure is a logical consequence. Concomitantly, concepts of prototypical organizational members and scripts of organizationally desired behaviors (e.g., engaging in deep acting in order to display positive emotions at the customer encounter) are activated and most

likely transform into psychological and behavioral actions without additional conscious efforts. These automatic processes might intermingle with intentional emotional labor on both levels of analysis and consequently undermine significant effects of organizational identification or organizational identity salience on deep acting in this study. Acknowledging increased requirements with regard to introspection for the evaluation of own levels of deep acting, an alternative more simple explanation might be that the presented items simply overstrained participants' self-observation skills during the data collection. This could have, despite the detected intra- and inter-individual variance levels and satisfying quality assessment of the construct, lead to increased randomness among the observed scores. This might explain the absence of the hypothesized systematic relationships. Further, unconsidered moderator effects could substantiate opposed effects in the sample, which cancel out overall direct effects. However, additional analyses did not uncover such moderating effects. Be that as it may, due to the missing direct effects, no further investigations with regard to the cross-level interaction could be conducted for deep acting as an outcome.

The analysis of cross-level interactions with regard to the observed outcomes provided meaningful evidence for different sensitivities of employees with average high vs. low levels of organizational identification to daily changes in organizational identity salience, addressed in the third research question of this work. In the case of customer-oriented behavior and surface acting, significant effects of between-person organizational identification on frontline employees' reactivity towards daily levels of organizational identity salience could be detected, indicating that highly identified employees adapt their daily customer-oriented behavior to a lesser extent than employees with low levels of organizational identification. Equally, employees who were more identified with their organization than other employees, showed a more consistent pattern of surface acting. These results speak for the hypothesized buffering effect of general high levels of identification on within-person effects of organizational identity salience. In line with the social identity approach, highly identified employees will stick to typical high levels of favorable performance outcomes (e.g., customer-oriented behavior) and avoid detrimental behaviors (e.g., surface acting), facing the great significance organizational success has for their own self-esteem and intending to protect it (Turner and Tajfel 1986, pp. 16 f). Though, in study 2, no such buffering effect of organ-

izational identification could be detected for brand-congruent behavior. Interestingly, although not directly hypothesized, the personality traits extraversion and agreeableness, exhibited an opposite moderating effect. Extraverts engaged in higher average levels of surface acting and both extravert and agreeable employees were more reactive to daily levels of organizational identity salience with regard to surface acting. Agreeable individuals, on the one hand, are known to be concerned to the welfare of others and avoid to violate norms or to upset others (cf. Roccas *et al.* 2002, p. 789). Consequently, in case of low organizational identity salience, agreeable frontline employees might still want to display positive emotions in order to not upset the customer or ignore organizational display rules demanding "service with a smile" (cf. Pugh 2001), and consequently more strongly engage in surface acting rather than leaving a bad impression. Extraverts on the other hand, are referred to as enthusiastic, sociable, talkative and quite comfortable regarding social interactions (Watson *et al.* 1994, p. 22). Due to these attributes it might come naturally to extraverts to "fake" positive emotions (surface acting), when felt emotions are inappropriate, causing the observed effect.

Finally, study 2 provided meaningful insights with regard to the role organization-based self-esteem plays at the within-person and between-person level in predicting daily levels of organizational identity salience, taking up the forth research question of this study. Findings indicate that on days, when frontline employees started their work-shift with boosted levels of organizational self-worth, they experienced a stronger bond with the organization on the subsequent day. This result supports the preceding argumentation that the degree to which an employee defines his own identity in terms of the particular organizational identity on a given day depends on their momentary self-evaluation (cf. Korman 1966, p. 479). Motivated to enhance or protect their own level of organization-based self-esteem, their image of the prototype of an ideal organizational member (cf. Pierce *et al.* 1989, p. 625) is compared to their own momentary perception of capability to serve organizational goals. Subsequently, employees manage their momentary level of experienced identification (organizational identity salience). This new understanding supplements the prevalent notice of organization-based self-esteem in light of the social identity approach. While self-esteem enhancement is stated as the underlying motive of social identification (Arnett *et al.* 2003, p. 92; Dutton *et al.* 1994, p. 239) in the social identity approach and the positive effect of or-

ganizational identification on high general levels of organization-based self-esteem has been demonstrated (cf. Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Bowden 2002; Shamir and Kark 2004), in this study a more dynamic and inverse relationship, pertaining to intra-individual facets of these constructs, could be disclosed for the first time. Daily organization-based self-esteem explained 14% of variance in daily organizational identity salience, therefore providing an effective means to enhance within-person levels of sensed organizational identity. Additionally, a new scope of application of the behavioral plasticity concept (the extent to which individuals are affected by situational cues and consequently adapt their attitudes and behaviors accordingly) (Brockner 1988, p. 27), was demonstrated in study 2. Particularly, frontline employees' average level of organization-based self-esteem, in case of a strong manifestation, functioned as a buffer and reduced their sensitivity towards daily levels of organizational self-worth. This underpins the presented reasoning that employees who in general terms experience low levels of organization-based self-esteem, exhibit increased uncertainty as to the correctness of their general organizational attitudes and behaviors (cf. Korman 1976, p. 56) and therefore more intensely react to daily levels of self-worth as a momentary indicator of their capability to represent the organization and manage their organizational identity salience accordingly. Additional analyses revealed that organizational identity salience mediated the relationship between organization-based self-esteem and customer-oriented as well as brand-congruent behavior and surface acting at the within-person level. Through this supplementary insight, further emphasis is placed on the meaningful behavioral consequences of daily levels of organization-based self-esteem with regard to brand-building behaviors of frontline employees via intra-individual changes of organizational identity salience.

All findings at the within-person level could be obtained controlling for employees' positive and negative affect at the start of the respective work shift, clearly demonstrating that intra-individual social identity processes, i.e., daily changes with regard to organizational identity salience, beyond affective predictors (e.g., Ilies *et al.* 2006; Rothbard and Wilk 2011), contribute significantly towards the explanation of daily brand-building performance levels within frontline employees.

7 Conclusion and Perspective

7.1 Summary of Core Findings

Despite the crucial role frontline employees play for the development of a strong service brand (Morhart *et al.* 2009, p. 122) in light of the new service-dominant logic (cf. Lusch *et al.* 2007), and although a consistent and homogenous delivery of brand experience to customers is a top-of-mind objective of internal brand management (Deutscher Markenmonitor 2015), prior internal branding research has not addressed how intra-individual levels of behaviors that support organizations' brand-building efforts, namely brand-building behaviors (e.g., Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014), are affected.

Drawing from social identity theory, this work supplements the prevailing cross-sectional perspective on brand-building behaviors which neglects the existence and relevance of intra-individual variation (cf. Barnes *et al.* 2012; Dalal *et al.* 2009; Sonnentag and Frese 2009), by examining both inter-individual (between persons) as well as intra-individual (within persons) variability of these constructs and introducing, beyond between-person levels of organizational identification, a time-variant component, namely daily organizational identity salience, as an intra-individual driver. Thereby, innovative insights on how momentarily experienced degrees of organizational identity can affect daily manifestations of frontline employees' brand-building behaviors were provided. Particularly, in order to challenge the prevalent stable conceptualization of brand-building behaviors and organizational identification, disaggregated effects of organizational identification and daily organizational identity salience as well as respective interacting effects on frontline employees' brand-building behaviors were identified and tested. Moreover, this work also offers important insights into how daily levels of organizational identity salience can be evoked by contributing to employees' organization-based self-esteem, on both the within-person as well as the between-person level. This provides managers of frontline staff with meaningful insights on how to foster daily levels of organizational identity salience.

225

In order to meet the specified research objectives, all theoretical and conceptual considerations and the performed empirical analyses were guided by four research questions, which were introduced at the outset of this work:

1. Do frontline employees vary with regard to their brand-building behaviors and their sense of shared organizational identity (organizational identity salience) across workdays?

2. Do between-person organizational identification and within-person organizational identity salience of frontline employees influence respective levels of brand-building behaviors, i.e., average behaviors at the between-person level and daily behaviors at the within-person level?

3. Are all frontline employees equally sensitive towards within-person changes of organizational identity salience on subsequent levels of brand-building behaviors or does between-person organizational identification mediate this sensitivity?

4. Which roles do within-person and between-person levels of organization-based self-esteem play in triggering within-person levels of organizational identity salience of frontline employees?

To address the proposed research questions adequately, in chapter 2 the conceptual and theoretical foundations of the investigation were laid. Here, a particular emphasis was placed on the empirical and practical importance of both between- and within-person levels of frontline employees' brand-building behaviors and on the disaggregated perspective with regard to identification in organizations in this context. Moreover, foundations of the construct of organization-based self-esteem and related theory were introduced. In chapter 3, within the course of a systematic discussion of existing literature, it was ascertained that the current state of empirical work in related research streams was insufficient to respond to the research questions raised in chapter 1. Therefore, after the methodological foundations of this work were presented in chapter 4, chapter 5 and 6 were dedicated to provide answers with regard to the formulated research issues.

As a starting point to approach the first three research questions, study 1 containing two sub-studies 1a and 1b, was conducted. For data collection, a daily experience sampling design was implemented in both sub-studies in order to depict the proposed daily within-person variation. Constructs at the between-person level were assessed in a general questionnaire prior to the daily diary portion of the studies. A conceptual reference framework, consisting of hypotheses on within-person variation of two dimensions of brand-building behavior, namely customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, and organizational identity salience, as well as direct effects of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on these brand-building behaviors, was developed in study 1a and tested among 36 frontline employees (over 145 days) working for a large FMCG company. In study 1b, in addition, a cross-level interaction of organizational identification on the proposed within-person relationships was tested among a convenience sample of 92 frontline employees (over 367 days) stemming from different professions and organizational backgrounds. Due to the present multi-level data structure, hypotheses were formally tested by means of hierarchical linear modeling.

A second study was conducted in order to replicate and extend the findings of study 1 with an improved study design (i.e., larger sample size at the between-person level, two daily measurement occasions), retesting the first three research questions incorporating an additional facet of brand-relevant employee behavior, namely emotional labor, and testing the role of organization-based self-esteem in predicting daily organizational identity salience, relating to the fourth research question. Data were again collected via daily experience sampling among 102 frontline employees (over 381 days) working at the customer interface in different sales outlets all representing one corporate brand, and tested via hierarchical linear modeling.

Responding to the **first research question** of this work, by means of both studies 1 and 2, it can be concluded that brand-building behaviors (i.e., customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior, deep acting and surface acting) as well as organizational identity salience do vary significantly within frontline employees across days. There are days, when employees exhibit higher or lower levels of these behaviors than on average days, respectively experience a higher (vs. lower) level of shared organizational identity than is typical for them.

Drawing conclusions with regard to the **second research question** based on the results of studies 1 and 2, both between-person levels of organizational identification and within-person levels of organizational identity salience do predict the brand-building behaviors of frontline employees. While differences between individuals with regard to their general level of organizational identification explained their average engagement in customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior as well as their average tendency to engage in surface acting, daily levels of organizational identity salience beyond that explained variation within individuals with regard to these behavioral patterns across days.

Concerning the **third research question**, based on study 1 and 2, a clear statement can be made that not all frontline employees are equally sensitive towards within-person changes of organizational identity salience on daily levels of brand-building behaviors. High between-person levels of organizational identification diminish frontline employees' sensitivity towards daily levels of identity salience with regard to subsequent behavioral consequences. The more employees are identified with the employing organization, the more consistent levels of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior as well as surface acting they will exhibit, irrespective of their daily identity salience.

Replying to the **fourth research question** relating to results of study 2, the importance of organization-based self-esteem on both levels of analysis for predicting daily levels of organizational identity salience can be underpinned. On a day when frontline employees start their work shift with boosted levels of organization-based self-esteem, their organizational identity will be rendered more salient on the subsequent day compared to average days. The extent of this effect varies with regard to frontline employees' average levels of organization-based self-esteem. The less secure employees are with respect to their organizational worth (low between-person level of organization-based self-esteem), the more they will depend on daily changes with regard to their momentarily experienced self-worth (within-person level of organization-based self-esteem) and adapt their within-person level of sensed organizational identity.

7.2 Implications for Practice and Science

Based on the results of studies 1 and 2 of this work, meaningful implications for both company practice and empirical research with regard to internal brand management can be derived.

