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Independent Restaurant Employee Job Satisfaction in College Towns

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INDEPENDENT RESTAURANT EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION IN COLLEGE
TOWNS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania

December 2010

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Title: Independent Restaurant Employee Job Satisfaction in College Towns

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Abstract

The current study begins to close a gap in the restaurant industry literature that fails to recognize the independently operated restaurants as a viable resource for industry data. The majority of employee job satisfaction literature in the restaurant industry gathers data from corporate run, chain restaurants. This study aims to bring the independent restaurants to the forefront of industry discussions in regards to employee job satisfaction of front-of-the house (FOH) employees in full-service, casual dining restaurants. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire's extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction scales were used as the primary evaluation tool in determining FOH job satisfaction levels. The data analysis resulted in the development of job satisfaction scales that could be used as unique job satisfaction indicators for future research in the restaurant industry.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The restaurant industry currently has an annual employee turnover rate of over 100 percent in the full-service sector. Employee turnover rates at this extremely high level cost restaurant companies billions of dollars each year in recruitment, selection, training and other labor costs. The restaurant literature is plentiful in prescribing ways to reduce employee turnover by increasing employee job satisfaction. But more needs to be done to understand specific work elements important to restaurant employees—particularly those elements that would lead to job satisfaction.

Corporate owned restaurants due to their availability of resources, larger organizational structures and numerous locations can cope with labor costs slightly easier than independent restaurants that are generally smaller in size. Corporations by their very nature have access to discounts when buying food and other products in bulk quantities, allowing for lower food costs that are passed on to the customers. The same can be true when looking at corporation's human resources. Corporate restaurant chains that employ a large number of employees both, front-of-the-house (FOH) and management, allow the company to purchase health benefits at a discounted, group rate. These discounted health care rates can then be passed on to the employees, a benefit that many independent restaurants cannot afford to offer even their full-time management employees. Corporations also have designated human resources departments that specifically deal with the hiring, firing, disciplinary and training programs for all of the company's employees. These specialized human resource departments are able to control the specific labor costs associated with hiring new employees and training programs through their

own budgets. The corporation designates how much money will be allotted to the human resource budgets, making sure not to negatively affect the company's profit margins. The human resource departments must decide how to reduce labor costs, which training programs to implement, what benefit packages to offer, and if wage increases can be given throughout the organization. In a corporation, many departments and levels of executive management are involved in the human resource processes, ensuring the best decisions are made for the bottom line of the company.

The same is not true for independently owned and operated restaurants, which have fewer resources. Small businesses have limited access to options such as greater health insurance discounts and extensive benefit packages to their employees compared to large corporate businesses. Independent restaurants also do not have designated human resource personnel or specific offices that specialize in employee issues. In the independent restaurant the human resource work is usually performed by the owner or a manager within the establishment, who already have several other responsibilities. Therefore, the "typical" work of a human resource department becomes less of a priority in the independently owned restaurants.

One major oversight is the training of new employees in independent restaurants. Typically a veteran employee is responsible for training the newest employees, creating a continual cycle of bad habits that may not be the best way to operate the business. Most owners use on-the-job-training because financially they cannot afford to have a veteran employee train newer employees thus sacrificing normal work duties. These types of training programs contribute to frustrations with new employees not receiving the best orientation, or the training, they need to perform their job well. Frustrations also occur

with the veteran employees because they are unable to completely perform their normal job tasks because of the additional job responsibilities with training the new employee. And in a restaurant where employees are earning tips, not being able to perform their job duties to their full potential, reduces their income.

In most independent restaurants, the owners and managers are unaware of how much their human resource tasks cost their companies. Many owners do what they need to do on a daily basis to keep their business running. With an employee turnover rate of over 100 percent in the restaurant industry, hiring and training new employees occurs quickly and frequently, with the least amount of money spent as possible. Little distinction is made to the amount of resources spent on processes such as recruitment, training programs, and other labor costs. With no formal human resource budget in place, trying to identify how much the organization is losing in labor costs can only be determined through annual employee turnover. Normally determined by the number of W-2 government forms filled out per year.

Research in the restaurant industry, dates as far back as World War II, focuses mainly on corporate run restaurants for information and data collection (Whyte, 1948). Reasons may be the absence of structured human resource processes in the independent restaurants and the limited number of workers in each restaurant to gather data from. These limitations result in a limited amount of literature focusing on the job satisfaction of workers in the independent sector. The result of this void in the literature is that employee satisfaction and turnover in the independent restaurant sector has not been thoroughly explored. We do not know how independent restaurants owners are able to keep their front-of-the-house (FOH) employees satisfied with their work, and remain in

their positions for long periods of time, because the independent sector is not adequately researched.

Background of the Problem

The service industry is a blend of organizations such as banking, retail, hospitality and tourism that deliver products and services that are unique in comparison to other industries. Each of these industries provides some type of product to their customers that are tangible, such as food in a restaurant, or a bed in a hotel. In a restaurant, several variables contribute to the overall enjoyment of the dining experience such as ambiance, food quality and presentation, and the overall cleanliness of the restaurant. Some may argue that food is the main product in the restaurant industry, however there is a reason restaurant jobs are classified as “service industry” jobs. The main, intangible product in a service organization is of course service, unlike products that are manufactured (tangibles) prior to a purchase, which a customer can see and test (Berger and Brownell, 2009). The intangible product of a service organization is produced and consumed simultaneously with no shelf life or inventory making the delivery of quality service to each customer one of the most important processes in the organization.

The delivery of quality customer service is the responsibility of the FOH employees in service organizations. The FOH employees are delivering the tangible products from the back-of-the-house (BOH) to the customers while simultaneously ensuring the intangible product of quality service is also being delivered. Therefore, the FOH employees become the essential tool in providing the products to the customers. There are other workers that help to create and build the tangible products of the service organizations, but they do not have the overall responsibility of ensuring the dining

satisfaction of the customers. It is the responsibility of the FOH employees to ensure the overall dining experience meets or exceeds satisfaction levels of the customers. The implication of intangibility in a restaurant, the actual delivery of services, differs widely and the measurement of success is subjectively judged by customers (Ingram and Jones, 1998).

The current study focuses on the non-supervisory, front-of-the-house (FOH) employees, due to their unique work environment, job structure, and their ability to generate a portion of their income through gratuities. The employees who work in the FOH of restaurants are called waitresses, waiters or the gender neutral title— servers. FOH workers also can include bartenders, busspersons, host or hostesses. In upscale restaurants sommeliers and maitre des are also part of the FOH staff. Due to their face-to-face constant interactions with the customers, these non management employees are responsible for ensuring customers are satisfied and will return as a result of their good service. In the restaurant industry, owners and managers rely on the service of the FOH employees for the businesses success.

In 2009, the restaurant industry is expected to exceed \$1.5 trillion in overall economic impact in the United States. Generating \$566 billion in sales in over 945,000 locations and employing thirteen million people, the restaurant industry is one of the largest private-sector employers in the United States. Ninety-one percent of the eating-and-drinking places in the United States are small businesses (National Restaurant Association, 2009). Every million dollars in restaurant sales generates an additional thirty-three jobs for the United States economy.

Nearly half of all Americans have worked in a restaurant at some point in their working careers, and almost one in three American adults obtained their first job in a chain or independent restaurant (National Restaurant Association, 2008). These statistics demonstrate the availability of jobs and the ease of learning a restaurant job, but also the ease for people to leave the industry. People Report (2007) reported the average annual hourly employee turnover rate for its member restaurant companies, consisting of all market segments across the restaurant industry, was more than 107 percent. At the current turnover rate restaurant companies are forced to replace 700,000 hourly employees within 12 months at an average cost of \$1.8 billion (People Report, 2006). Not only is employee turnover a costly event for a company in regards to replacing the employee, but the effects on service standards in the business are jeopardized.

As each new employee starts employment at a new restaurant, they must be trained to learn their new duties. If the company has a designated new employee orientation program it could take several days to go through the process, at an hourly costly minimum wage for that employee. If there is no formal orientation program, the new employee may be assigned to a trainer that walks them through an on-the-job training program. FOH positions in many restaurants are easily trained, depending on the service level of the restaurant. Using an on-the-job training program for the lower wage employees helps to decrease labor costs. However, if it is a formal orientation program or a series of informal training shifts, it takes several days to weeks for employees to learn the policies and procedures of a new company. Some of these training programs may be familiar to those restaurant workers who have transitioned between different restaurants, however, each company will have their own way of conducting business and has specific

requirements of their employees. During the time of learning the new job (the learning curve) many employees make errors such as placing the wrong food orders, dropping glasses, and in some cases offending customers. The combination of these errors in addition to the required hourly minimum wage paid by the employer, are all in addition to the costs accrued in recruiting and selecting the employee. Companies experiencing high turnover rates must constantly find ways to recruit new employees, to implement an effective process to select the best candidates, and to perform the necessary background checks to ensure the new employee meets the standards of the company adding to labor costs (Koys, 2001).

Labor Costs

In most foodservice businesses, the largest single item of cost is not food but wages. Controlling labor costs is as important as controlling the food and beverage costs of an establishment. Instead of controlling a supplier and the raw materials to make the food products, the employees need to be controlled to keep the labor costs low (Jones and Merricks, 2006). The two basic elements of labor costs which need to be controlled are the time taken (amount of time the employee worked) and the rate of pay. The amount each server receives hourly is much more than just the hourly rate of pay. Table 1 includes all the other costs that might go into a servers' rate and are mostly uncontrollable because they are mandated by law. Factors such as holiday and sick pay, and pension contributions are considerations for servers that have full-time status. Union obligations can also impact wages.

Table 1. *Factors Determining Total Rate of Pay for Servers*

Basic rate
Employers' National Insurance contributions
Overtime payment rate*
Shift allowances*
Public and annual holiday pay*
Sick pay scheme*
Employers' pension scheme contributions*
Costs of meal and commission or other bonuses

Jones and Merricks (2006)

*Note.** Paid benefits for full-time servers who qualify for benefits from their employer.

A server collects the highest hourly rate when they are in the training stages of starting a new position. Once a server is able to wait on tables by themselves, their tipped hourly rate (varies from state to state) becomes effective because they are collecting tips and making the majority of their wages in tips. Therefore, the only real way to control labor costs is to regulate the amount of hours a server works per week, and limiting the amount of time it takes for a server to be in a training program.

The tipped hourly rate for restaurant servers will depend on the state in which they are employed. Appendix A details the amount each tipped employee is required to receive by state. The basic combined cash and tip minimum wage rate is currently \$7.25 per hour, required by the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA). The minimum cash wage is the amount the employer is required to pay per hour for all tipped employees. The maximum tip credit against minimum wage is the amount the server must claim to the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) they made in tips per hour. This means that on average all tipped employees should be making at least the maximum tip credit amount per hour in gratuities which counts towards their overall income. For example, if a server is working in a Pennsylvania restaurant, when business is slow and the server has not

made the minimum amount of \$4.42 per hour in tips while working, the employer must pay the \$4.42 per hour (or the difference) to ensure the employee receives at least the Federal minimum wage rate (Appendix A).

Woods and Macauley (1989) point out in their study of turnover in the hospitality industry (specifically in hotels and restaurant chains), high turnover creates the potential for poor service and, in companies with over one hundred percent employee turnover, an average of 25 percent lower sales was realized compared to a more stable restaurant company. As previously stated, the majority of restaurants in the United States are small businesses. The constant burden of retraining staff can be a drain on resources for the small business owner giving way to substandard service practices. At a rate of over 100 percent employee turnover, customers are continuously being served by new employees.

New employees may have previous restaurant experience which qualified them for the position. However, each new employee will bring their old practices and work habits from their previous employers and unconsciously implement them into their new position until they are socialized and trained in the new organization. It is important to understand why employees are continuing to leave the restaurants in such large numbers. One contention is the level of job satisfaction is directly associated with turnover rates. Koys (2001) found in his longitudinal study of restaurant employees employed in a regional chain restaurant, low levels of employee job satisfaction increases employee turnover rates in the restaurant industry. His sample was similar to the current study because both used regional chain restaurants; however, the current study also consists of independent restaurants in a college town.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to understand what elements of job satisfaction are most important to restaurant employees and to determine if organizational structure has an influence on the satisfaction levels. The study is designed to determine whether intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction elements are more important to employees in the independent or corporate restaurants. Determining if there are differences in the levels of satisfaction in the different restaurant structures could assist professionals in the restaurant industry in reducing turnover rates and help lower labor costs for their organizations. Many independent restaurant owners do not have the resources to conduct their own employee job satisfaction studies in order to gain a better understanding of what is happening in their workplace. Therefore another purpose of this study is to fill a gap in the restaurant industry literature to include the independent restaurant sector.

