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This study was conducted to examine the effect of ethical values and an ethical work climate (EWC) (responsibility, unethical peer behaviors, and selling orientation) on organizational trust, and organizational commitment (affective and continuance commitment), which in turn influence turnover intentions to acquire a competitive edge in a competitive world. Data were obtained from 276 employees of food-service franchised companies in Korea. The results suggest that an EWC mediates the relationship between ethical values and organizational trust, which in turn has a positive influence on organizational commitment and turnover intention. Contributions and directions for future study are discussed.

Key words: ethical values, ethical work climate, organizational trust, organizational commitment, turnover intention

Introduction

Over the past decades, unethical behaviors in the franchise industry have increased an awareness of the importance of an ethical work climate (EWC). Creating an EWC is important for all companies and types of employees (DeConinck, 2011). However, it is especially important for employees of franchise enterprises because they intend to establish a framework for the implementation of best practices in the franchise relationships. The reputation of the franchise system is one of its most valuable and enduring assets. A positive reputation

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will create value for franchisors and franchisees, attract investment in existing and new outlets from franchisees and from new franchise operators, help capture additional market share, reduce employee turnover, and enhance customer loyalty and satisfaction (Morrison, 1995). This can be achieved with ethical management, trust, and commitment between franchisors and franchisees (Lopez, Babin, & Chung, 2009). Within this relationship, employees of franchise enterprises are focal points, thus resulting in prior research's focus on the importance of studying an organization's EWC and its importance in affecting employees' attitude, behavior, and organizational outcomes (DeConinck, 2011; Lopez et al., 2009). Research indicates that the presence of an EWC can enhance employees' organizational commitment and reduce turnover intention (Cullen, Praveen, & Victor, 2003; DeConinck, 2011; Schwepker, 2001). Scholars emphasize that firms with high organizational commitment has relatively higher levels of job performance and lower turnover when compared to organizations with low organizational commitment (Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari, & Emami, 2012; Schwepker, 2001).

Recently, unethical behaviors have dramatically gained increasing attention from scholars over the past two decades (DeConinck, 2011).The hospitality industry in general and the food-service franchise companies specifically present many opportunities for unethical behavior (Kincaid, Baloglu, & Corsun, 2008). Unethical behaviors include, but are not limited to, stealing from the company, billing customers for items they did not consume and altering signed credit card vouchers (Kincaid et al., 2008; Wong, 1998). Nonetheless, there are significant research gaps and key issues yet to be addressed. For example, a majority of the ethical issue studies have been undertaken within the Western context, with few available

in South Korea (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Wang & Wong, 2011). Accordingly, the need for further investigations to test the generalizability of prior research findings has been underscored. Moreover, while previous studies (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Kincaid et al., 2008; Wang & Wong, 2011) have been conducted to investigate customer-contact employees' ethical issues, limited research has been carried out on employees of food-service franchise enterprises.

For many reasons, the Korea food-service franchise industry represents an appropriate context for such a study. First, over the past decade, franchising has experienced continued expansion and diversification, becoming one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in Korea, and food-service is a major pillar of the franchise industry in Korea (KB Daily Knowledge Vitamin, 2012). Second, every franchise relationship is founded on the mutual commitment of both parties to fulfill their obligations under the franchise agreement, as each party will consistently act in the interests of the brand and will not act so as to harm the system. This interdependence between franchisors and franchisees has made franchising a success as a strategy for business growth. Thus, employees of food-service franchised enterprises are focal points for such a relationship between franchisors and franchisees since, according to Kim and Brymer (2011), the importance of ethical issues in food-service franchise companies is of paramount concern because the nature of the franchise industry is based on service. Third, the food-service franchise industry continues to hold one of the greatest turnover rates primarily due to low wages, shift schedules, high workloads, and unethical behaviors (Dermody, Young, & Taylor, 2004; McMillian & Baker, 2008). Despite the amount of

research focused on turnover, the issue still continues to dominate as a major problem within the food-service franchise industry in Korea (Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008).

Researchers logically believe that corporate ethical values can significantly impact other employee behaviors within the organization. However, the relationship between corporate ethical values and outcomes of these may not be direct, suggesting a potential gap that is unexplored. This problem, which is challenged in previous research for the potential gap, may be improved by embedding an EWC into the gap between ethical values and outcomes. Narrowing the gap in the literature, this study examines an EWC and its consequences among food-service franchise employees. More specifically, the current study expands on previous research by exploring how an EWC mediates the relationship between ethical values and organizational trust, which in turn positively influences organizational commitment and turnover intention. It is believed to be one of the first efforts to examine an EWC and its consequences on employees in franchise headquarters. Therefore, the results of our study should provide useful insights for building and maintaining a positive ethical climate into successful franchise systems. By understanding factors that affect ethical climate, as well as how employees' responsibility, peer behaviors, and sales orientations affect organizational trust, management can take steps to improve the firm's organizational commitment, and to subsequently provide the firm with lower turnover intentions.

Over the past decades, unethical behaviors in the franchise industry have increased an awareness of the importance of an EWC. Creating an EWC is important for all companies and types of employees (DeConinck, 2011). However, it is especially important for employees of franchise enterprises because they intend to establish a framework for the implementation of best practices in the franchise relationships. The reputation of the franchise system is one of its most valuable and enduring assets. A positive reputation will create value for franchisors and franchisees, attract investment in existing and new outlets from franchisees and from new franchise operators, help capture additional market share, reduce employee turnover, and enhance customer loyalty and satisfaction. This can be achieved with ethical management, trust, and commitment between franchisors and franchisees. Within this relationship, employees of franchise enterprises are focal points, thus resulting in prior research's focus on the importance of studying an organization's EWC and its importance in affecting employees' attitude, behavior, and organizational outcomes (DeConinck, 2011; Lopez et al., 2009). Research indicates that the presence of an EWC can enhance employees' organizational commitment and reduce turnover intention (Cullen et al., 2003; DeConinck, 2011; Schwepker, 2001). Scholars emphasize that firms with high organizational commitment has relatively higher levels of job performance and lower turnover when compared to organizations with low organizational commitment (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Schwepker, 2001).