Organizational identification at the between-person level is a powerful psychological motivator to drive frontline employees' general tendency to engage in brand-building behaviors at the customer interface, while short-term fluctuations in the experienced state of identity salience are meaningful beyond general tendencies and decide on the actual daily manifestations of brand-relevant employee behaviors towards customers. Consequently, for service companies, an internal branding strategy pursuing both directions is advisable, i.e., managers should concentrate on both, driving frontline employees' general tendency to perform brand-building behaviors in the customer encounter, but also ensuring that the daily performance level is delivered continuously and at the highest expression. With this in mind, the careful monitoring and development of general levels of identification as well as a continuous tracking and stabilization of short-term fluctuations of identity salience should be of high priority. On the one hand, a strong generally prevailing identification with the core values of the organization should be systematically built among frontline staff. This target should be pursued through the implementation of comprehensive internal branding efforts which drive employee-brand fit, increase frontline employees' brand knowledge and their belief in the brand (cf. Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos 2014, p. 320). The coordinated communication of an organization's core values by means of corporate storytelling, the use of brand symbols, or the implementation of company rituals, next to training or the composition of brand books, i.e., written texts on what a brand really means, have been stated to increase the feeling of membership employees have with the organization (Ashforth and Mael 1989, p. 28) and are therefore strongly recommended on the mission to increase organizational identification among frontline staff. These tools, however, fall short, when more time-variant facets of brand-building behaviors are the focal point of managerial efforts. Therefore, on the other hand, to ensure consistent levels of customer-oriented behavior and to drive daily engagement in behaviors that foster an adequate representation of the service brand toward customers (brand-congruent behavior, authentic display of emotions), it is advisable to move beyond traditional means

of internal brand management and to employ more immediate practices on a daily basis, which are appropriate to activate frontline employees' organizational identity instantaneously and therefore lead to extraordinary levels of daily brand-building behaviors and prevent performance to fall below employees' typical levels. In this regard, it might be useful to provide frontline employees with brand-relevant stimuli in daily work practice, thereby rendering their membership in the organization salient. Exemplarily internal communications could provide regular (e.g., daily or weekly) newsletters and use a corporate intranet to continuously disseminate brand-relevant information (e.g., submitting success stories or introducing role models), or determine a corporate work uniform triggering organizational membership when getting dressed on each workday. Above all, based on the findings of this work, it is recommendable to direct these short-term practices towards frontline employees who are less identified with the organization in general terms, as these employees can be expected to be especially sensitive towards changes in daily levels of sensed identity with regard to their role as brand representatives. However, the mentioned practices might quickly reach their limits, running a high risk of habituation and oversaturation effects as well as employees' stressful working life conflicting the careful tracking of corporate communication actions. In order to counterbalance a possible habituation effect, managers are ecouraged to be creative and use varying tools to increase daily identity salience and foster subsequent brand-building behaviors.

As a promising alternative force, the results of study 2 point to the importance of variation in daily organization-based self-esteem as a driver of organizational identity salience, a factor that managers have the power to influence each workday. Frontline employees starting the work shift with a diminished level of worthiness, will dissociate from their organizational membership and represent the brand's core values more poorly on the subsequent day. Therefore, supervisors should pay close attention to management practices that boost their subordinates' self-esteem. In previous literature, organization-based self-esteem has been shown to originate from the messages sent by significant others in a person's social environment (Pierce and Gardner 2004, p. 599) and to find its roots in messages of value transmitted from the organization to the employee (Pierce and Gardner 2004, p. 601). Particularly, the key role leaders play in developing feelings of competence in employees' roles as brand representatives has been stated

(Morhart *et al.* 2009, p. 138). In line with this, the importance for leaders to provide individualized support by coaching and mentoring frontline employees in a respectful and constructive manner is emphasized (cf. Pierce and Gardner 2004, p. 601). Leaders should provide feedback with regard to employees' behaviors at the customer encounter on a regular basis, encouraging employees of the positive value they deliver to the organization and the role they play for organizational success by performing as brand champions in front of the customer. At the same time it is advisable to manifest negative feedback with regard to concrete misdemeanors and not question or devaluate employees' general personal aptitude to represent the organization. Critique directed towards general personality attributes, not providing the employees with concrete indications on how to adapt their own behavior at the customer encounter, will very likely diminish momentary levels of organization-based self-esteem and leave employees with a feeling of uselessness to the organization. Destructive instead of constructive feedback if exerted regularly, will likely even reduce average levels of organization-based self-esteem. This possible long-term consequence is detrimental, because employees with average low levels of organizational self-worth are even more sensitive towards daily changes of self-esteem with regard to identity-relevant consequences. These employees therefore should be focal point of management practices boosting self-worth .

To go beyond means of organizational feedback culture, "carpe diem" should be motto of the day, each day. Morning meetings before opening time, where store management addresses motivational words to the workforce ensuring them of the impact they can have on that particular day, not only with regard to customers' satisfaction and the formation of positive brand associations but also on long-term business success, should represent an easy but effective way to boost daily levels of organization-based self-esteem and subsequently increase feelings of membership.

Moreover, positive self-instruction may encourage employees to intentionally put themselves into a state of boosted positive organizational self-esteem. Lange *et al.* (1998) showed in their study that instructing individuals to write a short positive text about themselves and reading this text repeatedly, caused increased levels of self-esteem. In a similar vein, organizational personnel development in service

organizations should constitute workshops aiming at the development of front-line-employees' self-instruction competences with regard to their organization-based self-esteem. This ability could not only be used on days or in situations when decreased levels of daily self-esteem are experienced, but, if applied repeatedly for a longer period of time, holds the potential to increase general levels of organization-based self-esteem.

Empirically, the findings of this work highlight the need for a broader conceptualization of frontline employees' brand-building behaviors. As emphasized earlier, theoretical as well as empirical work in this research area lack a well-balanced perspective on within-person and between-person effects of the constructs at hand, with a prominent focus on the notion that, in fact, these variables do vary *between* individuals but do not substantially vary *within* a person over time. The findings of this dissertation contribute to equilibrating the imbalance by highlighting the significance of within-person variation in the related constructs (e.g., customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior). Hopefully, this work thereby stimulates further research on the matter when and why frontline employees will engage in band-building behavior and when they will rather not, in order to shed further light on the day to day differences among individuals. However, the findings of this dissertation must not be interpreted as a plea against the between-person perspective on the topic. The large portions of variance found at the between-person level of the investigated constructs rather highlight the need for more multi-level analyses on frontline-employees' brand-building behaviors.

Additionally, these findings support the notion that organizational identification is contextual and depends on the psychological state, both of which are prone to changes and fluctuations rendering the organizational identity more or less salient. Cross-sectional designs do not separate effects of social identification at the within- and between-person level but examine only the overall effect. As both between-person organizational identification and within-person levels of organizational identity salience in this work could be shown to influence important outcome variables at the within-person and between-person level, in the future, separate measurement and analysis of these two levels with respect to any focus of social identification (e.g., team identification) (cf. Becker *et al.* 2013) should provide a more rigorous test of the theoretical assumptions underlying the social identity approach and therefore become the gold standard.

Furthermore, special attention relating to the operationalization of the construct of organizational identification on both levels of analysis should be paid. While the organizational identification scale by Ashforth and Mael (1989) is perfectly suitable to assess employees' general degree of identity overlapping with the organization by using broad items that pertain to shared feelings of shame or pride, this scale, even if repeatedly tested, is not likely to reveal meaningful short-term variation at the within-person level (van Dick 2015, p. 123). A more time-variant measurement should rather pertain to momentary manifestations of this identification, named organizational identity salience in the social identity approach, which is for instance rather represented by the scale of Doosje *et al.* (1995) when reformulated with regard to daily expressions (e.g., "Today, I identify with my organization"). This operationalization contrasts general practice in studies analyzing hierarchical data, oftentimes statistically seperating between-person and within-person variance in one and the same construct assessed at different measurement occasions (e.g., as conducted with all brand-building behaviors in this study). It is highly advisable for researchers studying identification at different levels of analysis, to carefully consider the appropriate operationalization at both levels. If the assessment of spontaneously formed group identification is pursued and studied across different points in time (cf. Haslam *et al.* 2009), the use of different measures at both levels of analysis might be expedient compared to cases of persisting group membership and respective activation across different occasions, as assessed in this study.

7.3 Limitations of the Investigation and Perspective for Future Research

Despite the number of contributions of this work, a few limitations should be considered.

First, a potential limitation of both study 1 and 2 of this work is the potential influence of common method variance on the findings at hand because all data were collected from a single source, i.e. frontline employees (cf. Podsakoff *et al.* 2003). In relevant literature, however, the chosen ESM design of the study, i.e., the repeated assessment of the same constructs within short time frames, has been stated to attenuate the influence of such response biases (e.g., social desirability) (Beal 2015, p. 388) when assessing intra-individual change, as well as memory bias (Beal 2015, p. 386) by allowing for more precise recall and making responses

less susceptible to mood congruence biases. Therefore, these distortions should not play a major role at least at the within-person level of analysis. The fact that not all correlations at the between-person level were substantial, further indicates that same-source bias is not existent to an extent explaining associations between variables (cf. Ilies *et al.* 2006, p. 573). Additionally, in all studies between-person constructs were assessed maintaining an adequate time interval before the daily diary study. In study 2, even daily assessments were separated for constructs whenever possible. This temporally separated assessment should have reduced endogeneity in this respect. Moreover, it should be noted, "that self-report is generally considered to be the most valid approach to assessing perceptual outcomes and internal states" (Spence et al. 2014, p. 732), e.g. organizational identification salience or organization-based self-esteem, constructs that are of particular interest in this work.

Peer or supervisor ratings in this case should not be applicable to assess these kind of psychological constructs, especially not when daily change is assessed. With regard to objectively observable brand-building behaviors like customer-oriented behavior, however, supervisor or peer-rated measures could provide a more valid assessment than the corresponding self-report measures. Future studies could benefit from the additional inclusion of non-self-report measures whenever possible. (cf. Chan 2009, p. 326)

Also, it is possible that an ESM design, when individuals have to respond to the same measures on a daily basis for a longer time period, changes participants' behaviors or attitudes during the course of the assessment. However, on the contrary it has been stated that measurement accuracy could even be increased due to improved understanding of the constructs among participants over time. (Bolger *et al.* 2003)

Moreover, despite the fact that the findings are consistent with the assumed model, results are correlational in nature and inferences regarding causality and direction of effects are limited. However, a lagged analysis for the effect of organizational identity salience on brand-building behaviors in study 1a, ruled out reverse effects of customer-oriented and brand-congruent behavior on levels of organizational identity salience on the subsequent day, speaking for causal effects

in the suggested and theoretically derived direction. In future research, the examination of causal effects of organizational identity salience on brand-building behaviors could be further analyzed by employing experimental designs. However, a field study seems to be the more appropriate and advantageous approach when the detection of intra-individual short term dynamics in psychological states and the capturing of data on actual behavior are pursued.

A further weakness of the conducted studies is the limited intra-individual variance in the data. Because ESM studies are costly for both the researcher and the participants due to the special efforts repeated measurements require (Beal 2015, p. 390), it was necessary to limit the daily diary portion of the study to the course of a work week. Hence, it is likely that the true degree of variance at the within-person level in the observed constructs was narrowed. The fact that slope variances for some of the effects and therefore cross-level interactions could not be detected in studies 1b and 2, could be due to this limitation. Future ESM studies investigating similar constructs should consequently take place over the course of at least two work weeks. This procedure will most probably deliver a more accurate estimation of the intra-individual variance components and provide increased levels of statistical power with regard to the empirical analysis.

This work was also restricted due to the fact that the practical relevance of brand-building behaviors of frontline employees, i.e., effects of these behaviors on customers' service brand perceptions and subsequent consequences of customer-company relationships and firm performance, were only conceptually derived (e.g., Homburg *et al.* 2009; Myrden and Kelloway 2015). Real manifestations in this respect could not be drawn on the basis of available data. Consequently, future studies should use dual data sets, linking both, the employee and customer perspective with regard to employees' brand-building behaviors and customers' brand perceptions.

Finally, in view of non-observable effects of organizational identification and organizational identity salience on deep acting in study 2 of this work, it was discussed that engagement in emotional labor might be to some degree automatic (cf. Mauss *et al.* 2009). Therefore, future research could benefit from innovative implicit measures of emotion regulation as suggested by Moon and Lord (2006).