Significance of the Study

This study seeks to enhance the research in the hospitality industry by collecting specific job satisfaction data from independent and corporate FOH restaurant employees. The study is the first of its kind in the hospitality industry to investigate the differences between independent and corporate employee job satisfaction. Most of the research in the restaurant industry uses both corporate and independent restaurant employees without identifying their differences. Theoretically, one would assume there would be differences in a highly structured corporate restaurants compared to a more flat, independent restaurants. FOH employees working in a corporate restaurant might have more of an opportunity to advance their career due to the greater number of locations, different departments and several layers of management. Independent restaurants are mostly small,

family run businesses that by their very size do not have opportunities for employees to advance their careers. Restaurant industry leaders are continuously looking for new ways to reduce employee turnover rates. The results of this study could help reduce human resource costs in corporate restaurants, however, the greatest benefit will be realized in the independent restaurants with limited resources.

To examine employee job satisfaction in this study, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form was used as the data collection tool. The results of the study illustrate to the owners of independent restaurants, especially located in college towns, which factors of job satisfaction are more or less important to their employees.

Assumptions

The underlying assumptions in this study is that the smaller, independent restaurants are able to provide some type of job satisfaction to their FOH employees that keeps them employed in their establishments. The independent restaurant owners are unable to provide the same type of benefits such as health insurance, wage increases, bonuses, etc., due to economies of scale. Therefore, it could be assumed that some intrinsic elements of job satisfaction may be keeping the FOH employees at the independent restaurants. This assumption is based on the theoretical construct of the study and previous research findings that intrinsic satisfaction elements found mainly in smaller organizations are more important than the extrinsic satisfaction elements provided by larger organizations. Another assumption of the study was the participants would fill out the MSQ accurately and truthfully without the influence of their supervisors. The rationale for this assumption was the method by which the questionnaires were distributed and collected to ensure confidentiality. Also, the MSQ

short form does not focus on the supervisors or the establishment; it focuses specifically on the feelings and behaviors of the employee. The final assumption was that due to the quantitative research design, the research findings would not be influenced by researcher bias. The analysis of the data was completed through the use of SPSS, providing objective statistical data.

Summary

This study investigates the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction elements of FOH employees in independent and corporate restaurants. The independent variable in the research was restaurant type (independent or corporate), and the dependent variables were intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Demographic factors were additional variables that were used as controls. The primary control variables were; all the participants were 18 years or older, tipped employees, and worked in a full-service, casual dining restaurant. The study used the MSQ short form as the data collection tool from FOH restaurant employees in a typical college town. Weber's theory of bureaucracy and contribution from several theorists from the human relation theoretical framework established the theoretical framework of the study. Chapter two contains a review of literature that examines the variables of job satisfaction, FOH restaurant workers, the MSQ and organizations from previous research in the service industry and specifically in independent restaurants.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The current study focuses on the differences of the job satisfaction levels of FOH employees of independent and corporate restaurants to determine if organizational structure has an effect on the satisfaction levels. Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature focused specifically on the restaurant industry, job satisfaction and how it applies to the restaurant industry, the distinctive traits of front-of-the house employees in the hospitality industry, the unique characteristics and challenges of conducting this study in a college town, the applicability of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire for this study and the distinction of different organizational structures. A review of the literature will assist in explaining the importance of the current study and support the hypotheses.

The Restaurant Industry

The restaurant industry segments restaurants by levels of service and the average check prices of the customers. Full-service restaurants are establishments with relatively broad menus along with table-counter-, and/or booth service and a wait staff. These establishments offer meals and snacks for immediate consumption primarily on-premise, though they may also offer takeout service (U.S. Census Bureau, 2003). This segment is composed of midscale and casual dining restaurants and a newer upscale casual subsegment. In the full-service category, the 2003 Census data reported a total of 173,788 firms (a business with several locations) and 200,371 establishments (a business with a single location). The full-service restaurant category includes family-style, fine-dining and casual dining restaurants (Table 2). The current study will only include full-service

restaurants that provide “food services to patrons who order and are served (by a waiter/waitress) while seated, and pay after eating” (U.S. Census Bureau, 2003). The average check prices (the average dollar amount spent per customer) separate these categories. Family-style restaurant average check prices are \$10 or below, and fine-dining average check prices are \$25 and above. Casual-dining restaurants are full-service with a check average generally \$12-\$20 and alcohol is served.

Table 2. *Difference in Restaurant Styles and Average Check Prices*

Full-service Restaurant types	Average check price	Alcohol served
Family –style	\$10 or below	No
Casual-style	\$12-\$24	Yes
Fine-dining	\$25 and above	Yes

The current study will include all of these full-service, causal-dining types of restaurants due to the wage structure of the FOH employees. The FOH employees in full-service restaurants receive a base hourly wage plus tips (or gratuities). The base hourly wage FOH employees receives varies between states.

Ghiselli, La Lopa, and Bai (2001) found in their study using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) in full-service restaurants focused on managers, that not only were there variations in satisfaction by company, but significant differences by type of operation. Significant differences were found between; full-service restaurants with an average check over \$10, full- service with average check under \$10 and commercial cafeteria style of operation. The entire full-service restaurant segment which

includes large, corporate owned and small, independent establishments are now experiencing a 107 percent annual employee turnover rate (People Report, 2007) costing companies millions of dollars in recruitment, selection and training costs across the industry. Small, independent restaurants do not have thousands of dollars to designate to recruitment, selection and continual training of new employees. The individual restaurant owner will prioritize these processes depending on their own management or leadership style. Some owners may not feel they need to conduct as much training as a corporate restaurant chain because of their laissez-faire approach to their business. On the other hand, an owner may want to conduct more training but due to a lack of time and money they might neglect a formal training process and rely on the previous experience of their new employee.

While the majority of employees in the restaurant industry are employed by small businesses, in comparison to corporate owned restaurants, research is limited in the independent restaurant sector. Researchers have captured job satisfaction data in corporate owned, franchised and chain restaurants that employ hundreds of employees throughout the country. Whyte (1948) found in his study of human relationships in both large and small restaurants that more attention was paid to the full-service, large restaurants where there are more complex problems to analyze. He points out that with some modifications, the small restaurants could adapt his findings to their smaller organizations however he also points out that large restaurants are faced with some problems that are completely unknown to the small restaurant owner (Whyte, 1948, p.362).

Job Satisfaction in the Restaurant Industry

Employee satisfaction, more frequently known as job satisfaction, is described as both a global construct and a multi-dimensional concept used most frequently in industrial-organizational psychology when researching employee behavior and organizational effectiveness (Hirschfield, 2000; Russell, Spitzmuller, Lin, Stanton, Smith, and Ironson, 2004). Roelen, Koopman, Groothoffc (2008) point out that there is no ‘gold standard’ of overall job satisfaction therefore it is necessary to look at all facets of satisfaction when considering measuring job satisfaction. For the current study I used Price’s (1977) definition of job satisfaction.

Price (1977) describes satisfaction as a degree of emotion that individuals have toward the organization or the system. Therefore, if an employee has positive sentiments towards the organization, then the job satisfaction levels will be higher. If the individual does not feel an emotional attachment to the organization job dissatisfaction can occur. Locke (1976) developed his own definition of job satisfaction around the same time as Price. Locke (1976) in his studies of industrial and organizational psychology describes job satisfaction as result of an employees’ appraisal from doing assigned work. Paul Spector is one of the more prolific authors in regards to job satisfaction studies. Spector’s (1985) conclusion of job satisfaction focuses on the individual’s interpretation of their own satisfaction of the work they are performing. Spector (1985) based the creation of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) on this definition and used the JSS specifically to measure job satisfaction in human service, public and nonprofit sector organizations. The JSS is a widely used multidimensional evaluation tool that includes

nine subscales: salary, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, work and communication (Roelen, Koopmans, and Groothoff, 2008). The JSS does not cover dimensions such as training and work environment. Ability utilization researchers will use only parts of the survey to measure satisfaction for their populations sample. It was found to be common practice in the literature for researchers to combine specific elements of one evaluation tool with another evaluation tool to meet their needs. For example, Roelen, et. al. (2008) used the JSS's nine scales as a starting point for developing their own job satisfaction questionnaire in their study of mental health employees. They incorporated what they believed to be missing dimensions of satisfaction by using personal growth and job autonomy factors from the findings of Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek and Frings-Dresen (2003) studies. Hybrid questionnaires like the one Roelen, et.al. (2008) created are typical in the more modern studies of job satisfaction. Researchers are using the more traditional job satisfaction evaluation tools as a starting point for their analysis, and then incorporate more current day satisfaction elements that are influencing modern day employees.

Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton, (2001) also stated that due to the lack of assimilation and integration in the literature it is difficult to understand all of the dimensions of job satisfaction. Judge, et. al. (2001) conducted a qualitative and quantitative review of the relationship between job satisfaction and the job performance relationship. Their (Judge, et. al., 2001) study was a meta-analysis that analyzed a broad range of satisfaction-performance relationships. For the purposes of this literature review, attention was paid to the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. In relation to their analysis of mediators of the performance- satisfaction relationship, they

found the most logical explanation of the effect of performance on satisfaction to be that of success. The success-performance relationship is satisfying because it brings success in the form of valued rewards, both extrinsic (pay, recognition from others) and intrinsic (satisfaction with a job well done) (Judge, et. al., 2001). But, to measure the effects of these rewards on the success—performance relationship Judge, et. al. (2001) believes it would have to be a very broad study with only one other previous study in the literature to support their logic (p.392).

One of the more prevalent, classical job satisfaction research studies was by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) and what is known as the Hawthorne Studies. They found employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction to be different for people working in similar surroundings. In their experiments with plant workers, some people were satisfied with plant conditions, wages, and working conditions and others in the same position and plant were not satisfied (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1964, p.373). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) stressed in their research, “for the employee in industry, the whole working environment must be looked upon as being permeated with social significance” (p.374). Heskett, Sasser, and Schlesinger (1997) identified the internal quality of a working environment contributes most to employee satisfaction. “Internal quality is measured by the feelings that employees have toward their jobs, colleagues, and companies” (p.29), not only pay, benefits, and other fringe benefits.

Hancer and George (2003) point out that although job satisfaction has been a popular research topic in the hospitality literature, non-supervisory employees working in the casual restaurant sector have not been researched extensively. Their literature search focusing on job satisfaction produced 4,019 citations for the years 1978 through 2001.

The literature search also produced a range of job satisfaction definitions, measures and theories including research in the hospitality industry focused on managerial positions working in hotels, customers and employees involving fast-food chains, food service managers, school food service supervisors and employees (Hancer and George, 2003, p. 86). The service industry relies upon individuals having direct contact with the customers making employee satisfaction an important factor in customer retention and business success (Hancer and George, 2003, p. 85). “Employee satisfaction is a multi-dimensional concept, which is defined as the degree to which employees of an organization believe that their needs and wants are continuously satisfied by the organization” (Sureshchandar, et al., 2001, p.353). Therefore, in the service industry an organization must not only have a focus on service quality for their customers but they also must concentrate on employee satisfaction.

Price (1977) explains that satisfaction is a variable that intervenes between pay and turnover. “Satisfaction mediates the relationship between pay and turnover; it indicates the means or process whereby variation in pay produces variations in turnover” (Price, 1977, p.80). Price (1977) also points out that it is inadequate to argue that variations in satisfaction produce variations in turnover, however what is required is “specification of organization characteristics which are responsible for the variations in satisfaction” (Price, 1977, p.80).

Alexandrov, Babakus, and Yavas (2007) pointed out their concerns when measuring job satisfaction between full-time and part-time employees and the level of integration in the organization (p.360). Full-time employees who spend most of their time at work will be more integrated into the organization than part-time employees whose

primary social system is outside the organization. Their levels of job satisfaction may be the same however, their intention to leave the organization due to feeling excluded and less involved is greater than full-time employees (Alexandrov, et.al., 2007, p.360). One explanation could be the lack of communication between management and the employee when the employee is absent from the workplace for an extended amount of time.