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development

Ethical Values and an EWC

The likelihood of organizational success is significantly increased when the ethical standards and values of an organization are widely

shared by its employees (Schwepker & Hartline, 2005). Researchers focus on organizational attributes that affect the moral behavior and attitudes of employees at work (Ambrose, Arnaud, & Schminke, 2007). This investigation considers how ethical characteristics of organizations, including the ethical climate, codes of ethics, and ethical policies affect individual ethics (Ambrose et al., 2007). At the individual level, ethical values influence the moral reasoning of individuals as they consider what constitutes right or wrong behavior. At the organizational level, ethical values research focuses on ethical climate, which represents a firm's employees' shared beliefs about the ethical values of the organization (Ambrose et al., 2007; Victor & Cullen, 1987). Hunt, Wood, and Chonko (1989) first introduced the concept of corporate ethical value, which proposed that corporate ethical values signified the cultural characteristics of the ethical situations within the organization, and also posited that the recognition of corporate ethical value among employees caused positive relationships between particular moral beliefs, moral intensity, and contemplated behavior. The logic behind focusing on ethical values as a means to impact employee ethical behavior is that individuals can be expected to act in a manner consistent with the values in the organization (Hunt et al., 1989). Prior studies have revealed the effects of ethical context on such constructs as organizational trust, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Schwepker, 2001).

While an organization consists of many climates (Schneider, 1975), the organization's EWC is important because it influences the ethical behavior of employees (DeConinck, 2011; Wimbush & Shepard, 1994). The most widely adopted definition was proposed by Schneider (1975), who regarded "organiz-

ational climate as the mutually agreed and psychologically meaningful moral description of the actual practice and process of the system" (p. 451). This implies that an EWC is associated with the perceptions of right and wrong present in an organization's work environment (Lopez et al., 2009). Victor and Cullen (1987) described that the EWC is a shared cognition of what an ethical behavior is and how to deal with ethical issues within the organization. Moreover, the research of Cullen, Victor, and Stephens (1989) claimed that an EWC helps the members to decide what is ethical when practicing various work practices and procedures that require an ethical standard. Therefore, examinations have concluded that the EWC within an organization influences the moral behaviors of the organizational members (Cohen, 1995; DeConinck, 2011; Schneider, 1975; Victor & Cullen, 1987, 1988).

While the previously mentioned research establishes the framework for the implications of an EWC, the use of a unidimensional scale to measure an EWC is a concern for some researchers. As such, Babin, Boles, and Robin (2000) showed that an EWC is a multidimensional construct consisting of four factors: responsibility/trust, peer behavior, ethical norms, and selling practices. They proposed that an EWC allowed for a better understanding of how workplace perceptions related to ethics contribute to organizational phenomena such as role stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Later, Lopez et al. (2009) further showed that an EWC is a multidimensional construct and that its dimensions (e.g. responsibility, peer behavior, and sales orientation) impact the extent on which employees feel that they fit in an organization. Therefore, the organizational ethical climate is not only the official rule and control system of the organization, but is an important variable

that results in ethical behavior when it is linked to the personal ethical direction and accomplishment of the individual members.

Therefore, the present study adopts an EWC based on the prior work of Babin et al. (2000) and Lopez et al. (2009), and presents it in three dimensions: responsibility, unethical peer behavior, and sales orientation. In the study, responsibility represents how the employees are treated within the organization, while unethical peer behavior relates to whether fellow workers' behavior is right or wrong. Finally, sales orientation represents the level of pressure toward the employees in regard to high expectations of sales by the organization. When the ethical value of a food-service franchise is well established, responsible behaviors increase while unethical peer behaviors and sales-oriented behaviors decrease. Specifically, we propose that franchise enterprises can best assure that their employees approach ethical situations in ways the firm desires by intentionally establishing a strong organizational ethical climate.

Therefore, these hypotheses are constructed based on prior research.

H1-1: Ethical value has a positive influence on responsibility.

H1-2: Ethical value has a negative influence on unethical peer behavior.

H1-3: Ethical value has a negative influence on sales orientation.

EWC and Organizational Trust

Organizational trust involves employees' willingness to be vulnerable to their organization's actions or policies (Lin, 2010; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). This willingness can be rendered only when an organization clearly communicates its actions and policies with its employees through formal and informal channels (Lin, 2010; Tan & Lim, 2009). An organizational ability to develop and nurture a long-term trusting relationship with employees is considered as a critical skill for the success of the organization (Lin, 2010). Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) defines organizational trust as (1) one's general perception that is formulated by employees relating to the organizational contribution to the employees; and (2) behavior toward the organization in which one's psychological state is willing to accept the public policy of the organization. However, perhaps the most common definition of trust within the organizational literature comes from Rotter (1967), who states that trust is "expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). In other words, superiors must follow through and keep their word in order to be perceived as trustworthy. Thus, trust is grounded on prior relational experience or at least the belief that the individual being trusted will continue to act in a positive way. Therefore, organizational trust not only plays the role of lubricant that allows the efficiency of the operation (Fukuyama, 1999), but also promotes successful achievement in work practices and is the motivating factor that unites the members as one organization.

Previous studies have shown that EWCs impact organizational trust in various contexts. According to Hosmer (1994), an EWC is a perceived psychological environment commonly shared by the members of the organization that gradually develops and forms trust and brings commitment in the organization. Strutton, Toma, and Pelton (1993) discovered that supervisors might produce perceptions of

trust by constructing an EWC. Furthermore, Bews and Rossouw (2002) asserted that unethical behaviors form distrust, and trust may be abused to create unethical behavior. The most recent study from Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2006) indicates that trust in a supervisor is a critical element in the process through which an EWC leads to higher job satisfaction, greater organizational commitment, and lower turnover intentions. Therefore, since ethical climate relates to the existence of organizational guidelines that dictate employ behaviors, it can enhance foodservice franchise enterprises employees' confidence that his or her supervisor can be trusted and will behave ethically. However, these studies have not analyzed the relationship using the EWC scale developed by Babin et al. (2000) and Lopez et al. (2009). Hence, in order to develop our hypotheses, three dimensions of EWC were used. The following hypotheses are proposed to be tested:

H2-1: Responsibility has a positive influence on organizational trust.
H2-2: Unethical peer behavior has a negative influence on organizational trust.
H2-3: Sales orientation has a negative influence on organizational trust.

Organizational Trust and Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as an employees' identification with the firm and its goals (Mulki et al., 2006). Organizational commitment not only significantly influences outcome variables such as absence, turnover, and performance, but it is also useful in predicting these outcome variables. Organizational commitment is one of the most important indicators of organizational performance (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Chen & Indartono, 2011; Cho & Park, 2011; Song, Kim, & Kolb, 2009). Taylor, Audia, and Gupta (1996) divided some attributes of organizational commitment into affective and continuance commitment. The former utilizes a psychological perspective and defines organizational commitment as a gradual process of unifying the goal of both organizations and individuals. The latter utilizes an exchanging perspective that views organizational commitment as a calculated behavior that postulates that the degree of individual commitment toward the organization is decided by the degree of possible reward from the organization and the degree of an employee's efforts invested in the organization. This in in line with the findings of Allen and Meyer (1990), who claimed that affective intent is centered around the process of recognizing the relationship between the individual and the organization and continuance commitment is centered around the process of treating the relationship between the individual and the organization. Finally, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) found that continuance commitment is positively correlated with normative commitment, which reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organization. Conversely, in their empirical research, they concluded that there was a negative relationship between continuance and affective commitment. Therefore, the current study employs both affective and continuance commitment as organizational commitment.