Appendix

Appendix A – Conceptual and Theoretical Foundations

			Within-Person Variation in Organizational Performance			
Authors	**Year**	**Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)**	**Performance Outcome**	**Research Question**	**Predictor Variables**	**Research Context**
Amabile et al.	2005	Administrative Science Quartely (A+)	Creativity: daily creative thought	Is there a dynamic relationship between creativity and affect with special focus on the interplay between creativity and mixed emotion?	Within-person: affect	Chemicals, high-tech, and consumer products industry
Bolino, Harvey, and Bachrach	2012	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes (A)	Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), self-report	How does self-regulation theory help to explain how employees seek to fulfill goals through their OCB, engage in OCB and process feedback regarding their OCB?	Within-person: affective states; between-person level: Self-concept orientation, habituation	Public service organizations
Binnewies, Sonnentag, and Mojza	2009	Journal of Organizational Behavior(A)	Day-level task performance, day-level personal initiative, day-level organizational citizenship behavior, day-level compensatory effort	Does daily performance change as a function of being recovered in the morning?	Within-person: State of being recovered in the morning	Public service organizations
						Table continues on the next page

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Performance Outcome	Research Question	Predictor Variables	Research Context
Binnewies and Wörnlein	2010	Journal of Organizational Behavior(A)	Daily creativity	How do affect in the morning and daily work stressors affect daily creativity levels?	Within-person: daily affect in the morning; daily job stressors (time pressure and situational constraints); moderator: job control (between-person)	Interior architects/designers
Ilies, Scott, and Judge	2006	Academy of Management Journal (A+)	Organizational citizenship behavior	What is the dynamic process underlying the relationship between personality traits and states experienced at work influence daily organizational citizenship behavior?	Within-person: positive affect, job satisfaction	Education, information technology, administration
Minbashian and Luppino	2014	Journal of Applied Psychology (A)	Within-person variation in performance, objective measure	How can short- and long-term variability in performance be incorporated and how do factors on both levels affect the overall level of within-person performance variation?	Within-person: situational cues (resource allocation, task complexity)	Sports

Authors	Year	Journal (Ranking JQ3 / SJR)	Performance Outcome	Research Question	Predictor Variables	Research Context
Miner and Glomb	2010	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes (A)	Task performance, organizational citizenship behavior and work withdrawal (variation in the stream of work), self-report and objective measures	How does mood affect task performance and behavior at work? How does meta-mood influence this effect?	Within-person: state mood; moderator: meta-mood	Call center
Stewart and Nandkeolyar	2006	Personnel Psychology (A)	Weekly sales performance, objective measure	Are there differences in reliability of performance across people especially with regard to their responsiveness to environmental opportunity?	Within-person: situational opportunity (weekly received referrals)	Sales
Zacher and Wilden	2014	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (B)	Daily innovative performance, self-report	How does ambidextrous leadership (opening and closing behavior) affect employee innovation?	Within-person: leadership style	Employees from different occupations (e.g., dance teacher, pharmacy assistant, police officer)

Table 55:   **Studies on Within-Person Variation in Organizational Performance**

Source: Author's illustration.

				Within-Person Variation in Self-Esteem		
Authors	**Year**	**Journal (Ranking SJR)**	**Outcome Variables**	**Research Question**	**Predictor Variables**	**Research Context**
Heppner et al.	2008	Psychological Science (4.940)	Need satisfaction, authenticity	What are the within-person relationships among daily self-esteem, felt authenticity, and satisfaction of needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness?	Daily self-esteem	Students
Kernis et al.	2000	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (2.560)	Self-concept clarity, affect	How does self-esteem stability relate to self-regulatory styles, self-concept clarity, and affect?	Self-esteem stability	Students
Nezlek and Plesko	2001	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (2.560)	Self-concept clarity, daily events, daily affect	What are the factors that cause daily variation in a person's self-concept clarity?	Daily self-esteem, between-person level self-esteem	Students
Nezlek and Plesko	2003	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin (2.560)	Daily self-esteem	How are daily events and daily well-being related with regard to within-person variability in affect and self-esteem?	Positive and negative affective states, positive and negative events	Students
Savin-Williams and Demo	1983	Journal of Personality and Social Psychology (5.040)	Contextually-based self-esteem	Does self-esteem vary within individuals with regard to different contexts?	Setting, activity, companions	Adolescents

Note. SJR scores of > 2.0 are equivalent to a JQ3 ranking of A.

Table 56: **Studies on Within-Person Variation in Self-Esteem**

Source: Author's illustration.

Appendix B – Study 1

1st Construct	AVE	2nd Construct	AVE	r²	Passed?
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.63	Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.62	.23	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.63	Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.53	.30	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.62	Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.53	.29	✔

Table 57:   **Fornell-Larcker Criterion in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

1st Construct	AVE	2nd Construct	AVE	r²	Passed?
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.56	Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.58	.26	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.56	Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.59	.06	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.56	Daily Positive Affect	.53	.24	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.56	Daily Negative Affect	.52	.03	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.58	Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.59	.13	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.58	Daily Positive Affect	.53	.11	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.58	Daily Negative Affect	.52	.04	✔
Daily Positive Affect	.53	Daily Negative Affect	.52	.08	✔
Daily Positive Affect	.53	Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.59	.17	✔
Daily Negative Affect	.51	Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.59	.09	✔

Table 58:   **Fornell-Larcker Criterion in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model		
	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	6.199	.133	46.518 ***
Between-Person Predictor			
Organizational Identification	.338	.130	2.606 *
Within-Person Predictor			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.583	.299	1.946 *

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 59: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior with Robust Standard Errors in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model		
	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	4.619	.234	19.676 ***
Between-Person Predictor			
Organizational Identification	.463	.176	2.623 *
Within-Person Predictor			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.655	.106	6.180 ***

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001;

Table 60: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior with Robust Standard Errors in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

	Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)		
Model Variables	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.670	0.093	61.082 ***
Between-Person Predictors			
Organizational Identification	.091	.079	1.150
Age	-.001	.009	-.163
Gender	-.159	.163	-.974
Within-Person Predictors			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.162	.053	3.063 **
Daily Positive Affect	.286	.113	2.545 **
Daily Negative Affect	-.221	.127	-1.742 *
Cross-Level Interaction			
Organizational Identification x			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	-.052	.044	-1.166

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 61: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior with Robust Standard Errors in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

	Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)		
Model Variables	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.632	.106	53.345 ***
Between-Person Predictors			
Organizational Identification	.207	.080	2.623 **
Age	.002	.009	.267
Gender	-.022	.158	-.138
Within-Person Predictors			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.177	.073	2.419 **
Daily Positive Affect	.112	.091	1.227
Daily Negative Affect	-.294	.093	-3.148 **
Cross-Level Interaction			
Organizational Identification x			
Daily Identity Salience	-.101	.062	-1.621 [+]

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10*p<.05; **p<.01;***p<.001

Table 62: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior with Robust Standard Errors in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000

Table 63: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000

Table 64: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 1a**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.000
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.000
Daily Negative Affect	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.000
Age	.000	.000

Table 65: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.000
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.000
Daily Negative Affect	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000
Gender	.000	-.021
Age	.000	.046

Table 66: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)			Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model			Random Coefficient Regression		
	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.669	.094	60.024 ***	5.670	.094	60.626 ***	5.670	.095	59.759 ***
Between-Person Predictor									
Organizational Identification				.095	.071	1.323			
Within-Person Predictor									
Daily Organizational Identity Salience							.268	.051	5.276 ***
-2*log (lh)		962.239			960.507			935.712	
Diff -2*log					1.732			26.527 ***	
df					1			1	
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.515(.044)			.515 (.044)			.468(.040)	
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.678(.162)			.663 (.118)			.689(.121)	
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1								9%	
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					2%				

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 67: Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior Excluding Control Variables in Study 1b

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)			Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model			Random Coefficient Regression		
	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.633	.109	51.463 ***	5.632	.105	53.462 ***	5.633	.109	51.456 ***
Between-Person Predictor									
Organizational Identification				.209	.081	2.596 *			
Within-Person Predictor									
Daily Organizational Identity Salience							.274	.059	4.672 ***
-2*log (lh)		1063.087			1056.588			1042.076	
Diff -2*log					6.499 **			21.011 ***	
df					1			1	
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.673(.057)			.673 (.057)			.624 (.053)	
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.916(.162)			.840 (.151)			.928 (.162)	
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1								7%	
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					8%				

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10*p<.05; **p<.01;***p<.001

Table 68: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior Excluding Control Variables in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model and Random Coefficient Regression			
	Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	5.671	.095	59.971	***
Between-Person Predictors				
Organizational Identification	.070	.074	.948	
Amount of Customer-Contact	-.105	.119	-.878	
Brand-Knowledge Dissemination	-.066	.108	-.609	
Within-Person Predictors				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.168	.054	3.131	**
Daily Positive Affect	.283	.079	3.580	***
Daily Negative Affect	-.220	.085	-2.589	*

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10*p<.05; **p<.01;***p<.001

Table 69: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior Including Additional Control Variables (Between-Person) in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model and Random Coefficient Regression			
	Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	5.633	.105	53.509	***
Between-Person Predictors				
Organizational Identification	.165	.083	1.993	**
Amount of Customer-Contact	-.111	.133	-0.834	
Brand-Knowledge Dissemination	.129	.121	1.070	
Within-Person Predictors				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.219	.063	3.465	***
Daily Positive Affect	.028	.093	.299	
Daily Negative Affect	-.330	.099	-3.316	***

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10*p<.05; **p<.01;***p<.001

Table 70: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Models for Brand-Congruent Behavior Including Additional Control Variables (Between-Person) in Study 1b**

Source: Author's illustration.

Appendix C – Study 2

1st Construct	AVE	2nd Construct	AVE	r²	Passed?
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	.24	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Deep Acting	.74	.00	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Surface Acting	.77	.20	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Organizational Identity Salience	.79	.30	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	.07	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Positive Affect	.58	.02	✔
Daily Customer-Oriented Behavior	.69	Negative Affect	.52	.00	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	Deep Acting	.74	.00	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	Surface Acting	.77	.01	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	Organizational Identity Salience	.79	.12	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	.03	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	Positive Affect	.58	.00	✔
Daily Brand-Congruent Behavior	.79	Negative Affect	.52	.00	✔
Deep Acting	.74	Surface Acting	.77	.07	✔
Deep Acting	.74	Organizational Identity Salience	.79	.00	✔
Deep Acting	.74	Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	.00	✔
Deep Acting	.74	Positive Affect	.58	.01	✔
Deep Acting	.74	Negative Affect	.52	.03	✔
Surface Acting	.77	Organizational Identity Salience	.79	.31	✔
Surface Acting	.77	Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	.03	✔
Surface Acting	.77	Positive Affect	.58	.04	✔
Surface Acting	.77	Negative Affect	.52	.00	✔

Table continues on the next page

1st Construct	AVE	2nd Construct	AVE	r²	Passed?
Organizational Identity Salience	.79	Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	.32	✔
Organizational Identity Salience	.79	Positive Affect	.58	.05	✔
Organizational Identity Salience	.79	Negative Affect	.52	.04	✔
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	Positive Affect	.58	.01	✔
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.71	Negative Affect	.52	.02	✔
Positive Affect	.58	Negative Affect	.52	.05	✔

Table 71: **Fornell-Larcker Criterion in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)		
	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.482	.078	70.526 ***
Between-Person Predictors			
Organizational Identification	.311	.052	5.921 ***
Tenure	-.005	.028	-.166
Age	-.003	.009	-.279
Gender	.148	.114	1.299
Within-Person Predictors			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.524	.062	8.436 ***
Daily Positive Affect	.094	.085	1.105
Daily Negative Affect	-.032	.051	-.634
Cross-Level Interaction			
General Level of Organizational Identification x Daily Organizational Identity Salience	-.105	.036	-2.894 **

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001;

Table 72: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior with Robust Standard Errors in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)		
	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.244	.109	47.832 ***
Between-Person Predictors			
Organizational Identification	.197	.072	2.721 **
Tenure	-.016	.041	-.416
Age	-.004	.012	-.284
Gender	.104	.167	.478
Within-Person Predictors			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.370	.092	4.038 ***
Daily Positive Affect	.162	.107	1.528
Daily Negative Affect	-.130	.218	-.595
Cross-Level Interaction			
General Level of Organizational Identification x Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.017	.061	.275

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001;

Table 73: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior with Robust Standard Errors in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Random Coefficient Regression and Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model		
	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	2.726	.103	26.441 ***
Between-Person Predictors			
Organizational Identification	.019	.067	.282
Extraversion	-.011	.101	-.112
Agreeableness	-.261	.092	-2.830 **
Within-Person Predictors			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	-.086	.073	-1.175
Daily Positive Affect	.054	.088	.614
Daily Negative Affect	.252	.135	1.861

Note. Est. = Estimate; $^+$p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001;