Therefore, if the employee is full-time there are greater opportunities for communication to occur, creating greater job satisfaction and lower turnover. Price (1977) hypothesized that “successively higher amounts of communication will produce successively lower amounts of turnover” (p.73).

In the restaurant industry, the methods of communication are different than in a typical office work environment. Employees are not given access to computers to check email, or in many situations are not provided mailboxes to receive company newsletters or policy changes. The communication in the restaurant industry must be passed down through the organization by word of mouth, or staff meetings. Occasionally memo boards and areas to post messages to employees are available, but it is accessible to all employees and sometimes customers. Butler and Skipper (1983) point out that the restaurant industry makes little investment into the structure of the restaurant work position especially waitress or server work because it does not permit extensive communication between coworkers and management.

Integration into the organization for the waitress or server is produced by the friendship networks that are created within the organization. Friendship networks are critical to the success of the servers where in most restaurants the employees must work together as a team to provide their customers with the best service. If friendship networks

do not exist and the employees are not helping each other during the shift, the level of service to the customers may decrease resulting in reduced tips for the servers. The work performed by servers can be competitive if friendship networks are not created. The extent of the competition depends on the frequency of “stolen tables” or the neglect to help with a server that is “in the weeds”. To “steal” a table from another server is one of the critical mistakes any server can make in their friendship networks. The “stolen” table is missed money for the server who lost it, and every table counts when working for tips. The other error is to not help another server when they are extremely busy or “in the weeds”. If a server has time to assist another server who is busy, they should immediately help the other servers. If a server is found not to offer to help the other servers during the busy time, tensions will rise between the servers.

Waitress work actually produces levels of competition among workers because the majority of their income is earned through customer tips (Butler and Skipper, 1983). Butler and Kipper (1983) concluded that with no real investment into the company, the void of health benefits or retirement packages, it is not surprising that the waitress finds no reason to invest in the position. The result, upon the slightest provocation, without investment in the organization the waitress will decide to leave the organization (Butler and Skipper, 1983, p.28).

Locke (1976) points out that researchers use operational definitions of job satisfaction whereby whatever measure is being used to measure job satisfaction in the study, that measure then becomes the definition of job satisfaction. Due to the complex nature of the service industry, this study uses measures to define job satisfaction that contained several different dimensions. A multi-dimensional construct also allows for the

independent measure of several components and diagnoses for areas of improvement in an organization (Russell, et al., 2003, p. 879). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), created by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), is used in this study due to its faceted structure and previous use in measuring restaurant employee satisfaction in the casual restaurant sector (Hancer and George, 2003). The MSQ allows the researcher to obtain a more individualized picture of worker satisfaction than just job satisfaction as a whole. Weiss, et al., (1967) point out “one individual may be satisfied with his work because it allows him to satisfy his needs for independence and security while another is satisfied because his needs are met due to creativity, ability utilization and achievement”(p.vi). The MSQ measures job satisfaction with the specific aspects of work and work environments with two distinct components: intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors were related to the job itself and satisfy an individual’s psychological needs such as achievement, responsibility, recognition. Extrinsic factors are related to the job environment including compensation, supervision, working conditions, company policy (Hancer and George, 2003). In this study, job satisfaction of nonsupervisory restaurant employees working in casual, full-service establishments is examined using both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of the MSQ.

Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Salovey (1997) discussed the importance of the term “emotional intelligence” and defined it as, “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist through, to understand emotions and emotional meanings, and to reflectively regulate emotions in ways that promote emotional intellectual growth” (p.22). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) categorized emotional intelligence into four

domains; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Self-awareness is recognizing and understanding one's own emotions and using them to guide behavior. Self-awareness is also about accepting one's strengths, weaknesses and competencies, and possessing the self-confidence to succeed. The domain of self-management is the ability to manage one's emotions, impulses, and reactions and being able to adapt and change as necessary. Self-management also includes being open and honest while possessing an internal drive to succeed and maintaining an optimistic outlook. The dimension of social awareness includes empathy (being aware of others' feelings and needs), being able to see things from others' perspectives, and being aware of the environment around oneself. This includes the political undertones and meeting the needs of those whom you have responsibility to such as employees and customers. The fourth dimension of emotional intelligence is relationship management. Relationship management encompasses the traits of being an inspirational leader, being persuasive, leading and nurturing subordinates appropriately, and being a change agent. Relationship management is also about effectively managing conflict, motivating others and being a team builder (Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, 2002).

Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006) found that employees with higher emotional intelligence have higher job satisfaction due to their ability to regulate their emotions and are aware of the factors that elicit certain emotions. Employees with higher emotional intelligence are able to experience more confidence and control over the task requirements of their job enabling them to be more productive. This skill becomes significant in group settings where employees with high emotional intelligence can help

boost their own morale, the morale of others, and contribute positively to the experience of job satisfaction for all in the group (p. 462).

Hochschild (1983) applied the terms “emotional labor” to the work of those in the service industry employees which she described as the “management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” (p.7). The FOH workers in the restaurants must be able to understand their own emotions and how it will effect their customer’s experience at the restaurant, the variety of emotions they might experience at each table they approach, and the combination of emotions of all the FOH and BOH working together on one shift. Hochschild (1983) discussed how capitalism has found a use for emotion management as a commodity in employees who hold public-contact jobs. Hochschild (1983) explains that the “more our activities as individual emotional managers are managed by organizations, the more we tend to celebrate the life of unmanaged feeling” (p.190). The work of service industry employees requires a strong sense of emotional labor that must be performed each shift or work day to ensure customer satisfaction and business success. The ability of the workers to balance their emotions in front of the customers while “on stage” is easily performed if the workers feel they are being valued by the organization.

Other Job Satisfaction Findings

Dermody, Young and Taylor (2004) found in their exploratory qualitative study that all restaurant servers whether working in independent or chain restaurants are mostly motivated by money. They also found that servers working independent restaurants are more motivated by relationships with co-workers compared to chain restaurant servers who were more motivated by management. Butler and Skipper (1983) point out that the

structure of waitress work does not permit extensive communication; the work actually produces levels of competition among workers (p.28). Friendship networks are the basis of integration for the waitress. Without them turnover is more likely.

Other research found that the characteristics of the supervisors had something to do with the satisfaction of the servers. Susskind, Kacmar, Borchgrevink (2007) found in their study of organizational standards and coworker support that standards for customer service are fostered among coworkers more notably than are the standards among supervisors which is consistent to what happens in a restaurant. Although the managers and owners are present in the dining room, the servers are the ones who must execute the service standards being demanded by the managers. Restaurant employees need a supportive group of peers to help them perform their required service-related duties. Susskind, et al. (2007) found that the supervisory support is not essential to guest satisfaction, therefore coworker support as a satisfaction variable contains distinctive elements that do not exist in the interaction of managers and subordinates.

Whyte (1948) observed that the supervisors who frequently helped the servers with their work and always showed that she respected the work and the workers had servers who were loyal and efficient. With supervisors who mistrusted the servers and who were unapproachable, the servers became rebellious and aggressive. Price's (1977) points out from his study focused on satisfaction and turnover concepts of integration, that the restaurant industry makes little investment into the structure of the restaurant work position. This means, the pay rates, the lack of fringe benefits, the long hours and the low level of social status the industry finds acceptable for the FOH restaurant

employee, does not provide the server with enough incentive to tolerate much more from the work.

Cobble (1991) found that the waitresses in her study recognized that their individual performance could be critical to the overall success of the restaurant. The waitresses realized that the employers could not completely control the restaurant's success because they could not completely control the face-to-face interactions that the waitresses have with the customers. The waitresses realized that they could control whether or not a customer would return to the restaurant or not, thereby influencing the success of the restaurant. During the service exchange process between the customer and waitress, business could be hurt if the waitress only suggested the least expensive menu choices, ignored the poor tippers, offered food and beverages "on the house", or simply just provided poor or rude service. The problem with trying to gain control of their work in this manner could not only jeopardize the restaurant's overall success but also their own tipped income.

Cobble (1991) found in her research of waitress work that waitresses volunteered more qualitative, intrinsic factors in explaining their choice of waitress work. For example; they enjoyed the opportunity to interact with coworkers and customers, to meet new people, the pleasure of leaving a customer satisfied, and the challenge of earning and the immediate gratification of the tip. They explained that the general excitement and challenge of waitress work, and face-to-face contact with their customers was what they truly enjoy.

Organizations

Organizations are categorized by the United States Department of the Treasury (2008) by type of business entities that consider legal and tax structures. The main business designations are: corporations, S corporations, partnerships, Limited Liability Company (LLC), and sole proprietorships. The current study uses independently owned restaurants which could be sole proprietorships, Limited Liability Companies, general partnerships or another structure depending on the state in which they are owned. Independently owned businesses are those businesses that do not have a corporate or centralized headquarters or boards of shareholders that control the company. Scott (2003) points out in his analysis of all types of organizations that the size of the organization should not be equated with success. Scott (2003) found that the most productive innovative businesses are often small or intermediate in size. In 1990, 90 percent of all employing organizations in the United States employed 19 or fewer employees (Scott, 2003, p.12).

Although the percentage of small businesses is high in compared to larger organizations, Cardon and Stevens (2004), in their review of human resource theory and practices in small and emerging organizations, found it difficult to find existing literature specifically focused on small businesses. Cardon and Stevens (2004) found much of the scholarly work to be vague in their distinction of company size, small, medium or large. They did find that several scholars pointed out that further research in small businesses human resource practices is warranted (Cardon and Stevens, 2004, p.298).

Porter and Lawler (1965) are two of the earlier researchers of organizational effects on employee behaviors and attitudes. Porter and Lawler (1965) realized that all

organizations are different in the way their processes are structured in relation to the members that make up the organization. These structural differences naturally create different work environments that can affect employee behaviors and attitudes.

Ritzer (2008) describes bureaucracy as a large-scale organization composed of a hierarchy of offices (p.24) (Figure 1,a.). In these offices, individuals have specific responsibilities and must behave according to the rules and written procedures exercised by those who occupy the top level positions in the organization. Weber explains that such bureaucratic forms are developed due to their technical superiority over other forms of organization (Calhoun, et al., 2002, p.227). Bureaucracies emphasize control over people by replacing individual judgment with the dictates of rules, regulations, and structures. Employees are controlled by the division of labor, which allows them to only perform the tasks they are prescribed by the organization, and not to improvise in performing any of the tasks (Ritzer, 2008, p.26). An appropriate example would be the fast-food industry which has taken the thought process out of performing each task and minimized the human to a robot (Ritzer, 2008, p.26).