According to social exchange theory, trust is the most important factor in deciding the attitude toward an individual or an organization (Moorman, Blackely, & Niehoff, 1998). Various studies confirm that organizational trust influences organizational commitment (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Chen &

Indartono, 2011; Song et al., 2009). Scholars (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; N'Goala, 2007; Powell, Calvin, & Piccoli, 2006) indicate that organizational trust has a direct and positive effect on employees' affective and continuance commitment. Cho and Park (2011) treated trust and organizational commitment as social capitals, and found that organizational commitment appears differently based on the characteristic of trust produced by the organization. This research also revealed that institutional trust has an important influence on organizational commitment and trust in the management has a bigger impact on organizational commitment than trust in peers. Higher organizational trust not only increases organizational commitment, but also increases organizational efficiency and job satisfaction (Alizadeh et al., 2012). According to research about organizational trust and organizational commitment in a dynamic point of view, the level of employees' trust in an organization is positively related to their organizational commitment (Chen & Indartono, 2011). Tellefsen and Thomas (2005) also revealed that the organizational trust of members has a positive influence on organizational commitment.

Unlike previous research, some studies have investigated the mediating role of trust between ethical climate and organizational commitment. For example, Mulki et al. (2006) explained that an EWC affects organizational commitment directly and indirectly by influencing trust in one's supervisor. In addition, Babin et al. (2000) suggested that supervisors and employees who promote an environment of trust and responsibility also increase commitment. Furthermore, DeConinck (2011) expanded our understanding of an EWC and its relationship to salesperson behavior and showed that an EWC leads to trust in sales managers, which in turn indirectly

influences salespersons' organizational commitment. Consequently, organizational trust increases both affective commitment, which reveals the emotional attitude of the employee, and continuance commitment, which allows the desire for continuous service by the employee. Also, the presence of an EWC has full and/or partial effects on organizational commitment through organizational trust. Regardless of the increasing number of studies investigating the link between trust and commitment, limited research has been conducted on how organizational trust influences organizational commitment in a food-service organization. This relationship, then, attempts to fill the void by examining the impact of food-service employees' trust on affective and continuance commitment, as well as turnover intention. As such, these arguments led to the establishment of the following hypotheses:

H3-1: Organizational trust has a positive influence on affective commitment.
H3-2: Organizational trust has a positive influence on continuance commitment.
H3-3: Organizational trust has a negative influence on turnover intentions.

Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention

Employee turnover has long plagued the hospitality industry (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). When employees leave an organization, either voluntarily or involuntarily, the impact can be substantial (Cho et al., 2009). Researchers have attempted to uncover key reasons why those in the hospitality industry leave their jobs and have offered recommendations to combat such turnover-related issues (Cho et al., 2009; Dermody et al.,

2004). However, the hospitality industry continues to hold one of the greatest turnover rates across its segments primarily due to low wages, erratic shift schedules, and social perception of entry-level jobs (Cho et al., 2009; Dermody et al., 2004). Despite the amount of research focused on turnover, the issue still continues to dominate as a major problem within the hospitality industry (Cho et al., 2009; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008).

Mobley (1977) defined turnover as the concept of voluntary movement of an individual from a place of employment by terminating the status as an organizational member that receives a financial compensation from that organization. Price (1977) also defined it as a degree of movement of the individual crossing the boundary of the status as a member of the social system. These studies show that an employee who is unsatisfied with his/her work seeks an alternative using the expected value of the current work, and leaves when the alternative is deemed better than the current state of work (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). Furthermore, it shows that voluntary turnover has a correlation with perceived desire and the ease of turnover (Carbery, Garavan, O'Brien, & McDonnell, 2003), where the ease of turnover represents job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and the desire of turnover represents perceived job alternatives and the real unemployment rate (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004).

Turnover intention is the antecedent variable to an actual turnover. An employee who is unsatisfied with his/her job chooses another job instead of the current one. In this process, the investigator (employee) compares the current job with others and decides whether to leave the company or not (Mobley, 1977). Although a possible alterna-

tive for an employee may not be a perfect fit, turnover intention is known as an important antecedent variable to an actual turnover (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Cho et al., 2009; Hellman, 1997; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992). In other words, although an employee might not leave his/her current job, turnover intention with the employee can still lead to potential costs and complications, like decreased productivity or dishonest behaviors. Therefore, Hellman (1997) suggested using turnover intention as a variable for empirical research rather than actual turnover or actual behavior of staying. In addition, Steel and Ovalle (1984) proved that there is a strong relationship between turnover intention and actual turnover.

Research on employee turnover intention has shown that a number of individual, organizational, and economic variables may influence an individual's decision to leave an organization (Cho et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2004; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Most of the previous empirical work has examined individual factors that correlate with turnover intention, notably job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceptions regarding the availability of employment options (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Surprisingly, few organizational commitment-on-turnover studies have been conducted in the hospitality industry. Organizational commitment has been long considered as a variable that determines employee turnover (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005) and business performance (Lee, Kim, Son, & Lee, 2011). Prior research has further revealed that organizational commitment is a variable of work attitude that has a direct effect on turnover intention (Chang, Chi, & Miao, 2007; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Locander, 2006; Schwepker, 2001). The current study takes a specific

view by examining affective and continuance commitment associated with food-service franchise enterprise that may be associated with employee turnover intention. Drawing from these findings, the fourth group of hypotheses of this study is proposed as follows:

H4-1: Affective commitment has a positive influence on turnover intention.
H4-2: Continuance commitment has a positive influence on turnover intention.

Methodology

Sample and Data Collection

Food-service franchise companies were selected as the setting for data collection because the most recent data released by Fair Trade Commission (2011) showed that majority of the franchise industry was food-service (66.4%), followed by service (20.3%), and wholesales/retailing (13.2%). Food-service firms also provide a viable sampling frame for our study due to the fact that data can be collected across multiple locations in the same industry. This helps to ensure variation in responses while controlling for any biasing effects due to industry differences. Moreover, food-service firms fit the criterion of multiple direct contacts with varying levels of work climate where managers work closely with employees, employees work closely with each other, and employees have ample opportunity to interact with customers. This setting should be ideal for examining the effects of an EWC on outcome variables.

These data were collected from employees in food-service franchise companies listed on the 2009 Korean Franchise General Control,

located in Seoul, Korea. Owners or chief operators of the franchised food-service firms were contacted for their participation in the study. Representatives of participating firms received an explanation of the content of the questionnaire and were asked to distribute the questionnaire to their employees. Data collection was carried out in the months of April and May of 2009. In order to increase the response rate, all participants who completed the survey were offered a small gift. A total of 363 questionnaires were distributed and 294 completed questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 81%. Due to missing information, 18 respondent questionnaires were excluded from the final analysis, resulting in the final sample size of 276.