Table 74: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Deep Acting with Robust Standard Errors in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction)			
	Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	2.552	.085	29.998	***
Between-Person Predictors				
Organizational Identification	-.439	.065	-6.710	***
Extraversion	.189	.077	2.451	**
Agreeableness	-.129	.065	-1.987	+
Within-Person Predictors				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	-.560	.070	-8.015	***
Daily Positive Affect	.131	.067	1.966	+
Daily Negative Affect	-.069	.114	-.610	
Cross-Level Interactions				
General Level of Organizational Identification x				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.182	.056	3.215	**
Extraversion x				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	-.227	.055	-4.091	***
Agreeableness x				
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	-.156	.072	-2.165	**

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001;

Table 75: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Surface Acting with Robust Standard Errors in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

| | Intercepts-and-Slopes Model (Cross-Level Interaction) | | |
Model Variables	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	4.770	.128	37.397 ***
Between-Person Predictors			
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.400	.092	4.325 ***
Age	-.017	.014	-1.180
Gender	-.071	.242	-.293
Tenure	.001	.043	.008
Within-Person Predictors			
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.245	.039	6.276 ***
Daily Positive Affect	.183	.058	3.141 **
Daily Negative Affect	-.316	.091	-3.476 ***
Cross-Level Interaction			
Organization-Based Self-Esteem x			
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem	-.138	.028	-4.962 ***

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001;

Table 76: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Organizational Identity Salience with Robust Standard Errors in Study 2**

Source: Author's Illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	-.054
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.098
Daily Negative Affect	.000	.019
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.023
Age	.000	.004
Tenure	.000	.003

Table 77: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Customer-Oriented Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.031
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.067
Daily Negative Affect	.000	-.004
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.029
Age	.000	.010
Tenure	.000	.006

Table 78: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Brand-Congruent Behavior in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.000
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.000
Daily Negative Affect	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000
Extraversion	.000	.000
Agreeableness	.000	.000

Table 79: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Deep Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organizational Identity Salience	.000	.000
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.000
Daily Negative Affect	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organizational Identification	.000	.000
Extraversion	.000	.000
Agreeableness	.000	.000

Table 80: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Surface Acting in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Variable	Residuals Level-1	Residuals Level-2
Within-Person Level	*Level-1 Endogeneity*	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.000	.000
Daily Positive Affect	.000	.000
Daily Negative Affect	.000	.000
Between-Person Level	*Cross-Level Endogeneity*	*Level-2 Endogeneity*
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	.000	.000
Gender	.000	.010
Age	.000	.023
Tenure	.000	.041

Table 81: **Endogeneity at Level 1, Level 2 and across Levels 1 and 2 for Organizational Identity Salience in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)			Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model			Random Coefficient Regression		
	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t	Est.	SE	t
Intercept	5.482	.09	61.058 ***	5.481	.078	69.927 ***	5.481	.09	61.154 ***
Between-Person Predictor									
Organizational Identification				.305	.055	5.585 ***			
Within-Person Predictor									
Daily Organizational Identity Salience							.592	.053	11.151 ***
-2*log (lh)		1094.151			1067.08			991.375	
Diff -2*log					27.07 ***			102.776 ***	
df					4			1	
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		.725(.062)			.725 (.062)			.500 (.042)	
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.614(.116)			.421 (.089)			.673 (.115)	
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1								31%	
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					31%				

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 82: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Customer-Oriented Behavior Excluding Control Variables in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model				Random Coefficient Regression			
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	5.243	.113	46.255	***	5.243	.11	47.653	***	5.244	.113	46.26	***
Between-Person Predictor												
Organizational Identification					.193	.076	2.528	**				
Within-Person Predictor												
Daily Organizational Identity Salience									.383	.092	4.188	***
-2*log (lh)		1358.078				1351.873				1341.071		
Diff -2*log						6.205		*		17.007		***
df						1				1		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.585(.135)				1.584 (.134)				1.491 (.127)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.863(.186)				.788 (.175)				.894 (.186)		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1										6%		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2						9%						

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 83: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Brand-Congruent Behavior Excluding Control Variables in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model				Random Coefficient Regression			
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	2.726	.107	25.564	***	2.726	.106	25.597	***	2.726	.107	25.564	***
Between-Person Predictor												
Organizational Identification					.043	.074	.576					
Within-Person Predictor												
Daily Organizational Identity Salience									-.100	.080	-1.252	
-2*log (lh)		1256.313				1255.982				1254.749		
Diff -2*log						.331				1.563		
df						1				1		
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)		1.147 (.097)				1.147 (.097)				1.141 (.097)		
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)		.833 (.163)				.830 (.163)				.835 (.163)		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1										0%		
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2						0%						

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 84: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Deep Acting Excluding Control Variables in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Means-as-Outcomes Model				Random Coefficient Regression			
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	2.551	.100	25.410	***	2.549	.087	29.232	***	2.554	.101	25.394	***
Between-Person Predictor												
Organizational Identification					-.343	.06	-5.666	***				
Within-Person Predictor												
Daily Organizational Identity Salience									-.525	.070	-7.588	***
-2*log (lh)	1214.660				1186.859				1162.390			
Diff -2*log					27.801		***		52.269		***	
df					1				1			
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)	1.032(.088)				1.035 (.087)				.853 (.072)			
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)	.733(.145)				.482 (.110)				.786 (.145)			
Daily Organizational Identity Salience Slope												
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1									17%			
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					34%							
Pseudo-R^2 Slope												

Note. Est. = Estimate; [+]p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 85: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Surface Acting Excluding Control Variables in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Model Variables	One-Way ANOVA with Random Effects (Null Model)				Intercepts-as-Outcomes Model				Random Coefficient Regression			
	Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t		Est.	SE	t	
Intercept	4.769	.135	35.399	***	4.770	.128	37.264	***	4.769	.135	35.324	***
Between-Person Predictor												
Organization Based Self-Esteem					.371	.112	3.325	***				
Within-Person Predictor												
Daily Organization-Based Self-Esteem									.285	.042	6.786	***
-2*log (lh)	1143.206				1132.729				1100.612			
Diff -2*log					10.477		**		42.594		***	
df					1				1			
Level 1 Intercept Variance (SE)	.643(.055)				.643 (.055)				.551 (.047)			
Level 2 Intercept Variance (SE)	1.661(.259)				1.477 (.233)				1.688 (.259)			
Pseudo-R^2 Level 1									14%			
Pseudo-R^2 Level 2					11%							

Note. Est. = Estimate; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 86: **Estimates of the Hierarchical Model for Organizational Identity Salience Excluding Control Variables in Study 2**

Source: Author's illustration.

Estimated Paths	Mediation Analysis		
	Est.	SE	t
Effects from OBSE to COB			
Total Effect	.136	.040	3.393 ***
Indirect Effect (OBSE --> OIS --> COB)	.174	.026	6.851 ***
Direct Effect (OBSE --> COB)	-.037	.037	-1.006
Effects from OBSE to BCB			
Total Effect	-.049	.060	-.814
Indirect Effect (OBSE --> OIS --> BCB)	.128	.029	4.408 ***
Direct Effect (OBSE --> BCB)	-.177	.063	-2.800 **
Effects from OBSE to SA			
Total Effect	-.149	.048	-3.070 **
Indirect Effect (OBSE --> OIS --> SA)	-.159	.027	-5.926 ***
Direct Effect (OBSE --> SA)	.011	.048	.220
Effects from OBSE to DA			
Total Effect	-.039	.052	-.754
Indirect Effect (OBSE --> OIS --> DA)	-.029	.022	-1.295
Direct Effect (OBSE --> DA)	-.010	.056	-.186

Note. Est. = Estimate; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 87: **Estimates of Organizational Identity Salience Mediating the Relationships of Organization-Based Self-Esteem and Customer-Oriented Behavior, Brand-Congruent Behavior, Surface Acting and Deep Acting**

Source: Author's illustration.

261

References

Aaker, D.A. (1991): Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name. New York: Free Press.

Aaker, J., Fournier, S., Brasel, S.A. (2004): When Good Brands Do Bad. Journal of Consumer Research, 31 (1), 1–16.

Abimbola, T., Foster, C., Punjaisiri, K., Cheng, R. (2010): Exploring the Relationship Between Corporate, Internal and Employer Branding. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 19 (6), 401–409.

Allen, J.A., Pugh, S.D., Grandey, A.A, Groth, M. (2010): Following Display Rules in Good or Bad Faith? Customer Orientation as a Moderator of the Display Rule-Emotional Labor Relationship. Human Performance, 23 (2), 101–115.

Anderson, E.W., Fornell, C., Lehmann, D.R. (1994): Customer Satisfaction, Market Share, and Profitability. Findings from Sweden. Journal of Marketing, 58 (3), 53.

Anderson, J.C., Gerbing, D.W. (1993): Proposed Template for Journal of Marketing Research Measurement Appendix. Unpublished Article, Kellogg Graduate School of Management.

Antonakis, J., Bendahan, S., Jacquart, P., Lalive, R. (2014): Causality and Endogeneity: Problems and Solutions. In: D.V. Day, Ed. The Oxford Handbook of Leadership and Organizations: Oxford University Press, 93–117.

Arnett, D.B., German, S.D., Hunt, S.D. (2003): The Identity Salience Model of Relationship Marketing Success. The Case of Nonprofit Marketing. Journal of Marketing, 67 (2), 89–105.

Ashforth, B.E., Harrison, S.H., Corley, K.G. (2008): Identification in Organizations. An Examination of Four Fundamental Questions. Journal of Management, 34 (3), 325–374.

Ashforth, B.E., Humphrey, R.H. (1993): Emotional Labor in Service Roles. The Influence of Identity. Academy of Management Review, 18 (1), 88–115.

Ashforth, B.E., Mael, F. (1989): Social Identity Theory and the Organization. Academy of Management Review, 14 (1), 20–39.

Backhaus, K., Erichson, B., Plinke, W., Weiber, R. (2011): Multivariate Analysemethoden. Eine anwendungsorientierte Einführung. 13th Ed. Berlin, Dordrecht, London, New York: Springer.

Backhaus, K., Erichson, B., Plinke, W., Weiber, R. (2016): Multivariate Analysemethoden. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Backhaus, K., Tikoo, S. (2004): Conceptualizing and Researching Employer Branding. Career Development International, 9 (5), 501–517.

Bagozzi, R.P. (1979): The Role of Measurement in Theory Construction and Hypothesis Testing: Toward a Holistic Mode. In: O.C. Ferrell, S.W. Brown, C.W. Lamb, Eds. Conceptual and Theoretical Developments in Marketing. Chicago: American Marketing Association.

Bagozzi, R.P., Baumgartner, H. (1994): The Evaluation of Structural Equation Models and Hypothesis Testing. In: R.P. Bagozzi, Ed. Principles of Marketing Research. Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell Business, 386–422.

Bagozzi, R.P., Baumgartner, H. (1996): The Evaluation of Structural Equation Models and Hypothesis Testing. In: R.P. Bagozzi, Ed. Principles of Marketing Research. Cambridge: Blackwell Business, 386–422.

Bagozzi, R.P., Phillips, L.W. (1982): Representing and Testing Organizational Theories. A Holistic Construal. Administrative Science Quarterly, 27 (3), 459.

Bagozzi, R.P., Yi, Y. (1988): On the Evaluation of Structural Equation Models. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 16 (1), 74–94.

Bagozzi, R.P., Yi, Y., Phillips, L.W. (1991): Assessing Construct Validity in Organizational Research. Administrative Science Quarterly, 36 (3), 421.

Baker, T.L., Rapp, A., Meyer, T., Mullins, R. (2014): The Role of Brand Communications on Front Line Service Employee Beliefs, Behaviors, and Performance. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 42 (6), 642–657.

Balmer, J.M., Harris, F., Chernatony, L. (2001): Corporate Branding and Corporate Brand Performance. European Journal of Marketing, 35 (3/4), 441–456.

Barnes, C.M., Reb, J., Ang, D. (2012): More than just the Mean: Moving to a Dynamic View of Performance-Based Compensation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 97 (3), 711–718.

Baron, S., Punjaisri, K., Evanschitzky, H., Wilson, A. (2009): Internal Branding. An Enabler of Employees' Brand-Supporting Behaviours. Journal of Service Management, 20 (2), 209–226.

Baumeister, R.F., Smart, L., Boden, J.M. (1996): Relation of Threatened Egotism to Violence and Aggression. The Dark Side of High Self-Esteem. Psychological Review, 103 (1), 5–33.

Baumgarth, C., Schmidt, M. (2010): How Strong is the Business-To-Business Brand in the Workforce? An Empirically-Tested Model of 'Internal Brand Equity' In a Business-To-Business Setting. Industrial Marketing Management, 39 (8), 1250–1260.

Beal, D.J., Weiss, H.M., Barros, E., MacDermid, S.M. (2005): An Episodic Process Model of Affective Influences on Performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90 (6), 1054–1068.