The debate as to which organizational structure is more effective for the company has been going on for decades. Worthy (1950) was one of the first researchers to examine the effects of tall and flat organizations and their effects on employee morale. Figure 1 shows the differences between tall and flat organizational structures. After examining several different types of organizations, Worthy (1950) found that in a tall, hierarchal organizational structure the individual supervisors were subject to constant control and direction with little opportunity to develop qualities of initiative and self-reliance. The

opposite was true in organizations that decentralized management (or flat organizations) practices, where the focus was on the employees who encouraged them to

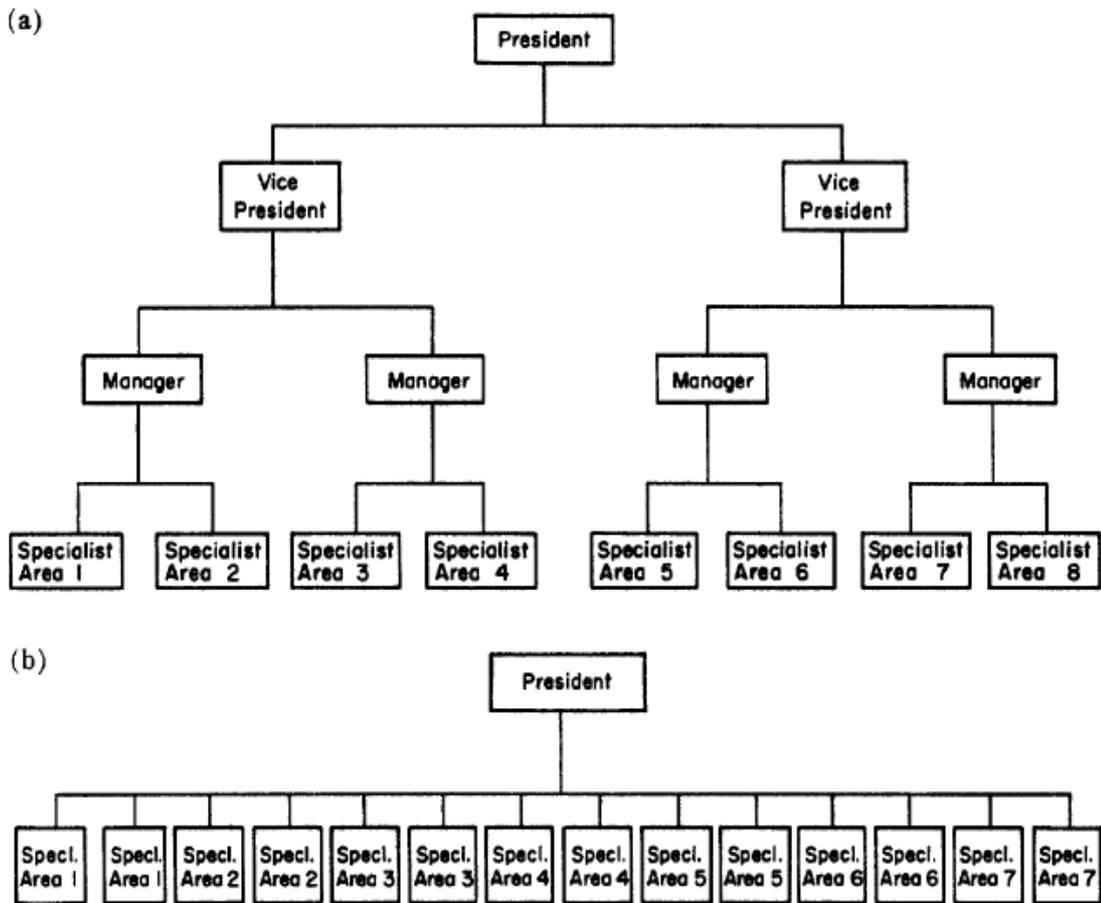


Figure 1. Organizational chart of tall and flat organizations; a) tall organization, b) flat organization (Garzo and Yanouzas, 1969).

build upon and use personal initiatives. This allowed employees and executives considerable freedom in the way they accomplished their work (Worthy, 1950, p.178).

Many organizations are taking out middle management layers, allowing for more cross-departmental integration (Harrington and Akehurst, 2000, p. 137, 149). Argyle (1974) found that flat organizations have a decentralized authority that increases the efficiency in decision-making processes, makes communication easier, and increases

employee satisfaction. Cummings and Berger (1976) also found an increase in employee job satisfaction where there was an increase in decentralization (decision-making occurring with the low-level employees) (p.48).

In a full-service restaurant operated by a corporation, the divisions of labor, beginning with layers of management at a corporate office, are clearly identified (Figure 2).

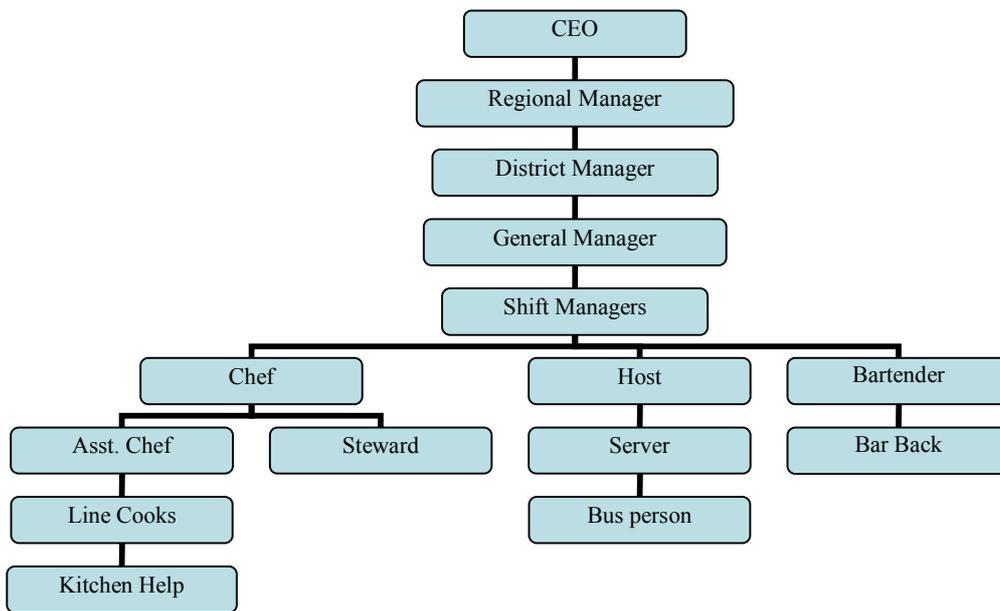


Figure 2. Organizational chart of the FOH corporate restaurant.

The highest levels of ownership and management are not present in the restaurants due to the physical numbers of restaurants the company owns. The individual restaurants will have a regional/district type of management representative who will visit on occasion, with a general manager responsible for a specific location. Under a general manager there could be kitchen managers, dining room managers, and several assistant managers and shift supervisors. The positions not included in management are also clearly defined, such as servers, bus persons, hosts, bartenders and food runners with specific duties.

Employees are trained to learn a specific job and are only to perform the duties set in

their job descriptions and are not permitted to work outside those boundaries unless authorized. Both the FOH and back-of-the-house (BOH) positions are completely separate from each other and have their own hierarchy of management. The only time employees from the BOH are to enter the FOH is when a customer or a person from management requests them to go to the FOH. The FOH will go into the BOH several times a shift to retrieve food and other items requested by the customers. There are boundaries set in the BOH where FOH employees are not to enter without permission. The boundaries are maintained by the employees in the BOH to maintain control and order of food costs, health and sanitation practices, and a position of higher status.

Independently owned businesses are typically small businesses that are either just starting their growth cycle that have remained small because of a strategic decision by the owners. Independently owned businesses are generally flat organizations with almost no hierarchical levels of management (Figure 3). In a flat organization, such as in an independent restaurant, there are almost no hierarchical levels of management, which allows all of the employees to participate in the decision-making process. The owner or general manager is present every day in the restaurant to oversee the administrative and operational duties. In many independent restaurants the owner is the chef and runs the BOH operations while a FOH manager is responsible for the rest of the operations. The boundaries of the FOH and BOH are also established by the employees, however, it is not uncommon for employees on either side of the house to help each other during a busy shift. The ability of employees to be able to move between the FOH and the BOH creates a greater sense of teamwork that is critical to the overall success of the restaurant.

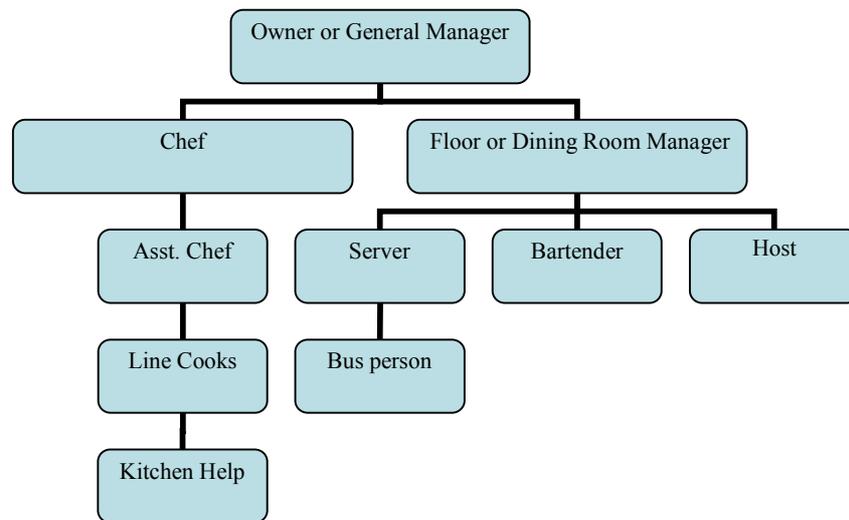


Figure 3. Organizational chart of independent restaurant.

On most occasions, an independently owned, full-service restaurant will be managed by the owner of the business or a general manager who assists the owner. Most independent restaurants are much smaller in their physical structure and, therefore, do not have a need for large numbers of staff. The FOH employees have specific roles such as servers, hosts, bartenders or bus persons, however, all of those roles might be the servers' responsibility at any time during a shift. The management levels in the BOH structure of an independent restaurant are also typically very flat, because in many situations the chef is the owner. The staff size and limited levels of management naturally give way to a decentralized organizational structure.

Whyte (1948) pointed out that in small restaurants the employees and supervisors can all get to know each other well and can build up teamwork easily. In a large restaurant there are several steps between cooking and service that hinders the organization's ability to achieve coordination and leaving more possibilities for the coordination to breakdown.

Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) learned in their experiences at the Hawthorne plant that this division of labor is not necessarily the best environment in which to work. There was an unwritten rule that the wiremen should not help one another on the assembly lines at the Bank Wire plant. The belief behind the rule was workers could turn out more work if they were left alone with the machinery they were assigned, and not bothered by anyone else. However, there was no logical reason for having the rule, and many times the wiremen went against the rule and helped one another, while enjoying working together. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) concluded that a primary constraint for a working group in a formal organization is a logic which does not take into consideration the worker's sentiments (p. 548). The formal organization includes all the explicitly stated systems of control introduced by the company in order to achieve the economic purposes of the total enterprise and the effective contribution of the members of the organization to those economic ends (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1964, p.558).

Woods and Macauley (1989) point out in their long term prescription for reducing employee turnover that while we can write policy and procedure manuals telling employees how they are supposed to perform tasks, gaps are left for their individual interpretation. Corporate owned restaurants use training manuals, videos, and structured policies to ensure employees perform each task the same way, each time they serve a new customer. Breakdowns in this formal structure are the gaps in the written documents that leave individual interpretation. Many of the gaps are those focused on employee behavior. Employees must be socialized in the organization for a length of time to understand the company's culture and values to understand how to interpret behavior

gaps. A restaurant experiencing high employee turnover is vulnerable to these individual interpretations and poor service quality to guests.

One of the few studies in the restaurant industry literature that deciphered the differences between independent and corporate restaurants was Dermody's (2002) qualitative study on recruitment and retention practices. Dermody interviewed independent and corporate managers to gather information about their strategies used for recruitment and retention of employees. The study findings suggest that the managers of the independent restaurants spend more time on activities aimed at retaining their employees, not recruiting. Dermody (2002) suggests that lower turnover rates are likely to contribute to the decreased requirement to recruit employees by managers of independent restaurants. The corporate managers were found to focus on replacing employees with little emphasis on retention practices. Dermody's (2002) findings support the hypotheses of my study that the structure of the organization in the restaurant industry, will make a difference when analyzing labor costs and turnover rates as indicators of employee satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

Employee job satisfaction has been analyzed from different perspectives depending on the discipline in which the researcher practices. Many of the original theories of job satisfaction stem from psychological and behavioral researchers. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) used psychological theory, specifically the sequence of events technique in their investigation of job satisfaction. The results of the study pointed to the myth that satisfied and dissatisfied could be measured on the same

continuum, and that there is one overall satisfaction measure. These findings were published in their book, *The Motivation to Work* which includes their theory of motivation-hygiene theory. In their book, *The Motivation to Work*, Herzberg, et al., (1959) also gave credit to Elton Mayo and the Harvard Business School for their creation of the human relations theory, discussed further later in this chapter.

Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) applied the psychology of occupational behavior to develop the Work Adjustment theory that explored individual abilities and work environment and how they relate to their job satisfaction. The theory states that vocational abilities and needs are the two significant aspects of the work personality, while ability requirements and reinforcer systems are the two significant aspects of the work environment (Weiss, et al., 1967). This theory is discussed further later in this chapter.

A consideration not found in the employee job satisfaction literature is the role the organization's structure plays in the employee's satisfaction levels. In the restaurant industry this would refer to the analysis between smaller, independently owned restaurants in comparison to larger, corporate run restaurants. Independent restaurant structures are smaller, in size and the influences of the owners are prevalent while the bureaucratic structure of a corporate restaurant dehumanizes the work experience for the employee.