A translation, the back translation method, was used to convert the questionnaire to Korean. Three bilingual Korean graduate students as well as a bilingual professor from the USA repeated three rounds of back-and-forth translation between the languages with the third version, in Korean, being compared to the original English version. The survey instrument was adopted after the three scholars were satisfied with the Korean translation.

Respondents' (n = 276) demographic characteristics were as follows (see Table 1). There were more males (78.6%) than females (18.1%) in the respondent group, and 3.3% represented those whose information was missing. Half of the respondents (50.0%) were in the age group of 31–40, followed by those below 31 years (37.7%), above 40 years (7.6%), and those with missing information (4.7%). For the education level, more than half of the respondents (51.4%) completed university education, while those with a two-year college education and with high school or less represented 31.2% and 14.1%, respectively. A majority of the respondents

Table 1   Respondent's Profile ($n = 276$)

Demographic variables	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	217	78.6
Female	50	18.1
Missing	9	3.3
Age		
Below 25	9	3.3
26–30	95	34.4
31–35	84	30.4
36–40	54	19.6
41–45	15	5.4
Over 46	6	2.2
Missing	13	4.7
Educational level		
High school	39	14.1
Two-year college	86	31.2
Completed university	142	51.4
Missing	9	3.3
Position		
Staff	73	26.4
Deputy	47	17.0
Director	65	23.6
Department manager	66	23.9
(Deputy) head of department	20	7.2
Missing	5	1.8
Duration of work (*year*)		
Under 1	75	27.2
1–under 2	62	22.5
2–under 3	38	13.8
2–under 3	38	13.8
3–under 5	13	4.7
Over 5	56	20.3
Missing	32	11.6

(49.7%) had worked at the current work place for less than two years, which is not uncommon in the Korean food-service industry. About 20.3% of the respondents had worked at the current workplace for more than 5 years and 18.5% of the respondents had worked between 2 and 5 years. Respondents with missing information on

length of the service at the current workplace represented 11.6% of the sample. The job positions of the respondents included staff (26.4%), deputy (17.0%), director (23.6%), department manager (23.9%), and others (7.2%).

Measures

Ethical values were measured using five items adopted from Baker, Hunt, and Andrews (2006) study. Cronbach's alpha was 0.90. EWC was measured using nine items adopted from the studies of Lopez et al. (2009). EWC consists of three dimensions such as responsibility (four items), peer behavior (three items), and sales orientation (two items). Cronbach's alphas were 0.92, 0.87, and 0.82, respectively. The five items used to measure organizational trust were modified from the studies of Crosby, Evans, and Cowles (1990) and Garbarino and Johnson (1999). Cronbach's alpha was 0.92. The measures of organizational commitment were concerned with two aspects of commitment: affective and continuance. The items were adopted from the study of Allen and Meyer (1990). Affective commitment measures addressed the emotional bond with the organization and included items such as "I feel like part of the family at this company" and "The company has a great deal of personal meaning for me." On the other hand, continuance commitment items were related to commitment based on switching costs or constraints. For example, the statement "It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to" was included to measure continuance commitment. Cronbach's alphas were 0.93 and 0.80, respectively. Turnover intention was measured using two items that Babin and

Boles (1996) used to calculate quitting intention. Cronbach's alpha was 0.82. Accordingly, all coefficients exceeding 0.70 are considered acceptable (Nunnally, 1978).

Pretesting of the questionnaire was performed on several employees of food-service franchised enterprises to improve the questionnaire design by identifying and fixing any problems associated with wording, phrases, flow of the questionnaire, and interpretation of the questions.

Results

Assessment of the Measurement Model

Validity of the measures and overall measurement quality were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis. Several items that performed poorly were removed for purification of the measures (see Table 2). The confirmatory factor analysis result shows evidence of desirable measurement properties; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.99, normed fit index (NFI) = 0.98, parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) = 0.78, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.064, and $\chi^2 = 445.35$ (df = 202, $p < 0.001$). In order to check for further evidence of discriminant validity, the proportion of variance extracted in each construct was compared to the square of the coefficients representing its correlation with other factors. The variance extracted in each measure exceeded the respective correlation estimate between constructs, suggesting evidence of discriminant validity. Table 3 shows means, standard deviations, and correlations between the constructs.

After the purification process, all standardized factor loadings exceeded 0.7 ($p < 0.001$), suggesting evidence of convergent validity. Discriminant validity was tested by

Constructs and items	Standardized factor loadings (*t*-value)	CCR[b]	AVE[c]
Ethical values		0.90	0.74
Managers in my company often engage in behaviors that I consider to be unethical	0.88 (18.78)		
In order to succeed in my company, it is often necessary to compromise one's ethics	0.85 (17.65)		
Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated	0.86 (18.10)		
If a manager in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in personal gain (rather than corporate gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded	–		
If a manager in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results primarily in corporate gain (rather than personal gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded	–		
EWC			
Responsibility		0.91	0.76
All employees here are held accountable for their actions	0.88 (19.16)		
Employees here act first to further the customers' interests	0.90 (19.80)		
All people always get treated justly here	0.83 (17.11)		
(R) Supervisors here are truly committed to high moral standards in their treatment	–		
Peer behavior		0.86	0.75
(R) Generally, employees here simply act to protect their own self-interests[c]	0.85 (17.91)		
(R) Employees do things here to first protect him/herself from criticism	0.88 (18.88)		
(R) Employees here sometimes take revenge out on customers	–		
Sales orientation		0.82	0.70
(R) Customers here are sometimes encouraged to buy something that does not best fit their needs.	0.84 (17.22)		

(*Continued*)

Table 2   Continued

Constructs and items	Standardized factor loadings (*t*-value)	CCR[b]	AVE[c]
(R) Employees here are required to be very aggressive in making suggested sales or selling add-ons	0.83 (16.83)		
Organizational trust		0.91	0.66
Our company tries to meet my expectations	0.88 (18.81)		
Our company is committed to proper management practices	0.87 (18.48)		
Our company is committed to understand employees[d]	0.82 (17.05)		
Our company has an overall responsibility	0.82 (17.03)		
I trust our company	–		
Affective commitment		0.93	0.72
I feel like "part of the family" at this company	0.85 (17.88)		
I feel "emotionally attached" to this company	0.90 (19.70)		
This company has a great deal of personal meaning for me	0.90 (19.62)		
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this company	0.88 (19.19)		
Continuance commitment		0.85	0.65
It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to	0.81 (16.46)		
Right now, staying with this company is a matter of necessary as much as desire[d]	0.78 (15.54)		
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company[d]	0.83 (17.08)		
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives[d]	–		
Turnover intentions		0.84	0.72
I am going to quit this job in the next three months	0.73 (13.76)		
I am going to quit this job sometime in the next year	0.95 (19.26)		

[a]$\chi^2 = 445.35$(df = 202, χ^2/df = 2.20, *p*-value = 0.000), CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.98, PNFI = 0.78, RMSEA = 0.064.
[b]Average Variance Extracted.
[c]Composite Construct Reliability.
[d]Items were deleted during confirmatory factor analysis.
R: reverse item (scores are reversed so that a higher score indicates a more EWC).