Beal, D.J., Trougakos, J.P., Weiss, H.M., Green, S.G. (2006): Episodic Processes in Emotional Labor: Perceptions of Affective Delivery and Regulation Strategies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91 (5), 1053–1065.

Beal, D.J. (2015): ESM 2.0. State of the Art and Future Potential of Experience Sampling Methods in Organizational Research. Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 2 (1), 383–407.

Beal, D.J., Ghandour, L. (2011): Stability, Change, and the Stability of Change in Daily Workplace Affect. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32 (4), 526–546.

Beal, D.J., Weiss, H.M. (2003): Methods of Ecological Momentary Assessment In Organizational Research. Organizational Research Methods, 6 (4), 440–464.

Beaujean, M., Davidson, J., Madge, S. (2006): The "Moment Of Truth" In Customer Service. The McKinsey Quarterly (1), 62–73.

Becker, T.E., Ullrich, J., Van Dick, R. (2013): Within-Person Variation in Affective Commitment to Teams. Where it Comes From and Why it Matters. Human Resource Management Review, 23 (2), 131–147.

Bell, S.J., Mengüç, B., Stefani, S.L. (2004): When Customers Disappoint. A Model of Relational Internal Marketing and Customer Complaints. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 32 (2), 112–126.

Bendapudi, N., Bendapudi, V. (2005): Creating the Living Brand [Online]. Available from: https://human-rsources.ku.edu/sites/sld.du.edu/files/docs/2014_summit/creating_the_living_brand.pdf [Accessed 8 March 2017].

Bentler, P.M. (1990): Comparative Fit Indexes in Structural Models. Psychological Bulletin, 107 (2), 238–246.

Bentler, P.M. (1995): EQS Structural Equations Program Manual. Encino, California: Multivariate Software.

Bergami, M., Bagozzi, R.P. (2000): Self-Categorization, Affective Commitment and Group Self-Esteem as Distinct Aspects of Social Identity in the Organization. British Journal of Social Psychology, 39 (4), 555–577.

Berry, L., Lefkowith, E., Clark, T. (1988): In Services, What's in a Name. Harvard Business Review, 66, 28–30.

Berry, L.L. (2000): Cultivating Service Brand Equity. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28 (1), 128–137.

Bettencourt, L.A., Brown, S.W. (2003): Role Stressors and Customer-Oriented Boundary-Spanning Behaviors in Service Organizations. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 31 (4), 394–408.

Bettencourt, L.A., Brown, S.W., Mackenzie, S.B. (2005): Customer-Oriented Boundary-Spanning Behaviors. Test of a Social Exchange Model of Antecedents. Journal of Retailing, 81 (2), 141–157.

Bhattacharya, C.B., Elsbach, K.D. (2002): Us versus Them. The Roles of Organizational Identification and Disidentification in Social Marketing Initiatives. Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 21 (1), 26–36.

Biedenbach, G., Bengtsson, M., Wincent, J. (2011): Brand Equity in the Professional Service Context. Analyzing the Impact of Employee Role Behavior and Customer–Employee Rapport. Industrial Marketing Management, 40 (7), 1093–1102.

Bienstock, C.C., Demoranville, C.W., Smith, R.K. (2003): Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Service Quality. Journal of Services Marketing, 17 (4), 357–378.

Billig, M., Tajfel, H. (1973): Social Categorization and Similarity in Intergroup Behaviour. European Journal of Social Psychology, 3 (1), 27–52.

Binnewies, C., Sonnentag, S., Mojza, E.J. (2009): Daily Performance at Work. Feeling Recovered in the Morning as a Predictor of Day-Level Job Performance. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30 (1), 67–93.

Binnewies, C., Sonnentag, S., Mojza, E.J. (2010): Recovery during the Weekend and Fluctuations in Weekly Job Performance. A Week-Level Study Examining Intra-Individual Relationships. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83 (2), 419–441.

Binnewies, C., Wörnlein, S.C. (2011): What Makes a Creative Day? A Diary Study on the Interplay between Affect, Job Stressors, and Job Control. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32 (4), 589–607.

Bolger, N., Davis, A., Rafaeli, E. (2003): Diary Methods: Capturing Life as it Is Lived. Annual Review of Psychology, 54, 579–616.

Bolino, M.C., Harvey, J., Bachrach, D.G. (2012): A Self-Regulation Approach to Understanding Citizenship Behavior in Organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 119 (1), 126–139.

Booms, B.H., Bitner, M.J. (1981): Marketing Strategies and Organization Structures for Services Firms. In: Donnelly, J., George, W., Ed. Marketing of Services. Chicago: American Marketing, 47–51.

Boone, M. (2000): The Importance of Internal Branding. Sales and Marketing Management, 152 (9), 36–38.

Bowden, T. (2002): An Investigation into Psychological Predictors of Work Family Conflict and Turnover Intention In an Organizational Context. University Of Kent, Centerbury, UK.

Bowen, D.E. (2016): The Changing Role of Employees in Service Theory and Practice. An Interdisciplinary View. Human Resource Management Review, 26 (1), 4–13.

Brockner, J. (1988): Self-Esteem at Work: Theory, Research, and Practice. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

Brockner, J., Guare, J. (1983): Improving the Performance of Low Self-Esteem Individuals. An Attributional Approach. Academy of Management Journal, 26 (4), 642–656.

Brosius, F., Brosius, G. **(1995)**: SPSS Base System and Professional Statistics. Bonn: International Thomson Publishing.

Brown, T.J. Mowden, J.C., Donavan, D.T., Licata, J.W. (2002): The Customer Orientation of Service Workers. Personality Trait Effects on Self- And Supervisor Performance Ratings. Journal of Marketing Research, 39 (1), 110–119.

Browne, M.W., Cudeck, R. (1993): Testing Structural Equation Models. In: K.A. Bollen and J.S. Long, Eds. Testing Structural Equation Models. Newbury Park: Sage Publications, 136–162.

Bruner, J.S. (1957): On Perceptual Readiness. Psychological Review, 64 (2), 123–152.

Byrne, B.M. (1989): A Primer of Lisrel. Basic Applications and Programming for Confirmatory Factor Analytic Models. New York, NY: Springer New York.

Campbell, D.T. (1960): Recommendations for APA Test Standards Regarding Construct, Trait, or Discriminant Validity. American Psychologist, 15 (8), 546–553.

Campbell, J.P. (1990): Modelling the Performance Prediction Problem in Industrial and Organizational Psychology. In: M.D. Dunette and L.M. Hough, Eds. Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Pala Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, 687–732.

Carlin, B.P., Louis, T.A. (1996): Bayes and Empirical Bayes Methods for Data Analysis. 1st Ed. London, New York: Chapman & Hall.

Carlzon, J. (1987): Putting the Customer First: The Key to Service Strategy. Mckinsey Quarterly (3), 38–51.

Cervone, D. (2005): Personality Architecture: Within-Person Structures and Processes. Annual Review of Psychology, 56, 423–452.

Chan, D. (2009): So Why Ask Me? Are Self-Report Data Really Bad? In: C.E. Lance and R.J. Vandenberg, Eds. Statistical and Methodological Myths and Urban Legends. Doctrine, Verity and Fable in the Organizational and Social Sciences. New York: Routledge, 309–336.

Chen, G., Bliese, P.D. (2005): Conceptual Framework and Statistical Procedures for Delineating and Testing Multilevel Theories of Homology. Academy of Management Proceedings, 2005 (1), A1-A6.

Chernatony, L. De, Mcdonald, M., Wallace, E. (2011): Creating Powerful Brands. 4th Ed. Amsterdam, Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Chernatony, L. De, Segal-Horn, S. (2003): The Criteria for Successful Services Brands. European Journal of Marketing, 37 (7/8), 1095–1118.

Churchill, G.A. (1979): A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs. Journal of Marketing Research, 16 (1), 64–73.

Coget, J.-F. (2011): The Apple Store Effect: Does Organizational Identification Trickle Down to Customers? The Academy of Management Perspectives, 25 (1), 94–95.

Cook, T.D., Campbell, D.T. (1979): Quasi-Experimentation. Design & Analysis Issues for Field Settings. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Cronbach, L.J., Meehl, P.E. (1955): Construct Validity in Psychological Tests. Psychological Bulletin, 52 (4), 281–302.

Curran, P.J., Bauer, D.J. (2011): The Disaggregation of Within-Person and Between-Person Effects in Longitudinal Models of Change. Annual Review of Psychology, 62, 583–619.

Dalal, R.S., Lam, H.; Weiss, H.M., Welch, E.R., Hulin, C.L. (2009): A Within-Person Approach to Work Behavior and Performance. Concurrent and Lagged Citizenship-Counterproductivity Associations, and Dynamic Relationships with Affect and Overall Job Performance. Academy of Management Journal, 52 (5), 1051–1066.

Dalal, R.S., Bhave, D.P., Fiset, J. (2014): Within-Person Variability in Job Performance. A Theoretical Review and Research Agenda. Journal of Management, 40 (5), 1396–1436.

Deutscher Markenmonitor, (2015): Entscheiderstudie zu Trends Und Erfolgsfaktoren der Markenführung [Online]. Available from: http://www.deutschermarkenmonitor.de/studie-gmk-markenberatung-rat-fuer-formgebung/]. [Accessed 1 March 2016].

Diefendorff, J.M., Croyle, M.H., Gosserand, R.H. (2005): The Dimensionality and Antecedents of Emotional Labor Strategies. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66 (2), 339–357.

Dipboye, R.L. (1977): A Critical Review of Korman's Self-Consistency Theory of Work Motivation and Occupational Choice. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 18 (1), 108–126.

Doosje, B., Ellemers, N., Spears, R. (1995): Perceived Intragroup Variability as A Function of Group Status and Identification. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 31 (5), 410–436.

Durbin, J., Watson, G.S. (1951): Testing for Serial Correlation in Least Squares Regression. Biometrika, 38 (1/2), 159–177.

Dutton, J.E., Dukerich, J.M., Harquail, C.V. (1994): Organizational Images and Member Identification. Administrative Science Quarterly, 39 (2), 239–263.

Dziuban, C.D., Shirkey, E.C. (1974): When Is a Correlation Matrix Appropriate for Factor Analysis? Some Decision Rules. Psychological Bulletin, 81 (6), 358–361.

Ebbes, P., Papies, D., Van Heerde, H.J. (2011): The Sense and Non-Sense of Holdout Sample Validation in the Presence of Endogeneity. Marketing Science, 30 (6), 1115–1122.

Eid, M., Diener, E. (1999): Intraindividual Variability in Affect. Reliability, Validity, and Personality Correlates. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76 (4), 662–676.

Enders, C.K., Tofighi, D. (2007): Centering Predictor Variables in Cross-Sectional Multilevel Models: A New Look at an Old Issue. Psychological Methods, 12 (2), 121–138.

Farrell, A.M., Souchon, A.L., Durden, G.R. (2001): Service Encounter Conceptualisation. Employees' Service Behaviours and Customers' Service Quality Perceptions. Journal of Marketing Management, 17 (5-6), 577–593.

Ferris, D.L., Et Al. (2009): When Does Self-Esteem Relate to Deviant Behavior? The Role of Contingencies of Self-Worth. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94 (5), 1345–1353.

Field, A.P. (2013): Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics. And Sex and Drugs and Rock 'N' Roll. 4th Ed. Los Angeles: Sage.

Fornell, C. (1982): A Second Generation of Multivariate Analysis. New York, N.Y.: Praeger.

Fornell, C., Larcker, D.F. (1981): Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. Journal of Marketing Research, 18 (1), 39–50.

Franke, G.R., Park, J.-E. (2006): Salesperson Adaptive Selling Behavior and Customer Orientation. A Meta-Analysis. Journal of Marketing Research, 43 (4), 693–702.

Gabriel, A.S., Daniels, M.A., Diefendorff, J.M., Greguras, G.J. (2015): Emotional Labor Actors: A Latent Profile Analysis of Emotional Labor Strategies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 100 (3), 863–879.

Gerbing, D.W., Anderson, J.C. (1988): An Updated Paradigm for Scale Development Incorporating Unidimensionality and its Assessment. Journal of Marketing Research, 25 (2), 186–192.

Giardini, A., Frese, M. (2006): Reducing the Negative Effects of Emotion Work in Service Occupations: Emotional Competence as a Psychological Resource. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11 (1), 63–75.

Gill, J., (2003): Hierarchical Linear Models. In: Kimberly Kempf-Leonard, Ed. Encyclopedia of Social Measurement. New York: Academic Press.

GMK Markenberatung (2015): Welche Probleme und Herausforderungen gibt es in der Markenführung von Unternehmen? [Online]. Available from: http://de.statista.com/Statistik/Daten/Studie457332/Umfrage/Probleme-Und-Herausforderungen-In-Der-Markenfuehrung-Von-Unternehmen/ [Accessed 1 March 2016].