Max Weber and Bureaucracy

Max Weber was one of the early organizational theorists who developed a theory pertaining to the internal structure of an organization that details the complex account of why rational-legal bureaucracies are the most effective organizational structure (Morrill,

2008). Weber's theory on bureaucracy is still relevant to a range of industries, such as government agencies and the military.

Weber's theories of bureaucratic organizations are easily applied to our modern day lives as organizations continue to become more structured to compete in our economic and social lives. Weber explains that "the decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization" (Calhoun, Gerteis, Moody, Pfaff, Schmidt, Virk, 2002, p. 227). Weber observed similarities between the precision, speed, and unity of machinery and the functions of a bureaucratic organization performing tasks such as accounting.

Bureaucracies are governed by rules that are calculated and widely understood, and equally applied by the organization rather than by a person. The most important rule is the hierarchies of offices that prescribes who can communicate and give orders to whom (DiMaggio, 2003). Another set of rules are the clear guidelines describing the accomplishments that make a person eligible for employment and career advancement. For example; the United States government uses formal job descriptions and job classifications that are administered through the state Civil Service Commissions. An additional set of rules details the processes by which performance of work must be conducted. These processes outline what tools are to be used to perform at task, how long the task should take, and who should be performing the assigned tasks. Weber argued that these rules are essential and useful for several reasons.

One reason rules are important according to Weber pointed the necessity of rules in an organization is they prevent employees from using the organization for personal benefit. The rules keep the work and services of the employee in line with the

organization's goals, not the employees' personal goals. By making everyday activities repetitive and predictable, management can focus on the unexpected problems that cannot be solved through the processes already established. Secondly, by standardizing the employee recognition and disciplinary processes everyone is treated equally, therefore, limiting the amount of time and resources necessary for deciding on how to handle human resource issues. Weber praised the bureaucracy for being the most efficient and highly predictable means for handling large number of tasks, however, he realized there are downfalls in such a formal organizational structure.

Bureaucracy is the basic form of work organization in the United States (Alexander, 1983), and it continues to grow across industries. There are several conflicts besides the alienation of the individual workers that can take place within a bureaucracy. Many of the conflicts occur when the policies and procedures of the company are focused on the profit margins and not on what is best for the workers. As a way to maneuver through the levels of management and gain some control of the work environment, workers create labor unions to protect themselves from unfair labor practices. Unions have existed in the United States since the 1800's, helping workers receive fair pay and working conditions across hundreds of crafts, trades, and industries. Waitress unionism began in 1900 but quickly declined in the 1960's and has not seen a resurgence to this day (Cobble, 1991). The waitresses who joined the unions were looking to ensure their fair share of shifts, compensation, a safe work environment and benefits. These extrinsic elements of work are still the basis of job satisfaction for most workers.

Bureaucracies generally reduce work autonomy for the individual worker, which creates alienation of the employees, reducing the meaning and significance of work for

the individuals (Alexander, 1981). Weber points out that the social aspects of individuals working in a bureaucratic organization and criticizes the effects on the employee. Weber describes believed that an employee working in a bureaucratic organization for their entire career will be found “chained to his activity in his entire economic and ideological existence” (Calhoun, et al., 2002, p. 231). Due to the rules established in the bureaucracy, the individual is unable to sway from fixed set of rules and the authorities (or supervisors) over the tasks. The individual is the only one who can release themselves from the “rationally organized domination” (Calhoun, et al., 2002, p. 231) of the organization. This type of formal rationality according to Weber meant people were not going to be left to their own devices to find means to an end; rules and regulations would direct them on what to do. Weber predicted a network of rationalized processes that would eventually take over all of society with no escape. He describes this as the “iron cage” (Ritzer, 2008, p.25). A frequently used example of this the widespread application of organizational rationality in today’s society is the fast-food industry and what Ritzer (2008) describes as the “McDonaldization of society”.

Ritzer (2008) applied Weber’s fears of a world of rationalization and bureaucracy to explain how individuals are becoming more and more rationalized in different aspects of their lives through the franchised companies that provide the same product and services no matter where they are located. This type of business model is a “cookie cutter” approach to offering products and services to customers as quickly as possible to increase the amount of sales of the product. McDonald’s restaurants were the first to use this business model and franchised their restaurants in the United States. Since that time McDonald’s has become the business template for a variety of different industries. An

example is the home construction industry that is known to build “McMansions”- million dollar houses that all look alike. The health care industry has even developed franchised, walk-in emergency care centers. The franchises or chains, whether owned by a central headquarters or having individual owner who has invested in the chain, must follow processes that comply with the written procedures and standards set forth by those at the top of the bureaucratic hierarchy. Individuals working in these companies are not permitted to be creative in their work. Employees have been trained and assigned a job that they must perform according to the company’s procedures.

Human Relations Theory

Weber was not alone in his theory of bureaucracy and the control the organizations have over their employees. Fredrick Winslow Taylor, an engineer developed a system called “scientific management” by which bosses could dictate workers’ every movement, eliminating every opportunity an employee might take to go against the organization (DiMaggio, 2003). Although scientific management was difficult to implement in the form Taylor outlined, it did influence the organization of factory work and was employed in service and government organizations (Morrill, 2008).

In the United States in the 1930’s, the theories of bureaucracy and the formal processes to control employee behavior as means to increasing productivity were being scrutinized by a group of management scholars and psychologists from Harvard University. Elton Mayo and his associates at Harvard University began conducting experiments at the Western Electric Company- Hawthorne plant located outside of Chicago to investigate the informal social structures within organizations (Morrill, 2008). The researchers manipulated the physical and social working conditions of the workers to

increase productivity. The results generated a revision of organizational theory and management theory that emphasized human social dynamics and relations. What is now known as the “Hawthorne effect” forced theorists to confront the complexity of the human factor and change the view of labor as not just an object in a formal structure as previously proposed in scientific management theories (Jaffee, 2001, p.68).

Fritz Roethlisberger and W.J. Dickson (1939) presented in their book, *Management and the Worker* the detailed accounts of the Hawthorne experiments. Their interpretation of the experiment outcomes advanced a model of the organization as a social system (Jaffee, 2001, p. 69). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) explain that all the values of the individual cannot be accounted for by the company (p.375). The meaning a person assigns to his position depends on whether or not that position is allowing him to fulfill social demands therefore determining satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939, p.375). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) placed heavy emphasis on internal factors which in turn gave way for a model of understanding individual behaviors in the organization that revolved around sentiments (Jaffee, 2001, p. 70). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) explain that the sentiments represent the “values residing in the interhuman relations of the different groups within the organization” and not only should “material goods, physical events, wages, and hours of work” be the focus of employee satisfaction for management but the whole working environment in which the employee experiences must be taken into account (p.374).

Chester Barnard President of New Jersey Bell Telephone and the Rockefeller Foundation, sought to teach others through his lectures about the formal organization and the problematic nature of harnessing human actions within an organization to ensure

effectiveness and efficiency for the enterprise. Barnard (1938) described the necessary elements of all organizations to be; “communication, willingness to serve, and common purpose” (p.82). He believed the “vitality of organizations lie in the willingness of individuals to contribute forces to the cooperative system” (Barnard, 1938, p.83). Barnard observed that if the satisfactions of the work an individual is performing does not outweigh the sacrifices they are making to do the work, the willingness to perform the job disappears and the organization’s efficiency and effectiveness disappear. However, if the individual finds that the satisfactions of the work exceed the sacrifices, the individual will continue to do the work thereby improving the efficiency of the organization (Barnard, 1938, p.83). Barnard (1938) observed the conflicts of the individual and the rigidity of the formal organization and bureaucratic structures by which work was organized. These early human relation theorists cleared the path for analyses of a new organizational theory focused on the individual workers.

Uniqueness of a College Town

The location of the study is in Indiana, Pennsylvania, which is representative of a “college town”. Gumprecht (2003) points out in his study that college towns represent a unique urban location that include an unusual densities of young people, landscapes that include the college campus, fraternity row and a college-oriented shopping district. Gumprecht’s (2003) study is one of the few studies focused on the American college town’s unique characteristics. He points out that although the general attributes of a college town can be measured, the unique elements of life that make the college town distinctive cannot be quantified (Gumprecht, 2003). Most college towns are too remote to experience significant non-university related economic growth. Due to the large densities

of students and highly educated adults development of distinctive commercial districts are created in the college towns. The commercial districts are full of small businesses that consist of trendy shops, coffee houses, ethnic restaurants, and bars that employ the college students and remain in business due to the proximity of the university (Gumprecht, 2003). The location of this study is in Indiana, Pennsylvania, being representative of a typical “college town”.

Pennsylvania is a state troubled by deindustrialization, slow population growth and continuing disinvestment in its core communities, but the universities and colleges are major fixed assets providing a wealth of benefits to their localities (Vey, 2005). The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has approximately 58 percent of the state’s population in cities, boroughs, and first-class townships. These communities contain 77 percent of its four-year institutions, just over three-quarters of its two-year institutions, and almost 71 percent of its vocational schools (Vey, 2005, p.5). The Pennsylvania State System of Higher Education (PASSHE) consists of fourteen universities that are located in college towns (Appendix J), with Indiana, Pennsylvania being home to one of those universities, Indiana University of Pennsylvania. As the 15th largest employer in Pennsylvania (PASSHE, 2008), the universities within PASSHE have a great economic impact on the counties where they are located. In the executive summary of *The Pennsylvania State System of Higher Education: Economic Impact on the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* published in 2006 it was stated that Bloomsburg, Clarion and Indiana Universities in Pennsylvania were the top employers in their counties. The three universities support 4,614 jobs or 23.8% of the total county employment impact for the three counties that reside in. Indiana University of Pennsylvania had the largest in-county percentage

employment impact of 5.0% (2,211 jobs) out of Indiana County's labor force of 44,640. Nine PASSHE universities were ranked among the top ten employers for their respective home counties (Appendix J) (Fiorentino, C., Bernotsky, R.L., Thomas, W., Loedel, P., 2006).

The economic impact study (Armstrong, Bernotsky, Bohl-Fabian, Loedel, Yazdi, 2006) also found that the direct impact of institutional faculty, staff, student and visitors spending totaled \$1.86 billion in fiscal year 2003-04. Indirect spending totaled another \$2.61 billion. The two PASSHE Universities with the largest total impact on the state were Indiana University of Pennsylvania (\$564 million) and West Chester University of Pennsylvania (\$509 million). The average economic impact of each PASSHE University on the Commonwealth was about \$313 million.

There are two limitations in using Indiana, Pennsylvania as the study sample population that need to be addressed. First, the 2005-2007 American Community Survey administered by the U.S. Census Bureau (2007) shows Indiana County falls below national averages in racial demographics. Secondly, all universities have unique characteristics which attract different groups of students and faculty. As a result, college towns tend to have unique attributes as a result of the university and its people. Gumprecht (2003) points out that schools differ in the fields of study they offer, they have different missions, their entrance requirements differ, the geographic location from which they attract students, and the school policies and regulations on the lives of the undergraduates attract different students and faculty. Those differences in each school in turn shape the character of the cities in which they are located. In addition, a restaurant

will find the majority of employees are full time college students, leaving them with a large pool of part time employees that have limited attachment to the organization.

Front-of-the House Restaurant Workers

The primary distinction between front and back of the house employees is the amount of customer interaction they have during their shift. The front-of-the-house employees work directly with the customers serving food and beverages. The back-of-the-house employees are out of the sight of the customers and hold titles such as chef, sous chef, dishwasher and prep-persons. Appendix K depicts the front and back of the house areas of a typical restaurant.

Restaurants provide the setting for servers to display a well-developed set of physical, social, and cognitive skills (Rose, 2001). A server that is highly skilled in these areas can earn a substantial income. At times the work requires the server to tolerate rude behavior and insults by customers, it requires a smile when hurt or angry (Rose, 2001). In the U.S. high-status people do not receive tips for their services, therefore, tipping tends to lower the status of the recipient (Whyte, 1948). Servers are economically beholden to others and in many instances must be emotionally subservient. The tipping system is not only an economic problem to the servers, it becomes a social rating system. A tip has traditionally been the reward for good and efficient service but many servers find that customers use it as a way to express subservient attitudes and demand special favors. A degree of emotional distances occurs not only between the customer and the server, but it also occurs between all the servers as they compete for tips. The tips a server makes support his/her living expenses, but the service encounter with the customers can also fulfill personal needs of the server.