Table 3 Construct Intercorrelations, Mean, and Standard Deviation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Mean	SD
1. Ethical values	1								5.35	1.12
2. Responsibility	0.68***	1							5.05	1.25
3. Peer behavior	−0.74***	−0.80***	1						3.08	1.28
4. Sales orientation	−0.72***	−0.72***	0.75***	1					2.79	1.17
5. Organizational trust	0.66***	0.74***	−0.75***	−0.69***	1				4.85	1.30
6. Affective commitment	0.63***	0.63***	−0.62***	−0.63***	0.70***	1			5.30	1.14
7. Continuance commitment	0.56***	0.63***	−0.61***	−0.61***	0.71***	0.80***	1		5.13	1.21
8. Turnover intentions	−0.54***	−0.54***	0.52***	0.54***	−0.60***	−0.61***	−0.64***	1	2.47	1.39

***$p < 0.01$.

comparing the shared variance among indicators of a construct (average variance extracted (AVE)) with the variance shared between constructs. When the proportion of variance extracted in each construct exceeds its squared correlations with other constructs, there is evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The test result shows that AVE for each construct was greater than the squared correlation with other constructs, supporting evidence of discriminant validity. Table 2 shows the results, which demonstrate evidence of reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the measures. Because many of the constructs were highly correlated (refer to Table 3), another analysis was conducted to further support evidence of discriminant validity of the measures. The confirmatory factor analysis was performed on each pair of primary measures to examine whether the model constraining the measures to be the same is significantly different from the unconstrained model. If the chi-square differences are significant, evidence of discriminant validity is indicated (Rust, Moorman, & Dickson, 2002). Table 4 shows the results which demonstrate evidence of discriminant validity among the constructs.

To test for common method bias, we employed Harman's one-factor test (Bauer, Falk, & Hammerschmidt, 2006). This test was done by comparing the fit of the proposed model (i.e. multidimensional model) against the fit of a one-factor model. If the fit of the single-factor model is better than the proposed model (multidimensional model), which means one latent factor accounting for all variables, it suggests evidence of a common method bias (Lee, Jeong, & Choi, 2014; Lee, Kim, Lee, & Li, 2012; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The one-factor model yielded a $\chi^2 = 2,245.85$ with df = 230 (compared with

Table 4   Chi-square Difference Test for Discriminant Validity of the Measures

	Unconstrained		Constrained		Difference	
	χ^2	df	χ^2	df	$\triangle$	Sig
Ethical values vs. responsibility	19.19	8	280.45	9	261.26	0.000
Ethical values vs. peer behaviors	6.19	4	63.69	5	57.50	0.000
Ethical values vs. sales orientation	8.44	4	54.37	5	45.93	0.000
Ethical values vs. organizational trust	25.16	8	209.89	9	184.73	0.000
Ethical values vs. affective commitment	37.97	13	343.61	14	305.64	0.000
Ethical values vs. continuance commitment	8.51	8	241.03	9	232.52	0.000
Ethical values vs. turnover intention	6.07	4	104.45	5	98.38	0.000
Responsibility vs. peer behavior	17.87	4	48.53	5	30.66	0.000
Responsibility vs. sales orientation	3.04	4	48.17	5	45.13	0.000
Responsibility vs. organizational trust	48.68	13	256.98	14	208.30	0.000
Responsibility vs. affective commitment	28.4	13	369.13	14	340.73	0.000
Responsibility vs. continuance commitment	14.1	8	202.37	9	188.27	0.000
Responsibility vs. turnover intention	1.78	4	100.71	5	98.93	0.000
Peer behavior vs. sales orientation	3.27	1	25.86	2	22.59	0.000
Peer behavior vs. organizational trust	21.69	8	83.41	9	61.72	0.000
Peer behavior vs. affective commitment	21.48	8	129.15	9	107.67	0.000
Peer behavior vs. continuance commitment	4.12	4	113.11	5	108.99	0.000
Peer behavior vs. turnover intention	2.03	1	103.24	2	101.21	0.000
Sales orientation vs. organizational trust	22.12	8	77.07	9	54.95	0.000
Sales orientation vs. affective commitment	34.14	8	108.81	9	74.67	0.000
Sales orientation vs. continuance commitment	9.2	4	84.36	5	75.16	0.000
Sales orientation vs. turnover intention	0.02	1	100.27	2	100.25	0.000
Organizational trust vs. affective commitment	49.95	19	467.86	20	417.91	0.000
Organizational trust vs. continuance commitment	23.83	13	144.91	14	121.08	0.000*
Organizational trust vs. turnover intention	45.21	8	128.75	9	83.54	0.000*

Affective commitment vs. continuance commitment	45.21	13	91.44	14	46.23	0.000*
Affective commitment vs. turnover intention	23.66	8	110.09	9	86.43	0.000*
Continuance commitment vs. turnover intention	22.81	4	92.79	5	69.98	0.000*

*p < 0.01.

the $\chi^2 = 445.35$ and df $= 202$ for the eight-dimensional measurement model). The fit is considerably worse for the unidimensional model, suggesting that common method bias is not a serious threat to the study.