Goldberg, L.R. (1993): The Structure of Phenotypic Personality Traits. American Psychologist, 48 (1), 26–34.

Goldberg, L.S., Grandey, A.A. (2007): Display Rules versus Display Autonomy: Emotion Regulation, Emotional Exhaustion, and Task Performance in a Call Center Simulation. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12 (3), 301–318.

Grandey, A.A., Rafaeli, A., Ravid, S.; Wirtz, J., Steiner, D.D. (2010): Emotion Display Rules at Work in the Global Service Economy. The Special Case of the Customer. Journal of Service Management, 21 (3), 388–412.

Grandey, A.A., Diefendorff, J., Rupp, D.E. (2013): Emotional Labor in the 21st Century. Diverse Perspectives on the Psychology of Emotion Regulation at Work. New York: Routledge Academic.

Grandey, A.A. (2000): Emotional Regulation in the Workplace. A New Way to Conceptualize Emotional Labor. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5 (1), 95–110.

Grandey, A.A. (2003): When the Show Must Go on. Surface Acting And Deep Acting as Determinants of Emotional Exhaustion and Peer-Rated Service Delivery. Academy of Management Journal, 46 (1), 86–96.

Grandey, A.A., Cropanzano, R. (1999): The Conservation of Resources Model Applied to Work–Family Conflict and Strain. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54 (2), 350–370.

Grandey, A.A., Dickter, D.N., Sin, H.-P. (2004): The Customer Isnot Always Right. Customer Aggression and Emotion Regulation of Service Employees. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25 (3), 397–418.

Grandey, A.A., Gabriel, A.S. (2015): Emotional Labor at a Crossroads: Where Do We Go From Here?. Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 2:21.1–21.27.

Grizzle, J.W., Zablah, A.R., Brown, T.J., Mowden, J.C., Lee, J.M. (2009): Employee Customer Orientation in Context: How the Environment Moderates the influence of Customer Orientation on Performance Outcomes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94 (5), 1227–1242.

Grönroos, C. (1984): A Service Quality Model and its Marketing Implications. European Journal of Marketing, 18 (4), 36–44.

Gross, J.J., Carstensen, Laura, L., Pasupathi, M., Tsai, J., Götestam, S. (1997): Emotion and Aging. Experience, Expression, and Control. Psychology and Aging, 12 (4), 590–599.

Gross, J.J. (1998): The Emerging Field of Emotion Regulation. An Integrative Review. Review of General Psychology, 2 (3), 271–299.

Groth, M., Hennig-Thurau, T., Walsh, G. (2009): Customer Reactions to Emotional Labor. The Roles of Employee Acting Strategies and Customer Detection Accuracy. Academy of Management Journal, 52 (5), 958–974.

Gunthert, K.C., Wenze, S.J. (2012): Daily Diary Methods. In: M.R. Mehl And T.S. Conner, Eds. Handbook of Research Methods for Studying Daily Life. New York: Guilford Press, 144–159.

Hair, J.F. (2010): Multivariate Data Analysis. 7th Ed. Upper Saddle River, Nj: Prentice Hall.

Hall, D.T., Schneider, B. (1972): Correlates of Organizational Identification as a Function of Career Pattern and Organizational Type. Administrative Science Quarterly, 17 (3), 340.

Hall, D.T., Schneider, B., Nygren, H.T. (1970): Personal Factors in Organizational Identification. Administrative Science Quarterly, 15 (2), 176.

Hall, L., Baker, K.K., Thomas, L., Andrews, M.C., Tammy, G.R. (2015): The Importance of Product/Service Quality for Frontline Marketing Employee Outcomes. The Moderating Effect of Leader-Member Exchange (Lmx). Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 24 (1), 23–41.

Hartline, M.D., Maxham, J.G., McKee, D.O., (2000): Corridors of Influence in the Dissemination of Customer-Oriented Strategy to Customer Contact Service Employees. Journal of Marketing, 64 (2), 35–50.

Haslam, S.A., Jetten, J., Waghorn, C. (2009): Social Identification, Stress and Citizenship in Teams. A Five-Phase Longitudinal Study. Stress and Health, 25 (1), 21–30.

Häusser, J.A., Kattenstroth, M., Van Dick, R., Mojzisch, A. (2012): "We" Are Not Stressed. Social Identity in Groups Buffers Neuroendocrine Stress Reactions. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 48 (4), 973–977.

He, H., Wang, W., Zhu, W., Harris, L. (2015): Service Workers' Job Performance. European Journal of Marketing, 49 (11/12), 1751–1776.

Heck, R.H., Thomas, S.L. (2000): An Introduction to Multilevel Modeling Techniques. Mawah, Nj: Laurence Erlbaum Associates.

Heller, D., Judge, T.A., Watson, D. (2002): The Confounding Role of Personality and Trait Affectivity in the Relationship Between Job and Life Satisfaction. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23 (7), 815–835.

Henkel, S., Tomczak, T., Heitmann, M. Herrmann, A. (2007): Managing Brand Consistent Employee Behaviour. Relevance and Managerial Control of Behavioural Branding. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 16 (5), 310–320.

Hennig-Thurau, T., Groth, M., Paul, M., Gremler, D.D. (2006): Are All Smiles Created Equal? How Emotional Contagion and Emotional Labor Affect Service Relationships. Journal of Marketing, 70 (3), 58–73.

Heppner, W.L., Kernis, M., Netzlek, J.B., Foster, J., Lakey, C. (2008): Within-Person Relationships among Daily Self-Esteem, Need Satisfaction, and Authenticity. Psychological Science, 19 (11), 1140–1145.

Heskett, J.L., Jones, T.O., Loveman, G. W., Sasser, W. E.; Schlesinger, L.A. (1994): Putting the Service-Profit Chain to Work. Harvard Business Review, 72 (4), 164–175.

Hildebrandt, L. (1984): Kausalanalytische Validierung in der Marketingforschung. Zeitschrift für Forschung und Praxis, 6 (1), 41–51.

Hildebrandt, L., Temme, D. (2006): Probleme der Validierung mit Strukturgleichungsmodellen. Die Betriebswirtschaft, 66 (6), 618–639.

Hochschild, A.R. (2003): The Managed Heart. Commercialization of Human Feeling. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Hoffman, L., Stawski, R.S. (2009): Persons as Contexts. Evaluating Between-Person and Within-Person Effects in Longitudinal Analysis. Research in Human Development, 6 (2-3), 97–120.

Hofmann, D.A. (1997): An Overview of the Logic and Rationale of Hierarchical Linear Models. Journal of Management, 23 (6), 723–744.

Hofmann, D.A., Gavin, M.B. (1998): Centering Decisions in Hierarchical Linear Models. Implications for Research in Organizations. Journal of Management, 24 (5), 623–641.

Hogg, M.A., Terry, D.J. (2000): Social Identity and Self-Categorization Processes in Organizational Contexts. Academy of Management Review, 25 (1), 121–140.

Homburg, C., Baumgartner, H. (1995): Beurteilung von Kausalmodellen: Bestandsaufnahme und Anwendungsempfehlungen. Marketing: Zeitschrift für Forschung und Praxis., 162–176.

Homburg, C., Giering, A. (1998): Konzeptualisierung und Operationalisierung komplexer Konstrukte: Ein Leitfaden für die Marketingforschung. In: Hildebrandt, Lutz, and Homburg, Christian, Eds. Die Kausalanalyse. Ein Instrument der empirischen betriebswirtschaftlichen Forschung. Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel, 111–146.

Homburg, C., Klarmann, M., Pflesser, C. (2008): Konfirmatorische Faktorenanalyse. In: A. Herrmann, Ed. Handbuch Marktforschung. Methoden, Anwendungen, Praxisbeispiele. Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler.

Homburg, C., Wieseke, J., Hoyer, W.D. (2009): Social Identity and the Service–Profit Chain. Journal of Marketing, 73 (2), 38–54.

Horizont (2014): Was Sind Aus Ihrer Sicht Aktuelle Herausforderungen Bei Der Markenführung? [Online]. Available From: Http://De.Statista.Com/Statistik/Daten/Studie/284918/Umfrage/Umfrage-Unter-Markenverantwortlichen-Zu-Herausforderungen-Bei-Der-Markenfuehrung [Accessed 1 March 2013].

Hox, J.J. (2002): Multilevel Analysis. Techniques and Applications. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hu, L., Bentler, P.M. (1998): Fit Indices in Covariance Structure Modeling: Sensitivity to Underparameterized Model Misspecification. Psychological Methods, 3 (4), 424–453.

Huang, J.L., Chiaburu, D.S., Zhang, X.A., Li, N., Grandey, A.A. (2015): Rising to the Challenge: Deep Acting is More Beneficial when Tasks are Appraised as Challenging. Journal of Applied Psychology, 100 (5), 1398–1408.

Hughes, D.E., Ahearne, M. (2010): Energizing the Reseller's Sales Force. The Power of Brand Identification. Journal of Marketing, 74 (4), 81–96.

Hulsheger, U.R., Lang, J.W.B., Schewe, A.F., Zijlstra, F.R.H. (2015): When Regulating Emotions at Work Pays Off: A Diary and an Intervention Study on Emotion Regulation and Customer Tips in Service Jobs. Journal of Applied Psychology, 100 (2), 263–277.

Hurt, K. (2015): 7 Ways to Turn Your Employees into Brand Ambassadors [Online]. Available From: http://www.brandquarterly.com/7-Ways-To-Turn-Your-Employees-Into-Brand-Ambassadors [Accessed March 2016].

Hyken, S., Baum, N. (2014): How to Create a "Wow" for Your Patients. The Journal of Medical Practice Management, 3 (31), 135–155.

Ilies, R., Scott, B.A., Judge, T.A. (2006): The Interactive Effects of Personal Traits and Experienced States on Intraindividual Patterns of Citizenship Behavior. Academy of Management Journal, 49 (3), 561–575.

Jex, S.M., Elacqua, T.C. (1999): Self-Esteem as a Moderator. A Comparison of Global and Organization-Based Measures. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72 (1), 71–81.

Johar, G.V., Sengupta, J., Aaker, J.L. (2005): Two Roads to Updating Brand Personality Impressions. Trait versus Evaluative Inferencing. Journal of Marketing Research, 42 (4), 458–469.

Jöreskog, K.G. (1967): A General Approach to Confirmatory Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis. Ets Research Bulletin Series (2), 183–202.

Jöreskog, K.G. (1969): A General Approach to Confirmatory Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis. Psychometrika, 34 (2), 183–202.

Jöreskog, K.G. (1970): A General Method for Analysis of Covariance Structures. Biometrika, 57 (2), 239.

Jöreskog, K.G. (1971a): Simultaneous Factor Analysis in Several Populations. Psychometrika, 36 (4), 409–426.

Jöreskog, K.G. (1971b): Statistical Analysis of Sets of Congeneric Tests. Psychometrika, 36 (2), 109–133.

Jöreskog, K.G., Sörbom, D. (1981): Lisrel Vi. Analysis of Linear Structural Relationships by the Method of Maximum Likelihood, Instrumental Variables, and Least Squares Methods. Mooresville, Ind.: Scientific Software.

Joseph, D.L., Newman, D.A. (2010): Emotional Intelligence: An Integrative Meta-Analysis and Cascading Model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 95 (1), 54–78.

Judge, T.A., Kammeyer-Mueller, J.D. (2012): Job Attitudes. Annual Review of Psychology, 63, 341–367.

Judge, T.A., Woolf, E.F., Hurst, C. (2009): Is Emotional Labor More Difficult for Some than for Others? A Multilevel, Experience-Sampling Study. Personnel Psychology, 62 (1), 57–88.

Jung, J.H., Brown, T.J., Zablah, A.R. (2017): The Effect of Customer-Initiated Justice on Customer-Oriented Behaviors. Journal of Business Research, 71, 38–46.

Kaiser, H.F. (1970): A Second Generation Little Jiffy. Psychometrika, 35 (4), 401–415.

Kaiser, H.F. (1974): An Index of Factorial Simplicity. Psychometrika, 39 (1), 31–36.

Kaiser, H.F., Rice, J. (1974): Little Jiffy, Mark Iv. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 34 (1), 111–117.

Kammeyer-Mueller, J.D., Rubenstein, A.L., Long, D.M., Odio, M.A., Buckman, B.R., Zhang, Y., Halvorsen-Ganepola, M.D.K. (2013): A Meta-Analytic Structural Model of Dispositonal Affectivity and Emotional Labor. Personnel Psychology, 66 (1), 47–90.