Whyte (1948) found in his study that there are three factors that appeared to be most important in understanding waitressing work. First, the waitress needs to have some leadership ability in managing her customers by fitting them into his/her work and not allowing the customer to direct her and control the other work she must complete. Second, the server needs to be integrated into a social group in and outside of work that allows for a social support network and an outlet for tension while at work. Finally, the server needs security in their social position.

Whyte (1948) found that servers from a middle-class socioeconomic background find it difficult to adjust to the lower-status position when working as a server. A server finds themselves taking orders from people whom they feel are their equals or in some cases their inferiors. The customer in most cases does not recognize the former status of a server. The present study includes a large number of college students due to the study's location in a college town. Therefore, it is important to point out that college students working as a server may experience something completely different than other servers who do not plan to move to a higher status job. College students working as servers understand their position as a server is only temporary and part time. College students know that their social status does not depend on their serving job and allows the server to deal with the complaints and feelings of inferiority differently than the permanent servers (Whyte, 1948, p.120).

A server's job satisfaction can be gained from ensuring their customer's satisfaction has been met or some servers may enjoy being in the fast-paced environment. Other servers may enjoy the independence the job gives or the attention they receive from their customers while generating their own money, performing their skill, and receiving a

tip to symbolize a job well done (Rose, 2001). The amount of the tip is interpreted by the servers as how the customer thinks of them, and not necessarily their service. Service workers who depend on tips as a form of payment attempt to control each interaction they have with their customers as means to control their potential financial income (Hall, 1986). When a server is “stiffed” (not given a tip) or receives a tip of inadequate amount a frustrated emotional effect occurs. Not only is the frustration felt because the server feels they have given excellent service, but the tipping system allows for the inferior position in relation to the customers (Whyte, 1948, p.99).

The service provided by a server could not occur without the cognitive dimension, however, the work is so embedded in the routines and social display of the work that the intelligence goes largely unnoticed (Rose, 2001). Other differences between waitresses who are the experienced compared to inexperienced waitresses. Experienced waitresses have adjusted to the policies and standards of the restaurant and tend to make fewer mistakes; therefore, they are less subjected to criticism and enforcement of the rules from the supervisors (Whyte, 1948, p. 109). Servers also do not have the emotional security found in an office or factory job where there are steady work routines and the same social groups of people. A server must adjust to the constant sea of different customers, bartenders, bus staff and supervisors. Workers in the restaurant industry are typically low to semiskilled employees with different cultural and economic backgrounds that become an obstacle for managers. Many times the type of service the employer is expecting the employee to perform has never been experienced by the employee, making it difficult to completely understand the job requirements (Berger, 2009). A skilled supervisor or owner realizes the restaurant’s atmosphere as a pile of nervous tension that relies on all

the workers in the restaurant during a shift and with good supervision the restaurant can be a highly desirable place to work (Whyte, 1948, p.128).

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Due to the complex nature of the service industry, as previously discussed, the current study uses the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), created by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), due to its ability to measure several aspects of work and work environment, and its previous use in measuring restaurant employee satisfaction in the casual restaurant sector (Hancer and George, 2003). The MSQ allows the researcher to obtain a more multifaceted picture of worker satisfaction than just job satisfaction as a whole.

The MSQ was developed from the conceptual framework of the theory of work adjustment, developed during the Work Adjustment Project by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist in 1967. The theory posits the correspondence (or lack of it) between the work personality and the work environment as the principle reason or explanation for observed work adjustment outcomes (Weiss, et al., 1967). Work adjustment depends on how well an individual's abilities correspond to the ability requirements in work, and how well his needs correspond to the reinforcers available in the work environment (Weiss, et al., 1967). The Work Adjustment theory also addresses the probability that the longer a employee stays at a job the more likely they come to some state of adjustment to their work environment (Dawis, England, Lofquist, 1964). On the other hand if the employee leaves or is terminated, this would lead to dissatisfaction. Dawis, England and Lofquist (1964) believed that if it is possible to determine varying amounts of satisfaction then these levels could define the state of the individual's work adjustment at any given

time, and work adjustment is the result of individual interactions and the work environment.

Hancer and George (2003) used the MSQ short form to in their study to examine the job satisfaction of nonsupervisory restaurant employees working in a regional, casual restaurant chain. The restaurant workers expressed a moderately high level of overall job satisfaction. Analysis of the MSQ factors showed the highest satisfaction levels being associated with security, social service, moral values, activity and responsibility, which are all intrinsic to the job. The next two factors were the general satisfaction factors of working conditions and coworkers. The lowest levels of satisfaction scores were both extrinsic; advancement and compensation (Hancer and George, 2003; Ghiselli, La Lopa, and Bai, 2001). Table 3 depicts the MSQ factors and respective items used in this study.

Table 3. *Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Factors and Associated Items*

Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	General Satisfaction
Ability Utilization	Authority	Co-workers
Activity	Advancement	Working Conditions
Achievement	Company Policy	
Independence	Compensation	
Moral Values	Recognition	
Responsibility	Supervision – human relations	
Security	Supervision – technical	
Creativity	Variety	
Social Service		
Social Status		

Feinstein and Vondrasek (2007) found that a significant relationship exists between general job satisfaction using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), and the length of time working at a restaurant. They found that in most cases employees

with less than 6 months of tenure at the same establishment were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. The researchers then found as tenure increased up to one year, satisfaction decreased. However, satisfaction increased when tenure went past one year and leveled off at the three year point. (Feinstein & Vondrasek, 2007, p.18). Ultimately, Feinstein and Vondrasek's (2007) found the length of tenure at the restaurant is statistically associated with job satisfaction. Findings such as those of Feinstein and Vondrasek's (2007) in relation to tenure and job satisfaction raise questions to whether or not employees who are dissatisfied remain at the job long enough to be captured in survey studies. The restaurant industry has over a 100 percent turnover rate (People Report, 2007). Therefore, one could presume that if an employee is dissatisfied in a current position for too long they will leave and find another job in another restaurant quickly. Horton and Ghiselli (1999) point out that the topic of employee turnover in the food and beverage industry has been researched extensively. The literature also shows that low employee satisfaction rates in the restaurant industry result in increased turnover rates, which increase costs to the owners (Koys, 2001).

Definition of Terms

Back-of-the-house (BOH) workers- BOH workers in the restaurant industry are identified as those employees who work in the kitchen or back areas of the restaurant. They do not have interactions with the customers.

Extrinsic satisfaction – Extrinsic job satisfaction elements identified by Weiss, et.

al.(1967), in their development of the Work Adjustment Theory and the

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form. Extrinsic elements in the

MSQ short form include authority, advancement, company policy, compensation, recognition, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical, variety.

Front-of-the-house (FOH) workers- FOH workers in the restaurant industry are identified as employees who work in positions that are in front of the customers and away from the kitchen. The walls of the kitchen create a dividing line where those working in front of it are FOH employees and those working in back of it are back-of-the-house employees.

Intrinsic satisfaction – Intrinsic job satisfaction elements identified by Weiss, et al.(1967), in their development of the Work Adjustment Theory and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form. Intrinsic elements in the MSQ short form include ability utilization, activity, achievement, independence, moral values, responsibility, security, creativity, social service, social status.

Job satisfaction – Job satisfaction is the degree of emotion individuals have toward the organization (Price, 1977).

Organization – A social system designed to attain a relatively specific type of goal, and contributes to a major function of a more comprehensive system such as society (Parsons, 1956).

Research Questions

The research focus of this study is to determine if FOH employees in independent restaurants are more satisfied with their jobs compared to the FOH employees in corporate restaurants. The focus of the research established the research questions: Are independent FOH employees more satisfied with their job than corporate restaurant workers? And, what are the intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction elements they are more

satisfied with at their jobs? Intrinsic factors are related to the job itself and satisfy an individual's psychological needs such as achievement, responsibility, recognition.

Extrinsic factors are related to the job environment including compensation, supervision, working conditions, company policy (Hancer and George, 2003, p. 86).

The research questions investigate whether a restaurant's organizational structure influences the job satisfaction of FOH. A corporate restaurant may be able to provide more extrinsic satisfaction elements to their employees compared to the independent restaurants. This would increase job satisfaction of the corporate employees, and lower the satisfaction of the independent employees. However, in theory a corporate or more bureaucratic organizational structure with several levels of management (Ritzer, 2008) may not provide the intrinsic elements of satisfaction that some employees need to be satisfied with their work. In a corporate restaurant the FOH employees may never come to know or meet the owner of the restaurant. The FOH employees may not even know who owns the restaurant chain because the owner(s) never visit the restaurant. The FOH employees in a corporate restaurant report to the manager or managers assigned to a particular restaurant, who can change frequently. In an independent restaurant where the owner or general manager is present every day, FOH employees can talk directly to the owner about problems, concerns or new ideas. The ability to communicate (intrinsic satisfaction element) with the ultimate authority figure in the company is only found in the independent restaurant sector.

The human relations theoretical perspective posits that employees have individual needs and personal goals that must be met to be satisfied with their work (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939; Barnard, 1938). It is arguable that the intrinsic work elements are

best fulfilled in smaller, independently owned businesses where employees are given more independence to do their work, the opportunity to use their abilities to better the organization and the flexibility to be creative while performing their mundane tasks. The independent restaurants do not have as many levels of management as most corporate restaurants, providing direct access to the owners of the company. These restaurants also do not have as many written policies and procedures in place, which allows employees the ability to utilize their individual skills differently than in a corporate restaurant. On the other hand, the ability of direct access to the owner of a independent company may not be a benefit in all restaurants. Owners have direct access to the employees which can sometimes hinder job satisfaction due the personalities and leadership ability of the owner(s). A corporate restaurant provides a type of barrier between the owner and the employees that might be beneficial in some cases. This study will help to more thoroughly understand which satisfaction elements are more important to the independent restaurant employee.

The theoretical explanation of this study is derived from Weber's theoretic perspectives related to bureaucratic and tall, hierarchical corporate structures. Weber's perspective on bureaucratic organizations would lead us to believe that employees working in a corporate business are satisfied with the planning and control by management, detailed record keeping, and the clear separation of staff and management. This view of organizations is part of the management movements that began in the early 1900's – the scientific management and classic management schools, and the bureaucratic movement (Reis and Pena, 2001). Locke and Whiting (1974) concluded, based on their findings and literature review that white-collar workers are more likely to

derive pleasure from intrinsic satisfaction elements of work such as the work itself and work achievement, while blue-collar workers (such as FOH employees) often get pleasure from extrinsic satisfaction of work such as pay and working conditions (Locke and Whiting, 1974).

Hypothesis

Two hypotheses were tested as part of this study. The first hypothesis states, FOH restaurant employees in independent restaurants will have higher levels of intrinsic job satisfaction than corporate FOH restaurant employees. This hypothesis was tested to determine whether or not intrinsic job factors are more important to FOH restaurant employees in independent restaurants or in corporate run restaurants. As argued in chapter two, there are several reasons why FOH employees in independent restaurants will have higher levels of job satisfaction than FOH employees in corporate run restaurants. These include working in a flatter organization with fewer levels of management, the ability to develop relationships within the organization because there are fewer employees, the ability to use their own judgment when dealing with customers without having to follow standardized policies. The independent variable for the first hypothesis is restaurant type, and the dependent variable is level of intrinsic satisfaction.

The second hypothesis states, extrinsic job satisfaction will be higher for corporate FOH restaurant employees than independent FOH restaurant employees. The second hypothesis was tested to determine whether or not the extrinsic work elements found in the MSQ would be more important to the FOH employees in corporate run restaurants or independent run restaurants. The extrinsic elements of work include factors such as supervision, compensation and benefits. The theoretical perspectives mentioned

previously lead us to believe that the extrinsic work elements are the main reasons FOH restaurant employees would work for a corporate restaurant, possibly sacrificing intrinsic elements of work. The FOH employees in the independent restaurants do not experience the same multiple levels of management, formal divisions of labor or the fringe benefits and increased compensation of those in corporate restaurants. The independent variable for the second hypothesis is restaurant type and the dependent variable is level of extrinsic satisfaction. The extrinsic elements of work include factors such as supervision, compensation and authority.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 4 depicts the conceptual framework for the current study as to how the independent variables of independent and corporate restaurants and the number of employees within those restaurants will influence the levels of job satisfaction that the tipped, FOH employees will experience.