Structural Model

Path analysis was used to test the proposed relationships among all constructs with LISREL 8.7. Because of the large number of indicators included in this model and supportive measurement results, indicators of each construct were aggregated. Table 5 and Figure 1 show standardized parameter estimates and overall path model fit. The multiple model fit indicators produce the following statistics: goodness-of-fit index (GFI) $= 0.96$, adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) $= 0.88$, NFI $= 0.99$, RMSEA $= 0.10$, CFI $= 0.99$, and $\chi^2 = 54.40$(df $= 13$, $p < 0.01$). Table 5 presents the maximum-likelihood estimates for the various overall fit parameters. The χ^2 statistic suggests that the data do not fit the model ($\chi^2 = 317.236$, df $= 161$, $p < 0.01$; χ^2/df $= 1.970$). However, because of the sensitivity to sample size, the χ^2 statistic is not always an appropriate measure of a model's goodness-of-fit (Gerbin & Andersen, 1985). Therefore, multiple fit indices assess the overall evaluation of fit (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The GFI is 0.938; the NFI is 0.953. RMSEA, CFI, and PNFI are 0.047, 0.976, and 0.731, respectively. These multiple indicators suggest that the model has good fit, justifying further interpretation. Table 5 presents the standardized parameter estimates. The squared multiple correlation (SMC; R^2) for the structural equations for responsibility, peer's unethical behavior, sales orientation, organizational trust, affective commitment, continuance commit-

<div align="center">

Table 5   Standardized Parameter Estimates[a]

</div>

Hypotheses		Path	Standardized estimates (*t*-value)	
			Proposed model[a]	Alternative model[b]
H1	H1-1	Ethical values → responsibility	0.68 (15.83)***	0.68 (15.83)***
	H1-2	Ethical values → peer's unethical behavior	−0.79 (−22.35)***	−0.79 (−22.35)***
	H1-3	Ethical values → sales orientation	−0.72 (−17.75)***	−0.72 (−17.75)***
H2	H2-1	Responsibility → organizational trust	0.38 (6.27)***	0.38 (6.27)***
	H2-2	Peer's unethical behavior → organizational trust	−0.25 (−3.53)***	−0.25 (−3.53)***
	H2-3	Sales orientation → organizational trust	−0.21 (−3.45)***	−0.21 (−3.45)***
H3	H3-1	Organizational trust → affective commitment	0.70 (16.90)***	0.42 (6.74)***
	H3-2	Organizational trust → continuance commitment	0.71 (17.15)***	0.46 (7.28)***
	H3-3	Organizational trust → turnover intentions	−0.25 (−3.91)***	−0.25 (−3.91)***
H4	H4-1	Affective commitment → turnover intentions	−0.16 (−2.15)**	−0.16 (−2.15)**
	H4-2	Continuance commitment → turnover intentions	−0.34 (−4.48)***	−0.34 (−4.48)***
Direct effects of EWC				
Responsibility → Affective commitment				0.12 (1.74)*
Responsibility → continuance commitment				0.16 (2.20)*
Peer's unethical behavior → Affective commitment				−0.08 (−0.97)
Peer's unethical behavior → Continuance commitment				−0.04 (−0.55)
Sales orientation → Affective commitment				−0.19 (−2.76)**
Sales orientation → Continuance commitment				−0.14 (−2.07)*
SMC (R^2)				
Responsibility			0.46 (46%)	0.46 (46%)
Peer's unethical behavior			0.63 (63%)	0.63 (63%)
Sales orientation			0.52 (52%)	0.52 (52%)

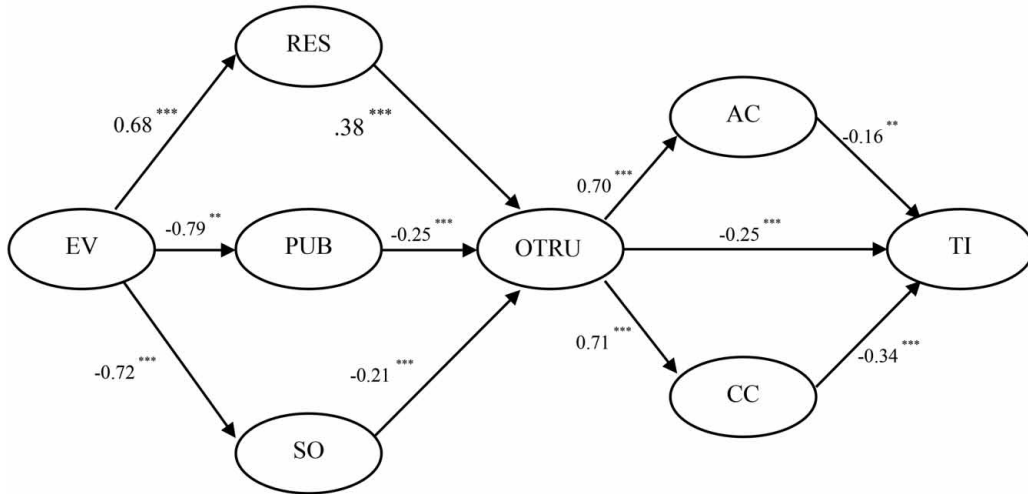|		
Organizational trust	0.61 (61%)	0.61 (61%)
Affective commitment	0.49 (49%)	0.54 (54%)
Continuance commitment	0.50 (50%)	0.54 (54%)
Turnover intentions	0.47 (47%)	0.47 (47%)
Goodness-of-fit		
χ^2	54.40	23.90
df	13	7
p	0.00	0.00

[a] $\chi^2 = 54.40$ (df = 13), $p = 0.000$, GFI = 0.96, AGFI = 0.88, NFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.10.
[b] $\chi^2 = 23.90$ (df = 7), $p = 0.000$, GFI = 0.98, AGFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.090, RMR = 0.048.
*$p < 0.10$.
**$p < 0.05$.
***$p < 0.01$.

Figure 1[a]   Overall model. EV, ethical value; Res, responsibility; PUB, peer's unethical behavior; SO, sales orientation, OTRU, organizational trust; AC, affective commitment; CC, continuance commitment; TI, turnover intention. [a]$\chi^2 = 54.40$ (df = 13), $p = 0.000$, GFI = 0.96, AGFI = 0.88, NFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.10. *$p < 0.10$, **$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.01$.

ment, and turnover intentions are 0.46, 0.63, 0.52, 0.61, 0.49, 0.50, and 0.47, respectively.

Testing Hypotheses

Ethical value and EWC: The set of hypotheses (H1-1−H1-3) address that ethical value influences EWC such as responsibility, unethical peer behavior, and sales orientation. The ethical value (H1-1) has a positive effect on responsibility (coefficient = 0.68, t-value = 15.83), statistically significant at the $p <$ 0.01 level, thus supporting H1-1. As expected, ethical value has a negative effect on peer's unethical behaviors (coefficient = −0.79, t-value = −22.35), and sales orientation (coefficient = −0.72, t-value = −17.75), thus supporting H1-2 and H1-3.

EWC and organizational trust: H2-1−H2-3 state that EWC is associated with organizational trust. Responsibility of EWC has a significant positive effect on organizational

trust (coefficient = 0.38, t-value = 6.27, $p < 0.01$), thus supporting H2-1. On the other hand, peer's unethical behaviors (coefficient = −0.25, t-value = −3.53, $p < 0.01$) and sales orientation (coefficient = −0.21, t-value = −3.45, $p < 0.01$) have a significant negative effect on organizational trust, respectively, thus supporting H2-2 and H2-3.