Kane, J.S., Lawler, E.E. (1979): Performance Appraisal Effectiveness: Its Assessment and Determinants. Research in Organizational Behavior, 1, 425–478.

Kelley, S.W. (1992): Developing Customer Orientation among Service Employees. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 20 (1), 27–36.

Kernis, M.H., Paradise, A.W., Whitaker, D.J., Wheatman, S.R., Goldman, B.N. (2000): Master of One's Psychological Domain? Not Likely If One's Self-Esteem is Unstable. Personality And Social Psychology Bulletin, 26 (10), 1297–1305.

Kernis, M.H. (2005): Measuring Self-Esteem in Context: The Importance of Stability of Self-Esteem in Psychological Functioning. Journal of Personality, 73 (6), 1569–1605.

Ketturat, C., Frisch, J.U., Ullrich, J., Hausser, J.A., Van Dick, R., Mojzisch, A. (2016): Disaggregating Within- and Between-Person Effects of Social Identification on Subjective and Endocrinological Stress Reactions in a Real-Life Stress Situation. Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 42 (2), 147–160.

Kidder, D. (2002): The Influence of Gender on the Performance of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. Journal of Management, 28 (5), 629–648.

King, C., Grace, D. (2010): Building and Measuring Employee-Based Brand Equity. European Journal of Marketing, 44 (7/8), 938–971.

Korman, A.K. (1966): Self-Esteem Variable in Vocational Choice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 50 (6), 479–486.

Korman, A.K. (1970): Toward an Hypothesis of Work Behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 54 (1, Pt.1), 31–41.

Korschun, D. (2015): Boundary-Spanning Employees and Relationships with External Stakeholders. A Social Identity Approach. Academy of Management Review, 40 (4), 611–629.

Koudal, P. (2006): The Service Revolution in Global Manufacturing Industries. Deloitte Research.

Kramer, R.M. (1991): Intergroup Relations and Organizational Dilemmas - The Role of Categorization Processes. Research in Organizational Behavior (13), 191–228.

Kuksov, D., Villas-Boas, J.M. (2008): Endogeneity and Individual Consumer Choice. Journal of Marketing Research, 45 (6), 702–714.

Lafrance, M., Banaji, M. (1992): Toward a Reconsideration of the Gender-Emotion Relationship. In: M.S. Clark, Ed. Emotion and Social Behavior. Newbury Park: Sage Publications, 178–201.

Lange, A., Richard, G., Gest, A., de Vries, M., Lodder, L. (1998): The Effects of Positive Self-Instruction: A Controlled Trial. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 22 (3), 225–236.

Leeflang, P.S.H. (2000): Building Models for Marketing Decisions. Boston: Kluwer.

Löhndorf, B., Diamantopoulos, A. (2014): Internal Branding. Social Identity and Social Exchange Perspectives on Turning Employees into Brand Champions. Journal of Service Research, 17 (3), 310–325.

Lusch, R.F., Vargo, S.L., O'brien, M. (2007): Competing through Service. Insights from Service-Dominant Logic. Journal of Retailing, 83 (1), 5–18.

Mabe, P.A., West, S.G. (1982): Validity of Self-Evaluation of Ability. A Review and Meta-Analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67 (3), 280–296.

Maneotis, S.M., Grandey, A.A., Krauss, A.D. (2014): Understanding the "Why" as Well as the "How". Service Performance is a Function of Prosocial Motives and Emotional Labor. Human Performance, 27 (1), 80–97.

Mauss, I.B., Bunge, S.A., Gross, J.J. (2009): Culture and Automatic Emotion Regulation. In: M. Vandekerckhove, Ed. Regulating Emotions: Culture, Social Necessity, and Biological Inheritance: Wiley, 39–64.

Mesmer-Magnus, J.R., Dechurch, L.A., Wax, A. (2012): Moving Emotional Labor beyond Surface and Deep Acting: A Discordance-Congruence Perspective. Organizational Psychology Review, 2 (1), 6–53.

Miles, S.J., Mangold, G. (2004): A Conceptualization of the Employee Branding Process. Journal of Relationship Marketing, 3 (2-3), 65–87.

Millward, L.J., Haslam, S.A. (2013): Who Are We Made to Think We Are? Contextual Variation in Organizational, Workgroup and Career Foci of Identification. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 86 (1), 50–66.

Minbashian, A., Luppino, D. (2014): Short-Term and Long-Term Within-Person Variability in Performance: An Integrative Model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 99 (5), 898–914.

Miner, A.G., Glomb, T.M. (2010): State Mood, Task Performance, and Behavior at Work. A Within-Persons Approach. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 112 (1), 43–57.

Mishra, S.K., Bhatnagar, D., D'Cruz, P., Noronha, E. (2012): Linkage between Perceived External Prestige and Emotional Labor. Mediation Effect of Organizational Identification among Pharmaceutical Representatives in India. Journal of World Business, 47 (2), 204–212.

Moon, S.M., Lord, R.G. (2006): Individual Differences in Automatic and Controlled Regulation of Emotion and Task Performance. Human Performance, 19 (4), 327–356.

Morhart, F.M., Herzog, W., Tomczak, T. (2009): Brand-Specific Leadership. Turning Employees into Brand Champions. Journal of Marketing, 73 (5), 122–142.

Morris, C.N. (1983): Parametric Empirical Bayes Inference. Theory and Applications. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 78 (381), 47.

Motowidlo, S.J., Van Scotter, J.R. (1994): Evidence that Task Performance Should Be Distinguished from Contextual Performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79 (4), 475–480.

Mulaik, S.A. (2010): Foundations of Factor Analysis. 2nd Ed. Boca Raton: Crc Press.

Myrden, S.E., Kelloway, E.K. (2015): Leading to Customer Loyalty. A Daily Test of the Service-Profit Chain. Journal of Services Marketing, 29 (6/7), 585–598.

Nezlek, J.B., Plesko, R.M. (2001): Day-To-Day Variability in Empathy as a Function of Daily Events and Mood. Journal of Research in Personality, 35 (4), 401–423.

Nezlek, J.B. (2005): Distinguishing Affective and Non-Affective Reactions to Daily Events. Journal of Personality, 73 (6), 1539–1568.

Nezlek, J.B., Plesko, R.M. (2001): Day-To-Day Relationships among Self-Concept Clarity, Self-Esteem, Daily Events, and Mood. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27 (2), 201–211.

Nezlek, J.B., Plesko, R.M. (2003): Affect- and Self-Based Models of Relationships between Daily Events and Daily Well-Being. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29 (5), 584–596.

Ng, T.W. (2015): The Incremental Validity of Organizational Commitment, Organizational Trust, and Organizational Identification. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 88, 154–163.

Nohe, C., Michel, A., Sonntag, K. (2014): Family-Work Conflict and Job Performance. A Diary Study of Boundary Conditions and Mechanisms. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35 (3), 339–357.

Nunnally, J.C. 1978. Psychometric Theory. 2nd Ed. New York: Mcgraw-Hill.

Oakes, P.J., Turner, J.C., Haslam, S.A. (1991): Perceiving People as Group Members. The Role of Fit in The Salience of Social Categorizations. British Journal of Social Psychology, 30 (2), 125–144.

O'hara, B.S., Boles, J.S., Johnston, M.W. (1991): The Influence of Personal Variables on Salesperson Selling Orientation. Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 11 (1), 61–67.

Oliver, R.L. (1999): Whence Consumer Loyalty? Journal of Marketing, 63, 33.

Osborne, J. (2000): Advantages of Hierarchical Linear Modelling. Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation (7(1)), 1–3. Available From: https://www.researchgate.net/Profile/Jason_Osborne2/Publication/234597001_Advantages_Of_Hierarchical_Linear_Modeling/Links/02e7e5347f05122a9e000000.pdf [Accessed 26 October 2016].

Ozcelik, H. (2013): An Empirical Analysis of Surface Acting in Intra-Organizational Relationships. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34 (3), 291–309.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L.L. (1985): A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and its Implications for Future Research. Journal of Marketing, 49 (4), 41–50.

Peter, J.P. (1981): Construct Validity. A Review of Basic Issues and Marketing Practices. Journal of Marketing Research, 18 (2), 133–145.

Petrin, A., Train, K. (2010): A Control Function Approach to Endogeneity in Consumer Choice Models. Journal of Marketing Research, 47 (1), 3–13.

Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., Cummings, L.L., Dunham, R.B. (1989): Organization-Based Self-Esteem. Construct Definition, Measurement, and Validation. Academy of Management Journal, 32 (3), 622–648.

Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., Dunham, R.B., Cummings, L.L. (1993): Moderation by Organization-Based Self-Esteem of Role Condition--Employee Response Relationships. Academy of Management Journal, 36 (2), 271–288.

Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G. (2004): Self-Esteem within the Work and Organizational Context. A Review of the Organization-Based Self-Esteem Literature. Journal of Management, 30 (5), 591–622.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J.-Y., Podsakoff, N.P. (2003): Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88 (5), 879–903.

Podsakoff, P.M., Ahearne, M., Mackenzie, S.B. (1997): Organizational Citizenship Behavior and the Quantity and Quality of Work Group Performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82 (2), 262–270.

Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B. (1997): Impact of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on Organizational Performance. A Review and Suggestion for Future Research. Human Performance, 10 (2), 133–151.

Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., Podsakoff, N.P. (2012): Sources of Method Bias in Social Science Research and Recommendations on How to Control it. Annual Review of Psychology, 63, 539–569.

Pugh, S.D. (2001): Service with a Smile. Emotional Contagion in the Service Encounter. Academy of Management Journal, 44 (5), 1018–1027.

Pugh, S.D., Groth, M., Hennig-Thurau, T. (2011): Willing and Able to Fake Emotions: A Closer Examination of the Link between Emotional Dissonance and Employee Well-Being. Journal of Applied Psychology, 96 (2), 377–390.

Rafaeli, A. (1989): When Cashiers Meet Customers. An Analysis of the Role of Supermarket Cashiers. Academy of Management Journal, 32 (2), 245–273.

Rafaeli, A., Sutton, R.I. (1987): Expression of Emotion as Part of the Work Role. Academy of Management Review, 12 (1), 23–37.

Rapp, A., Agnihotri, R., Baker, T.L., Andzulis, J.M. (2015): Competitive Intelligence Collection and Use by Sales and Service Representatives. How Managers' Recognition and Autonomy Moderate Individual Performance. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43 (3), 357–374.

Raudenbusch, S., Bryk, A., Cheong, Y.F., Congdon, R., Du Toit, M. (2016): HLM7. Hierarchical Linear and Nonlinear Modeling.

Raudenbush, S.W., Bryk, A.S. (2002): Hierarchical Linear Models. Applications and Data Analysis Methods. 2nd Ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Raudenbush, S.W., Bryk, A.S. (2010): Hierarchical Linear Models. Applications And Data Analysis Methods. 2nd Ed. Thousand Oaks [U.A.]: Sage Publ.

Reb, J., Cropanzano, R. (2007): Evaluating Dynamic Performance: The Influence of Salient Gestalt Characteristics on Performance Ratings. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92 (2), 490–499.

Reis, H.T., Gable, S.L. (2000): Event-Sampling and Other Methods for Studying Everyday Experience. In: H.T. Reis and C.M. Judd, Eds. Handbook of Research Methods in Social and Personality Psychology. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press, 190–222.

Riketta, M. (2005): Organizational Identification. A Meta-Analysis. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66 (2), 358–384.

Riketta, M., Van Dick, R. (2005): Foci of Attachment in Organizations. A Meta-Analytic Comparison of the Strength and Correlates of Workgroup versus Organizational Identification and Commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67 (3), 490–510.

Robinson, J.P., Shaver, P.R., Wrightsman, L.S. (1991): Criteria for Scale Selection and Evaluation. In: J.P. Robinson, Ed. Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes. San Diego: Academic Press, 1–16.

Robinson, M.D., Clore, G.L. (2002): Belief and Feeling. Evidence for an Accessibility Model of Emotional Self-Report. Psychological Bulletin, 128 (6), 934–960.

Roccas, S., Sagiv, L., Schwartz, S.H., Knafo, A. (2002): The Big Five Personality Factors and Personal Values. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28 (6), 789–801.

Rothbard, N.P., Wilk, S.L. (2011): Waking Up on the Right or Wrong Side of the Bed. Start-Of-Workday Mood, Work Events, Employee Affect, and Performance. Academy of Management Journal, 54 (5), 959–980.

Rozell, E.J., Pettijohn, C.E., Parker, R.S. (2004): Customer-Oriented Selling. Exploring the Roles of Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment. Psychology and Marketing, 21 (6), 405–424.