Implications of the Literature

The literature highlights several topics that could have implications to the results of this study. As the largest sector of the restaurant industry, the full-service, casual dining segment has a great effect on the overall success of the industry. Professionals in the restaurant industry spend a great deal of time and resources trying to keep costs as low as possible to increase profit margins. The greatest costs to the restaurants are the labor costs which not only include the required hourly rates per employee, but the resources that are spent on recruitment, selection, and training of each employee. With a turnover rate of over 100 percent in the full-service, casual dining segment, reduction in turnover rates would reduce the labor costs to these establishments. The literature

explains, if improvements to the largest restaurant segment are made the information could be applied to the other restaurant sectors in helping to reduce their labor costs.

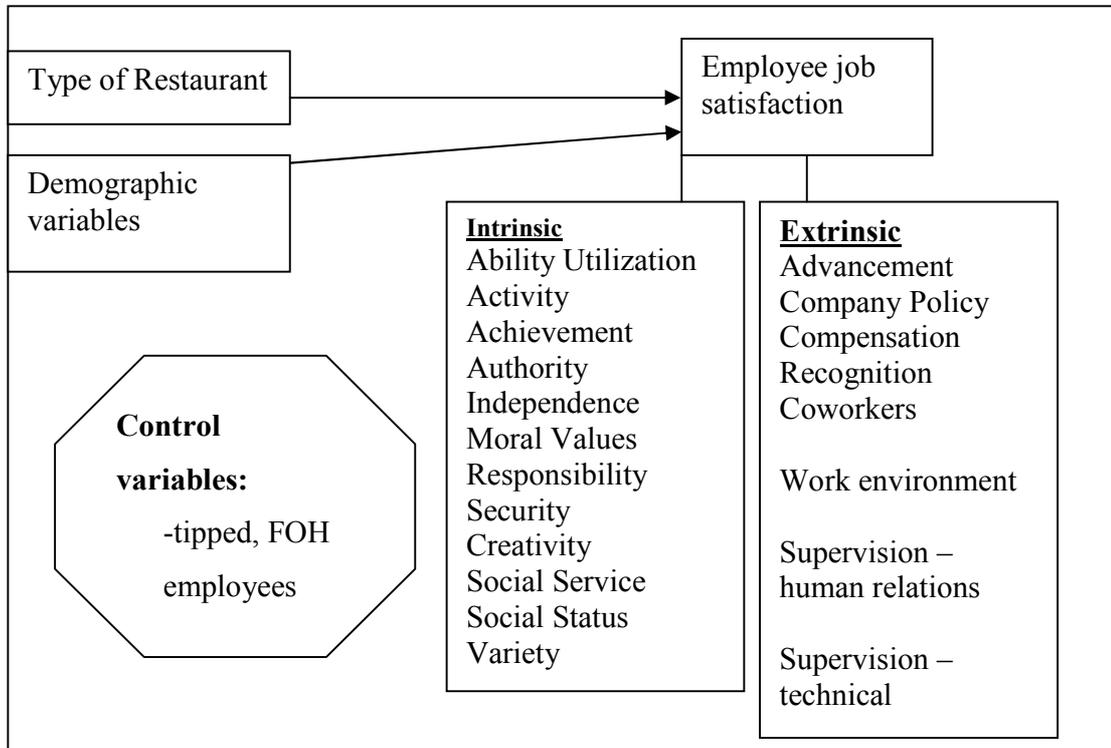


Figure 4. Conceptual framework of the current study.

The literature on job satisfaction is plentiful with each theory specializing in different elements of employee satisfaction. However, it does not appear that one theory or method of analyzing job satisfaction is accepted as the best method of understanding satisfaction. Many of the studies focused on job satisfaction have been adapted to fit the industry the researcher is located. It is also difficult to find a way to specifically analyze the job satisfaction rates of restaurant employees because researchers using the restaurant industry as their sample populations continue to use different evaluation tools to measure satisfaction. Several of the job satisfaction studies in the restaurant industry include

pieces of different job satisfaction questionnaires, surveys and interview questions to create a new evaluation tool. As each researcher continues to create their own evaluation tool, the ability to compare the results of several studies in the industry becomes more difficult. The literature on job satisfaction in the restaurant industry is a collage of results from a variety of different evaluation tools. Other researchers have also identified this problem and have asked that future researchers use one evaluation tool as a way to more efficiently use the data being collected, specifically recommending the MSQ as that evaluation tool. Using the MSQ in this study will begin to create a more systematic approach to evaluating job satisfaction in the restaurant industry.

The job satisfaction literature also shows that determining an employee's satisfaction level may not be as easy as asking an employee twenty questions. The current study is using the MSQ short form which is made up of 20 questions that the subject is asked to respond to using Likert like responses of 1 through 5. A review of the literature reflects the different dimensions that may go into an employee's level of satisfaction, adding to the complexity of a quantitative, job satisfaction study.

The literature also highlights the individualism of job satisfaction, specifically with service industry employees. The pressures of working in a restaurant and directly with the public in a fast paced environment, is not easily handled by everyone. There are personality differences that effect the level of satisfaction a worker has with their work. If an FOH restaurant worker truly enjoys their job, their satisfaction levels may be higher than another FOH restaurant worker who is only working because they need the money. Each FOH restaurant worker is going to have different reasons for working in the restaurant industry. Identifying, categorizing, and incorporating these different reasons

into industry studies could help researchers better understand job satisfaction of restaurant employees.

The literature related to organizations implies that the structure of the organization could play a role in the satisfaction levels of the FOH restaurant employee. If the results of the current study determine that the respondents are not satisfied with the elements of supervision, authority or company policies, this could be another indication that the organization's structure is playing a role in the satisfaction levels of the employees. To determine if the respondents are responding to their work in a corporate, more bureaucratic structure or an independent, more flat organization, the independent variable of "restaurant type" as been incorporated into the current study.

The literature generally implies that determining the job satisfaction of FOH restaurant workers is complex and has a variety of different avenues for researchers to analyze and develop their own theory of job satisfaction. Overall, the literature points to several intrinsic satisfaction elements that will be important to a FOH restaurant employees' satisfaction level (Cobble, 1991). The extrinsic satisfaction elements such as advancement, compensation, supervision, and working conditions, are all elements of work that can change if the server decides to quite one restaurant and move to another to continue making money. The intrinsic satisfaction elements are the reasons why servers stay in one location for a longer period of time.

Summary of the Literature Review

The ease of accessibility and quantity of employees available to researchers through centralized human resources offices and corporate headquarters does not exist in the independent restaurant sector. Small businesses are unable to provide the same

accessibility and resources to researchers. As a result, the voice of the nonsupervisory employees in small, independent restaurants have been left out of job satisfaction studies in the restaurant industry. In response to this void in the research, the current study focuses on this particular group of people.

Research shows that in general, many small businesses are unable to provide the same pay rates and fringe benefits as larger corporations to their employees, to persuade them to stay in their organization. The lack of these types of extrinsic benefits have been found to lead to job dissatisfaction (Brown, D., Hamilton, J., Medoff, J., 1990). However, due to a void in the independent restaurant sector research, it is unknown why employees would select to work in small, independent restaurants. In the past, large corporate run restaurants have given prospective employees the perception that they are more financially stable than a small business due to their brand name, marketing power, and countless number of property locations. Prospective employees searching for certain extrinsic elements of a job look at these franchises or chain corporations with more favorability as an employer due to the companies' ability to offer higher hourly wages, benefits such as vacation time or even discounted health insurance. Adversely, independent restaurant owners may be more willing to provide benefits such as free employee meals, family discounts, individualized incentives and bonuses and flexibility when it comes to work schedules and family-work conflicts. These types of benefits may be more important to workers, therefore, they may choose to work for the independent restaurant owners. Indirect economic evidence of job satisfaction fails to address whether or not there are unmeasured, intangible or intrinsic benefits from working in small

business that leave workers as happy as they might be in large businesses (Brown, et al., 1990).

Every employee receives satisfaction in their work differently. Some employees need to have a job where they can work independently while others want to know that their job is secure and will allow them to use their creativity (Weiss, et al., 1967). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) measures job satisfaction with the specific aspects of work and work environments with two distinct components: intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors were related to the job itself and satisfy an individual's psychological needs such as achievement, responsibility, recognition. Extrinsic factors are related to the job environment including compensation, supervision, working conditions, company policy (Hancer and George, 2003, p. 86).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The study is a quantitative, cross-sectional design, collecting information regarding FOH restaurant employee attitudes. The restaurant industry is a very transient work environment; therefore, to try to conduct a longitudinal study in restaurants in a college town would be extremely difficult when trying to find the subjects. Therefore, due to limited resources, the data were collected at one time and provides enough information to begin to understand the differences in job satisfaction of FOH restaurant employees in independent and corporate restaurants.

Population, Sample, and Data Collection

The population for this study consists of all FOH restaurant employees working in full-service independently and corporate owned restaurants in Indiana, Pennsylvania. The FOH restaurant employees consist of servers, bartenders, host/hostesses, server assistance, and any other position that receives gratuities as part of their compensation. The quick-service or fast-food restaurants were not included because they do not have FOH employees that receive gratuities (or tips) as part of their wages. Also, fast-food restaurants do not have a typical front and back of the house structure because the customers are ordering, paying for and taking their own food to their tables. The fast-food restaurants are a different population and segment of the restaurant industry.

Due to copyright laws, it was necessary to receive permission from the University of Minnesota to use the MSQ short form prior to conducting the study. The MSQ short forms also had to be purchased from the University of Minnesota, and the results of this

study have been requested to be sent back as a way to collect data from the evaluation tool. After receiving authorization from the University of Minnesota to use the MSQ short form, two alterations were made to the questionnaires. The line requesting the subject's name was eliminated to ensure the confidentiality of the respondent, and to eliminate any researcher bias. A number coding system (Table 4) was applied to each the bottom corner of each questionnaire to track the location of the returned questionnaires. Because this study focuses on the differences among the independent and corporate restaurant employees, it was critical to code the questionnaires to know what type or restaurant they were coming back from.

Table 4. *Questionnaire Coding*

Type of Restaurant	Code used on each MSQ
Independent Restaurants	100-199, 1.300-1.399
Corporate Restaurants	200-299, 2.400-2.499

A United States Postal Service post office mail box was also purchased as the return address for the questionnaires to add another layer of confidentiality for the respondents. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was attached to the questionnaire along with a cover letter (per IRB protocol) explaining the reason for the study and how the respondents' confidentiality would be preserved.

Three hundred questionnaires were personally distributed in anticipation of at least a 30% response rate to ensure that a robust data analysis could be possible. The sampling strategy was to deliver the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form to each of the full-service restaurants located in Indiana, Pennsylvania, listed in

Table 5. The restaurants were chosen at random from a local telephone book. If the restaurant was unfamiliar to the researcher, information from the company websites and telephone calls was gathered to determine if the restaurant did fit into the full-service, casual restaurant segment. Sixteen independently run restaurants and ten corporate run restaurants were approached to be part of the study. Two other independently owned restaurants were approached to participate, but I did not receive permission to distribute the questionnaires in their establishment.

I visited each restaurant to meet with the owner or general manager to explain the details of the current study. It was critical that the owners/managers supported the efforts of this project and allow access to their employees. Each of the corporate restaurants (listed in Table 5) required me to first contact either the corporate human resource offices or a Regional Manager to receive permission to distribute the questionnaires in the restaurants. By telephone, I contacted either the corporate restaurants' human resource director or a higher level manager to receive permission. After being granted access to the restaurants, I went back into the restaurant to distribute the questionnaires.

Each restaurant had a unique way of distributing the surveys due to their internal work structures of schedules, employee break rooms, internal communication processes, and the like. For instance some managers distributed the questionnaires immediately and gave the employees time to fill them out before their shift. Other companies attached them to employee paychecks for ease of distribution. I did not want to interfere with the distribution process in case it led to researcher or respondent bias.