Organizational trust, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions: H3-1−H3-3 posit that organizational trust is associated with organizational commitment (affective and continuance commitment) and turnover intentions. Organizational trust has a significant positive effect on affective commitment (coefficient = 0.70, t-value = 16.90, $p <$ 0.01) and continuance commitment (coefficient = 0.71, t-value = 17.15, $p < 0.01$), thus supporting H3-1 and H3-2. On the other hand, organizational trust have a significant negative effect on turnover intentions

(coefficient $= -0.25$, *t*-value $= -3.91$, $p < 0.01$), respectively, thus supporting H3-3.

H4-1 and H4-2 state that affective and continuance commitment are associated with turnover intentions. The affective commitment (coefficient $= -0.16$, *t*-value $= -2.15$, $p < 0.05$) and continuance commitment (coefficient $= -0.34$, *t*-value $= -4.48$, $p < 0.01$) for an organization have a significant negative effect on turnover intentions, thus, H4-1 and H4-2 are supported.

Indirect effects: Additional analyses of indirect effects were conducted to investigate whether ethical values have an effect on turnover intentions through the mediating roles of an EWC, organizational trust, and organizational commitment.

Ethical values have an indirect, positive effect on organizational trust (coefficient $= 0.61$, *t*-value $= 15.03$, $p < 0.01$), affective commitment (coefficient $= 0.43$, *t*-value $= 11.23$, $p < 0.01$), continuance commitment (coefficient $= 0.43$, *t*-value $= 11.31$, $p < 0.01$), and an indirect, negative effect on turnover intentions (coefficient $= -0.37$, *t*-value $= -9.80$, $p < 0.01$), respectively. The empirical results demonstrate that among EWC, responsibility has an indirect, positive effect on affective commitment (coefficient $= 0.27$, *t*-value $= 5.88$, $p < 0.01$), continuance commitment (coefficient $= 0.27$, *t*-value $= 5.89$, $p < 0.01$), and an indirect, negative effect on turnover intentions (coefficient $= -0.23$, *t*-value $= -5.64$, $p < 0.01$), respectively. Meanwhile, unethical behavior of peers has an indirect, negative effect on affective commitment (coefficient $= -0.18$, *t*-value $= 3.46$, $p < 0.01$), continuance commitment (coefficient $= -0.18$, *t*-value $= 3.46$, $p < 0.01$), and an indirect, positive effect on turnover intentions (coefficient $= 0.15$, *t*-value $= 3.41$, $p < 0.01$), respectively. Finally, sales orientation has an indirect, negative effect on

affective commitment (coefficient $= -0.15$, *t*-value $= -3.38$, $p < 0.01$), continuance commitment (coefficient $= 0.15$, *t*-value $= -3.39$, $p < 0.01$), and an indirect, positive effect on turnover intentions (coefficient $= 0.13$, *t*-value $= 3.34$, $p < 0.01$), respectively.

Alternative Model Testing

In addition to the hypothesized model illustrated in Figure 1, an alternative model was tested (see Figure 2). The model comparison should focus on assessing model fit and compare the fit of competing and theoretically plausible models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). An examination of the modification indices reveals that adding six paths to the model (responsibility → affective/continuance commitment; peer's unethical behavior → affective/continuance commitment; sales orientation → affective/continuance commitment) would greatly improve model fit. These paths were added, since previous research suggested that elements of an EWC are significantly related to organizational commitment (Schwepker, 2001). Model modification is appropriate in exploratory research if it is not used as a substitute for a priori hypothesis development (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Estimating modified, alternative model produces the following statistics: GFI $= 0.98$, AGFI $= 0.90$, NFI $= 0.99$, RMSEA $= 0.090$, CFI $= 0.99$, root mean square residual (RMR) $= 0.048$ and $\chi^2 = 23.90$(df $= 7$, $p < 0.01$). The hypothesized model and the newly modified model are nested within one another; the hypothesized model is a subset of this modified model. Therefore, a chi-square difference test was performed to see if the addition of this path significantly improves the model. A comparison of the chi-square statistics from both models
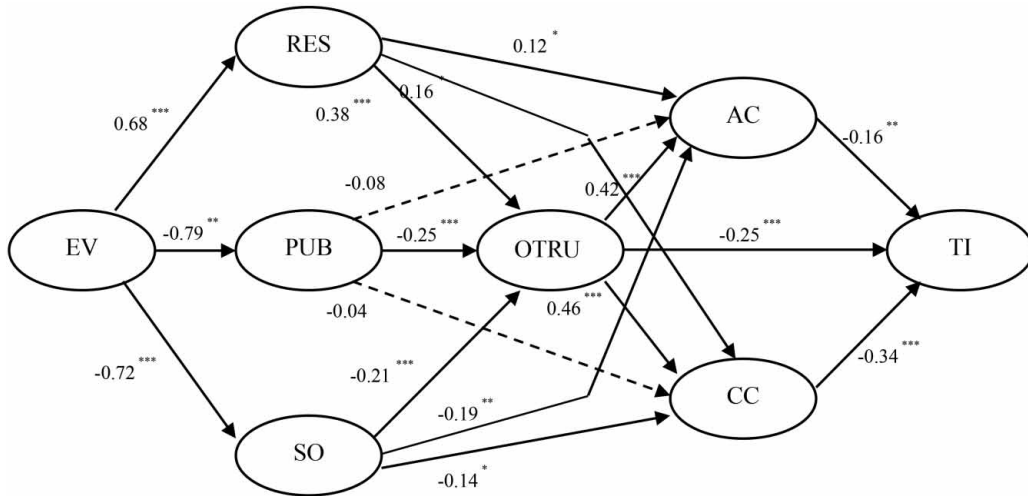
Figure 2[a]   Alternative model. EV, ethical value; Res, responsibility; PUB, peer's unethical behavior; SO, sales orientation, OTRU, organizational trust; AC, affective commitment; CC, continuance commitment; TI, turnover intention. Solid line, significant path; dotted line, not significant path. [a]$\chi^2 = 23.90$ (df $= 7$), $p = 0.000$, GFI $= 0.98$, AGFI $= 0.90$, NFI $= 0.99$, CFI $= 0.99$, RMSEA $= 0.090$. *$p < 0.10$, **$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.01$.

indicates that the alternative model fits somewhat better and is more parsimonious than that of the proposed model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 30.50$, Δdf $= 6$, $p < 0.01$). This finding indicated that adding paths improved its fit, though both models met the fit criteria. Consequently, incorporating the direct effects of the three dimensions of EWC on organizational commitment increased the explanatory power of the model.

Discussion and Theoretical Implications

Unethical behavior in any organization is a serious concern (Schwepker & Hartline, 2005). In many studies, researchers have consistently shown that a large percentage of employees feel pressure to behave unethically or have actually engaged in unethical activities to meet business objectives (Schwepker &

Hartline, 2005). As a result, many firms have taken steps to create a better EWC affecting the ethical behavior of employees. These initiatives are important given the need to practice ethical principles to develop long-term customer relationships and maximize organizational outcomes. Recognizing the increasing importance of ethical values for business success, this study examines how food-service franchised enterprise employees perceive an EWC in relation to organizational trust, commitment, and turnover intention.