Rupp, D.E., McCance, S.A., Spencer, S., Sonntag, K. (2008): Customer (In)Justice and Emotional Labor. The Role of Perspective Taking, Anger, and Emotional Regulation. Journal of Management, 34 (5), 903–924.

Rupp, D.E., Spencer, S. (2006): When Customers Lash Out: The Effects of Customer Interactional Injustice on Emotional Labor and the Mediating Role of Discrete Emotions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91 (4), 971–978.

Savin-Williams, R.C., Demo, D.H. (1983): Situational and Transituational Determinants of Adolescent Self-Feelings. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44 (4), 824–833.

Saxe, R., Weitz, B.A. (1982): The Soco Scale. A Measure of the Customer Orientation of Salespeople. Journal of Marketing Research, 19 (3), 343.

Scherbaum, C.A., Ferreter, J.M. (2008): Estimating Statistical Power and Required Sample Sizes for Organizational Research Using Multilevel Modeling. Organizational Research Methods, 12 (2), 347–367.

Scott, B.A., Barnes, C.M. (2011): A Multilevel Field Investigation of Emotional Labor, Affect, Work Withdrawal, and Gender. Academy of Management Journal, 54 (1), 116–136.

Scott, B.A., Barnes, C.M., Wagner, D.T., (2012): Chameleonic or Consistent? A Multilevel Investigation of Emotional Labor Variability and Self-Monitoring. Academy of Management Journal, 55 (4), 905–926.

Shamir, B., Kark, R. (2004): A Single-Item Graphic Scale for the Measurement of Organizational Identification. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77 (1), 115–123.

Shimp, T.A., Sharma, S. (1987): Consumer Ethnocentrism. Construction and Validation of the Cetscale. Journal of Marketing Research, 24 (3), 280.

Sirianni, N.J., Bitner, M.J., Brown, S.W., Mandel, N. (2013): Branded Service Encounters. Strategically Aligning Employee Behavior with the Brand Positioning. Journal of Marketing, 77 (6), 108–123.

Sliter, M., Jex, S., Wolford, K., McInnerney, J. (2010): How Rude! Emotional Labor as a Mediator between Customer Incivility and Employee Outcomes. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 15 (4), 468–481.

Smith, R.A., Houston, M.J. (1983): Script-Based Evaluations of Satisfaction with Services. In: L.L. Berry, G.L. Shostack, and G.D. Upah, Eds. Emerging Perspectives on Services Marketing. Chicago, Il: American Marketing Association, 59–62.

Sonnentag, S. (2001): Work, Recovery Activities, and Individual Well-Being. A Diary Study. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6 (3), 196–210.

Sonnentag, S. (2003): Recovery, Work Engagement, and Proactive Behavior. A New Look at the Interface between Nonwork and Work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88 (3), 518–528.

Sonnentag, S., Frese, M. (2009): Dynamic Performance. In: S.W.J. Kozlowski, Ed. The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Psychology. Oxford [U.A.]: Oxford Univ. Press, 548–575.

Spence, J.R., Brown, D.J., Keeping, L.M., Lian, H. (2014): Helpful Today, But Not Tomorrow? Feeling Grateful as a Predictor of Daily Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. Personnel Psychology (67), 705–738.

Spence, J.R., Ferris, L.D., Brown, D.J., Heller, D. (2011): Understanding daily citizenship behaviors: A social comparison perspective. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32, 547–571.

Spencer, S., Rupp, D.E., (2009): Angry, Guilty, and Conflicted: Injustice toward Coworkers Heightens Emotional Labor through Cognitive and Emotional Mechanisms. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94 (2), 429–444.

Steiger, J.H. (1990): Structural Model Evaluation and Modification: An Interval Estimation Approach. Multivariate Behavioral Research, 25 (2), 173–180.

Stewart, D.W. (1981): The Application and Misapplication of Factor Analysis in Marketing Research. Journal of Marketing Research, 18 (1), 51–62.

Stewart, G.L., Nandeolyar, A.K. (2006): Adaption and Intraindividual Variation in Sales Outcomes. Exploring the Interactive Effects of Personality and Environmental Opportunity. Personnel Psychology, 59 (2), 307–332.

Stock, R.M., Hoyer, W.D. (2005): An Attitude-Behavior Model of Salespeople's Customer Orientation. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 33 (4), 536–552.

Subramony, M., Pugh, D.S. (2015): Services Management Research: Review, Integration, and Future Directions. Journal of Management, 41 (1), 349–373.

Tajfel, H. (1978a): Differentiation between Social Groups. Studies in the Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations. London: Academy Press.

Tajfel, H. (1978b): Social Categorization, Social Identity and Social Comparison. In: H. Tajfel, Ed. Differentiation between Social Groups. Studies in the Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations. London: Academy Press, 61–76.

Tajfel, H. (1981): Human Groups and Social Categories. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H., Turner, J.C. (1979): An Integrative Theory of Intergroup Conflict. In: W.G. Austin and S. Worchel, Eds. Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations. Chicago: Nelson, 33–47.

Thakor, M.V., Joshi, A.W. (2005): Motivating Salesperson Customer Orientation. Insights from the Job Characteristics Model. Journal of Business Research, 58 (5), 584–592.

Thomas, R.W., Soutar, G.N., Ryan, M.M. (2001): The Selling Orientation-Customer Oreintation (S.O.C.O.) Scale: A Proposed Short Form. Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 21 (1), 63–69.

Thorbjørnsen, H., Supphellen, M. (2011): Determinants of Core Value Behavior in Service Brands. Journal of Services Marketing, 25 (1), 68–76.

Tolich, M.B. (1993): Alienating and Liberating Emotions at Work. Supermarket Clerks' Performance of Customer Service. Journal of Contemporary Ethnography, 22 (3), 361–381.

Totterdell, P., Holman, D. (2003): Emotion Regulation in Customer Service Roles. Testing a Model of Emotional Labor. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8 (1), 55–73.

Trougakos, J.P., Beal, D.J., Cheng, B.H., Hideg, I., Zweig, D. (2015): Too Drained to Help: A Resource Depletion Perspective on Daily Interpersonal Citizenship Behaviors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 100 (1), 227–236.

Turner, J.C., Hogg, M.A., Oakes, P.J., Reicher, S.D., Witherell, M.S. (1987): Rediscovering the Social Group: A Self-Categorizing Theory. Oxford: Blackwell.

Turner, J.C., Tajfel, H. (1986): The Social Identity Theory of Intergroup Behavior. Psychology of Intergroup Relations, 7–24.

Ullrich, J., Wieseke, J., Christ, O., Schulze, M., Van Dick, R. (2007): The Identity-Matching Principle. Corporate and Organizational Identification in a Franchising System. British Journal of Management, 18 (S1), S29-S44.

Vallaster, C., Chernatony, L. (2005): Internationalisation of Services Brands. The Role of Leadership during the Internal Brand Building Process. Journal of Marketing Management, 21 (1-2), 181–203.

Van Dick, R. (2001): Identification in Organizational Contexts. Linking Theory and Research from Social and Organizational Psychology. International Journal of Management Reviews, 3 (4), 265–283.

Van Dick, R., Wagner, U., Stellmacher, J., Christ, O. (2005): Category Salience and Organizational Identification. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78 (2), 273–285.

Van Dick, R. (2015): Stress Lass Nach! Wie Gruppen unser Stresserleben beeinflussen. Berlin: Springer Spektrum.

Van Knippenberg, D. (2000): Work Motivation and Performance. A Social Identity Perspective. Applied Psychology, 49 (3), 357–371.

Van Knippenberg, D., Van Knippenberg, B., Monden, L., Lima, F. (2002): Organizational Identification after a Merger. A Social Identity Perspective. British Journal of Social Psychology, 41 (2), 233–252.

Van Knippenberg, D., Sleebos, E. (2006): Organizational Identification versus Organizational Commitment. Self-Definition, Social Exchange, and Job Attitudes. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27 (5), 571–584.

Van Knippenberg, D., Van Schie, Els C.M. (2000): Foci and Correlates of Organizational Identification. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 73 (2), 137–147.

Vargo, S.L., Lusch, R.F. (2004): Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing. Journal of Marketing, 68 (1), 1–17.

Vargo, S.L., Lusch, R.F. (2008): From Goods to Service(s). Divergences and Convergences of Logics. Industrial Marketing Management, 37 (3), 254–259.

Villas-Boas, J.M., Winer, R.S. (1999): Endogeneity in Brand Choice Models. Management Science, 45 (10), 1324–1338.

Von Gilsa, L., Zapf, D., Ohly, S., Trumpold, K., Machowski, S. (2014): There Is More than Obeying Display Rules. Service Employees' Motives for Emotion Regulation in Customer Interactions. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 23 (6), 884–896.

Waldman, D.A., Avolio, B.J. (1986): A Meta-Analysis of Age Differences in Job Performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71 (1), 33–38.

Wang, M., Liao, H., Zhan, Y., Shi, J. (2011): Daily Customer Mistreatment and Employee Sabotage against Customers. Examining Emotion and Resource Perspectives. Academy of Management Journal, 54 (2), 312–334.

Wang, M., Liu, S., Liao, H., Gong, Y., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., Shi, J. (2013): Can't Get it out of My Mind: Employee Rumination after Customer Mistreatment and Negative Mood in the Next Morning. Journal of Applied Psychology, 98 (6), 989–1004.

Watson, D. (2000): Mood and Temperament. New York: Guilford Press.

Watson, D., Clark, L.A., Harkness, A.R. (1994): Structures of Personality and their Relevance to Psychopathology. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 103 (1), 18–31.

Watson, D., Clark, L.A., Tellegen, A. (1988): Development and Validation of Brief Measures of Positive and Negative Affect. The Panas Scales. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54 (6), 1063–1070.

Weiber, R., Mühlhaus, D. (2014): Strukturgleichungsmodellierung. Eine Anwendungsorientierte Einführung in die Kausalanalyse mit Hilfe von Amos, SmartPLS und Spss. 2nd Ed. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Gabler.

Weston, R., Gore Jr., P.A. (2006): Brief Guide to Structural Equation Modeling. The Counseling Psychologist, 34 (5), 719–751.

Wieseke, J., Et Al. (2007): Organizational Identification as a Determinant of Customer Orientation in Service Organizations. Marketing Letters, 18 (4), 265–278.

Wieseke, J., Ahearne, M., Lam, S.K., Van Dick, R. (2009): The Role of Leaders in Internal Marketing. Journal of Marketing, 73 (2), 123–145.

Woltman, H., Feldstain, A., MacKay, J.C., Rocchi, M. (2012): An Introduction to Hierarchical Linear Modeling. Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology, 8 (1), 52–69.

Wooldridge, J. (2009): Introductory Econometrics. A Modern Approach. 4th Ed. Mason, Ohio: South-Western.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A.B., Heuven, E., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W.B. (2008): Working in the Sky: A Diary Study on Work Engagement among Flight Attendants. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13 (4), 345–356.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W.B. (2009): Work Engagement and Financial Returns. A Diary Study on the Role of Job and Personal Resources. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 82 (1), 183–200.

Yagil, D., Medler-Liraz, H., (2013): Moments of Truth. Examining Transient Authenticity and Identity in Service Encounters. Academy of Management Journal, 56 (2), 473–497.

Yanchus, N.J., Eby, L.T., Lance, C.E., Drollinger, S. (2010): The Impact of Emotional Labor on Work–Family Outcomes. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 76 (1), 105–117.

Yoo, J., Arnold, T.J. (2015): Frontline Employee Customer-Oriented Attitude in the Presence of Job Demands and Resources. The Influence upon Deep and Surface Acting. Journal of Service Research, 19 (1), 102–117.

Zacher, H., Wilden, R.G. (2014): A Daily Diary Study on Ambidextrous Leadership and Self-Reported Employee Innovation. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 87 (4), 813–820.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. (1985): Measuring the Involvement Construct. Journal of Consumer Research, 12 (3), 341.

Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L.L., Parasuraman, A. (1988): Communication and Control Processes in the Delivery of Service Quality. Journal of Marketing, 52 (2), 35.

Affidavit

Hiermit versichere ich an Eides Statt, dass ich meine Dissertation

„Brand-Building Behaviors of Frontline Employees – Disaggregating Between-Person and Within-Person Effects of Organizational Identification"

selbständig und ohne fremde Hilfe angefertigt habe und dass ich alle wörtlich oder dem Sinn nach anderen Veröffentlichungen entnommenen Stellen nach den bekannten Regeln wissenschaftlicher Zitierweise besonders gekennzeichnet und die Quellen aufgeführt habe.

Paderborn, den 21. September 2019

Nadine Kubik (geb. Kass)

Curriculum Vitae