One of the goals of this study is to explore the mediating relationship between ethical values and its consequences in a food-service franchise context. The results of our study provide useful insights for incorporating an EWC into the organizational success of food-service franchised firms. Although the significant influence of ethical values on its outcomes is not new and has been already confirmed in

previous research, no research has tried to explore the mediating effects of EWC between ethical values and its consequences. More specifically, this study shows that EWC dominates the mediating effects between these relationships. In this sense, the study herein helps to expand the boundaries of extant employee turnover research by considering uncommon impacts of EWC and by incorporating theories and constructs within employee turnover research. This connection, therefore, demonstrates a theoretical contribution to the body of knowledge and how ethical values are evolving as an appropriate field of study in the food-service franchise industry.

By validating hypotheses using primary data collected directly from food-service franchised enterprise employees, this research serves as a complement to prior studies that have employed primary data from customer-contact employees for proving similar hypotheses. Our findings confirm that employees' EWC that mediates between ethical values and its outcomes is not arbitrary, but rather is based on key attributes of the employees. These attributes include responsibility, unethical peer behaviors, and selling orientation. While previous research considers EWC as one construct that contains three dimensions – including responsibility, unethical peer behaviors, and selling orientation – this study suggests that these three dimensions should be examined, respectively, in future employee research due to their substantial differences in influencing outcomes.

Although not hypothesized, we found evidence that dimensions of an EWC are significantly associated with organizational commitment as well. These relationships have additional beneficial effects that are consistent with Schwepker (2001)'s findings. Previous research examined this relationship for man-

agers, researchers, purchasing executives, and hospital employees (Hunt et al., 1989; Sims & Kroeck, 1994), all who primarily work within the confines of the organization. Again, the current study extends previous research by suggesting that the boundaries spanning food-service franchise employees' commitment to the organization are likewise influenced by the organization's perceived ethical climate.

In addition, organizational trust has a significant influence on affective commitment, continuance commitment, and turnover intention statistically. This means that trust between the food-service franchise firm and the employees must be the groundwork of business in order for the operations to run smoothly. In such a case, the need for the introduction of a system that can induce commitment in employees becomes apparent. The institutional and educational mechanism should recognize the ability and talents of the employees and educate both the organization and the employee to understand that they exist for each other. It is desirable to utilize outside sources or consultants for such education and construction of mechanism and the food-service franchise must heavily invest in these ventures.

Finally, it shows that affective and continuance commitments have significant influence on turnover intention statistically. The possibility of employees remaining in the organization increases as they have high levels of affective and continuous commitment. When individuals are committed to the organization, they perceive that the organization is recognizing and valuing their efforts. This not only greatly influences the formation of a positive attitude but can be developed into a belief and conviction toward the organization. This desirable relationship results from the commitment between the organiz-

ation and the employees, and is consistent with the theory of psychological contracts based on non-monetary social exchange agreement (Rousseau, 1995). Ultimately, organizational trust and commitment do reduce the turnover intention of the employees of the organization.

Practical Implications

Regarding managerial implications, the most obvious is that food-service franchise firms may be able to positively influence the ethical behavior of their employees by providing a clear set of EWC and organizational trust, and also enforcing organizational commitment. Business practitioners, regardless of country, are more likely to believe that EWC and organizational trust and commitment issues are important to reduce turnover intention. Where turnover is a serious concern, actions should be taken to assess the working environment and determine its effect on employees. Such an assessment may identify turnover causes and prevent such action, thus increasing higher levels of employee retention and stability while lowering labor costs. In addition, program development may be necessary to address employee attitudes in order to create a more ethically sound work environment. This program can be done by various means including periodic ethical training for all employees, appointment of an ethics officer at the highest levels of the firm so that they can periodically ask their employees respond anonymously to a series of questions designed to measure their perceptions of EWC values in the organization and their levels of commitment. Survival in the food-service business is a difficult task. However, having knowledge of these factors that had been previously neglected or ignored can prove the difference between failure and success.

For the franchised industry in general and the food-service franchise enterprises in Korea specifically, the importance of employees in headquarters cannot be overstated. Because they span the boundary between the franchisors and franchisees, these employees are directly responsible for providing a successful business concept and the know-how to provide goods and services, and ultimately the overall performance of the firm. As boundary spanners, often working without close supervision in Korea, employees in food-service franchise enterprises have ample opportunity to engage in unethical behaviors. These employees typically face multiple, conflicting demands stemming from franchisees, the firm, and the job itself. This opportunity may lead to negative consequences for the firm because the behaviors of employees influence other employees' perceptions of behaviors. Therefore, to avoid negative consequences and create a more ethical climate, executives should take steps to encourage ethical behaviors by holding all employees accountable for their actions and treat employees fairly and encourage ethical sales practices, subordinates will internalize those values. Thus, an EWC has an important influence on employees' degree to which they identify with the organization, which directly affects their organizational trust, commitment and indirectly affects turnover intention.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite its contribution to the previous literature, several limitations of the study need to be addressed. First, although the three dimensions of an EWC (responsibility, unethical behavior in peers, sales orientation), organizational trust, organizational commitment (affective and continuance) and turnover intentions were

selected and measured as the endogenous variables, these are still limited in explaining and comprehensively conceptualizing the turnover intention of the food-service firm employees. Moreover, inclusion of the actual turnover rate would be better to understand the current model.

Second, the sample consists of employees at food-service firms in Seoul, Korea. Therefore, the generalizability of the results may be limited to the employees in those particular categories. In addition, the employees were selected based on their management's willingness to participate in this study. Therefore, management's encouragement to participate may have affected some responses. Also, the size of the firm and the different ranks of the employees were not included in the research design. Furthermore, high-ranked employees that take an active role in the management and administration were few in number among the respondents.

This study provides the opportunity for a number of possibilities for future research. First, the results of this study need to be replicated with other hospitality sectors (e.g. hotels, casinos) to confirm the results. Since this study was the first one to include the Lopez et al. (2009) dimensions of an EWC in the hospitality industry, future research needs to confirm these results. Are these results specific to food-service employees? Future research should ascertain an answer to this question. Second, cross-cultural studies investigating the relationships we examined would be useful. Are corporate EWC associated with organizational trust and commitment in other societies, such as those in Western culture and Eastern culture? Which specific EWC dimensions dominate in different cultures and what are their implications for Western marketers? The answers to these and other questions could prove to be invaluable in the continuous

quest for a sustained franchise business success in the international arena.

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