Table 5. *Restaurants Included in the Study*

Restaurant Name	Indiana, PA Location
<i>Benjamin's</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
<i>Bruno's Restaurant</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
<i>Coventry Inn</i>	<i>North 6th Street</i>
<i>Cozumel Mexican Restaurant</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
Dingbat's	Indiana Mall
Eat'n Park	Oakland Avenue
<i>Grapevine Restaurant and Lounge</i>	<i>1155 Wayne Avenue</i>
<i>H.B. Culpepper's</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
Hoss's Steak and Sea House	Wayne Avenue
<i>Nap's Cucina Mia</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
Perkin's Restaurant & Bakery	Oakland Avenue
Pizza Hut	Oakland Avenue
Pizza Hut/KFC	Locust Street
Ponderosa	Oakland Avenue
Ruby Tuesday's	Oakland Avenue
<i>Spaghetti Benders</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
<i>The Coney Island Restaurant</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>
<i>The Ironwood Grill</i>	<i>Oakland Avenue</i>
<i>Tom's Pizza Palace</i>	<i>South 7th Street</i>
<i>Train Station Restaurant</i>	<i>Philadelphia Street</i>

Note. Italicized text represents independently owned restaurants.

I requested the questionnaires be distributed immediately to ensure they were not lost or forgotten about by the managers. After a two week time period to give the establishments time to distribute the questionnaires, I revisited the restaurants to ensure the questionnaires had been distributed. All locations confirmed that they had distributed the questionnaires.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study is to determine if the type of restaurant (its organizational structure) has an effect on the job satisfaction of the FOH employees. The data in this study were analyzed to determine if causality can be inferred from the

relationship between the independent variable (restaurant type) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction). To infer the existence of a causal relationship, several factors must exist between the variables besides a good theoretical perspective; a statistical association must exist between the independent and dependent variables, the independent variable must occur prior in time to the dependent variable, and the independent and dependent variable relationship must not be spurious (Monette, Sullivan, DeJong, 2005).

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the effect of restaurant type on job satisfaction, controlling for the demographics of those employees working in a college town. The results of the regression analysis (Chapter 4) provide insight into which restaurant type provides higher levels of intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction.

Variables

The MSQ short form includes demographic information such as gender, date of birth, and education level that were also collected and analyzed. Gender was measured by male or female, coded 0 for male and 1 for female. The respondents were asked to check one box, either male or female. Respondents were asked, “when were you born?” to give their date of birth from which their age was calculated and analyzed in terms of months. Respondents were also asked to circle their highest level of education. The numbers began at 4 and ended at 20. The numbers were grouped as follows; 4 through 8 labeled grade school, 9 through 12 labeled high school, 13 through 16 labeled college, and 17 through 20 labeled graduate of professional school. The exact number they circled was used in analyzed the education level of the respondents. The coding sequence added to each questionnaire determined what type of restaurant the questionnaire the respondent worked. Numbers beginning with 1 represented independent restaurants, and 2

represented corporate restaurants. In the data analysis, independent restaurants were coded 1 and corporate restaurants were coded 0.

Other open-ended questions regarding the participants' specific work were also included; the name of your present job, what do you do on your present job, how long have you been at your present job, is your present job your usual line of work and how long have you been in this line of work? (Weiss, et al., 1967). The original study by Weiss, et al., (1967) included three scales; intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction. The majority of previous research using the MSQ does not include the general satisfaction scale as a significant indicator of satisfaction levels. The original general satisfaction scale consists of two items; coworkers and working conditions. The coefficients and the conceptual definitions for both items justified their inclusion into the extrinsic scale created by Weiss, et al.(1967). The determination was made to include the general satisfaction scale created by Weiss, et al., (1967) in the extrinsic satisfaction scale for this study.

Weiss, et al., (1967) created and tested the original one hundred question MSQ long form consisting of three scales with employees from different industries, at all levels of the organizations. Some of the professions included in their original study included accountants, engineers, full-time nurses, social workers and teachers. The MSQ short form (used in the current study), is a revised version of the original 100 question MSQ long form. Weiss, et al., (1967) created the MSQ short form so more researchers would be inclined to use the questionnaire in their research. The shorter form reduces the amount of time and resources it takes to complete and seems to yield similar results to the long form. Weiss, et al., (1967) tested the MSQ short form and its scales (Table 6) to

assess its reliability, validity and transferability. The groups compared for the F-test were: accountants, buyers, engineers, field representatives, managers, practical nurses, registered (full-time) nurses, registered (part-time) nurses, nurse supervisors, social workers, teachers, bookkeepers, business machine operators, office clerks, secretaries, stenographers, typists, food service workers, housekeeping aides, nursing assistants, bench work assemblers, laborers, packers, small equipment operators, truck drivers, warehousemen, employed-disabled, and employed- non-disabled. In general, reliability coefficients for each short-form scale were high. The intrinsic satisfaction scale was found to have alpha coefficients that ranged from .84 (for two assembler groups) to .91 for engineers. The extrinsic satisfaction scale varied from .77 (for electronics assemblers) to .82 (for engineers and machinists). The median coefficients were .86 for the intrinsic scale, and .80 for the extrinsic scale (Weiss, et al., 1967, p.23-24).

Weiss, et al., (1967) found the validity of the short form in two sources; 1) studies of occupational group difference and 2) studies of the relationship between satisfaction and satisfactoriness (pg. 24). The theory of Work Adjustment specifies satisfaction as the “individual’s evaluation of stimulus conditions in the work environment with reference to their effectiveness in reinforcing his behavior” (Dawis, England, Lofquist, 1964, p. 9). Satisfactoriness is defined as the “evaluations of the individual’s work behavior principally in terms of the quality and quantity of task performance and /or performance outcomes (products, service)” (Dawis, et al., 1964, p. 9).

Ultimately, the researchers found the intercorrelations of the scales (Appendix D) to be satisfactory, the validity to be acceptable and accepted the MSQ short form as an alternative form for the original MSQ long form.

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations and Tests of Group Differences in Means and Variances, for Total Group^e (N=1,723), Short form MSQ

Scale	Total Group Mean	F(6,1716) ^a	p ^b	Total Group Standard Deviation	Chi-square ^c	p ^d
Intrinsic	47.14	38.15	.001	7.42	9.08	
Extrinsic	19.98	22.24	.001	4.78	8.22	
General	74.85	38.01	.001	11.92	2.85	

Note. ^a F-test of significance of difference between means

^b Probability of error in rejecting null hypothesis of no difference in group means, if $p \leq .05$.

^c Chi-square for Bartlett's test of homogeneity of variance

^d Probability of error in rejecting null hypothesis of no difference in group variances, based on Bartlett's test of homogeneity of variance, with 6 degrees of freedom.

^e Total group includes accountants, buyers, engineers, field representatives, managers, practical nurses, registered (full-time) nurses, registered (part-time) nurses, nurse supervisors, social workers, teachers, bookkeepers, business machine operators, office clerks, secretaries, stenographers, typists, food service workers, housekeeping aides, nursing assistants, bench work assemblers, laborers, packers, small equipment operators, truck drivers, warehousemen, employed-disabled, and employed- non-disabled.

Weiss, et al. (1967).

Hirschfeld's (2000) study was specifically conducted to validate the usefulness of the MSQ short form and to confirm Weiss, et al. (1967) and other researcher's confidence in the reliability and validity of the MSQ short form. Hirschfeld (2000) used two samples, full-time financial services employees and adults working full-time and enrolled in graduate and undergraduate classes at a State university. Hirschfeld (2000) found the alphas for the two difference samples to be good. For sample 1, the short form MSQ intrinsic scale alpha was .85, the extrinsic scale alpha coefficient was .82. For sample 2, the alpha coefficient for the intrinsic scale was .84, and the extrinsic scale alpha coefficient was .88. Hirschfeld's (2000) analyses included a confirmatory factor analysis that confirmed the discriminant validity of the intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction for the original (long form) MSQ subscales as well as the revised (short form) subscales (p.

264). The study confirmed the reliability of the MSQ short form and long form and helped to support future studies using the MSQ short form.

The MSQ short form has been the survey tool of choice for several hospitality industry researchers due to the short length of time it takes for survey participants to fill out the questionnaire (5-7 minutes), the 5th grade reading level, and the adaptability to use the tool with supervisory and non-supervisory employees. Hancer and George (2003) used the MSQ short form to determine job satisfaction of nonsupervisory employees of a regional restaurant chain. Their principal component analysis of the 20 MSQ items resulted in a four-factor structure that explained 55.5% of the variance within the short form items (Appendix E). Their first two “factors were named Extrinsic Job Satisfaction and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction, the third factor was called Satisfaction From the Nature of the Job, and the fourth factor was named Perceived Autonomy” (Hancer and George, 2003, p.93). Hancer and George (2003) also obtained similar satisfaction responses with MSQ items with social service and moral values having the highest mean values out of the 20 MSQ items (Appendix F). Overall job satisfaction resulted in a Cronbach’s alpha of .90.

In another study, Testa, Williams, and Pietrzak (1998) selected the MSQ short form as the valid instrument to establish criterion-related validity when developing the Cruise Line Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (CLJSQ) due to its high validity in various work groups. After administering the MSQ short form simultaneously with their newly developed CLJSQ, the median reliability coefficients for the MSQ were .86 for the intrinsic satisfaction scale and .87 for the extrinsic satisfaction scale.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

Introduction

In this chapter, I present the outcome of an exploratory factor analysis on the MSQ short form items to determine if the factor structure is the same for my sample as in previous research. In addition, I report results of an OLS multiple regression analysis of the dependent variables, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The major independent variable is restaurant type (independent or corporate owned restaurants). The job satisfaction items that make up the twenty question MSQ short form are split into intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction scales. The intrinsic items are ability utilization, activity, achievement, independence, moral values, responsibility, security, creativity, social service, social status (Weiss, et al., 1967). The extrinsic items are authority, advancement, company policy, compensation, recognition, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical, variety, working conditions, and co-workers (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 7 identifies the scale, survey question, mean and standard deviation for each of the twenty elements of the questionnaire. It is notable that the mean scores are all above “3” suggesting that on average the workers are somewhat satisfied. The highest levels of satisfaction ($x=4.19$) pertain to the workers’ ability to maintain moral values while at work, the chance to do things for other people (social service, $x=4.12$) and getting along with co-workers ($x=4.09$). The lowest levels of satisfaction pertain to the chance for advancement at the current job ($x = 3.10$), the amount of compensation for the

amount of work performed ($x=3.23$), and the authority to tell other people what to do ($x=3.31$).

Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations for MSQ Items

Likert Statement (n=98)	Label	Scale	Summary Statistic (n=98)	
			Mean	SD
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	Activity	Intrinsic	3.71	.952
2. The chance to work alone on the job	Responsibility	Intrinsic	3.76	.995
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	Variety	Intrinsic	3.82	1.029
4. The chance to be “somebody” in the community	Social status	Intrinsic	3.39	1.118
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers	Supervision-human resource	Extrinsic	3.54	1.278
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	Supervision – technical	Extrinsic	3.65	1.228
7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience	Moral values	Intrinsic	4.19	.833
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	Security	Intrinsic	3.99	1.040
9. The chance to do things for other people	Social service	Intrinsic	4.12	.803
10. The chance to tell people what to do	Authority	Intrinsic	3.31	.935
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	Ability utilization	Intrinsic	3.62	1.144
12. The way company policies are put into practice	Company policy	Extrinsic	3.33	1.191
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	Compensation	Extrinsic	3.23	1.291

14. The chances for advancement on this job	Advancement	Extrinsic	3.10	1.180
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	Independence	Intrinsic	3.73	1.145
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	Creativity	Intrinsic	3.50	1.178
17. The working conditions	Working conditions	General	3.80	1.103
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	Co-workers	General	4.09	1.104
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	Recognition	extrinsic	3.48	1.254
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	Achievement	Intrinsic	3.54	1.067

Note. Response categories were coded 1= very dissatisfied, 2=dissatisfied, 3=neutral, 4=satisfied, 5=very satisfied.

Representativeness of the Sample

Three hundred MSQ's were distributed and one hundred and one questionnaires were returned. One questionnaire was completed by an assistant restaurant manager and was, therefore, disqualified from the sample. This study focuses only on the nonsupervisory FOH employees. The overall response rate was 33 % (Appendix B). The final sample included responses from one hundred FOH employees in 20 restaurants. Twelve of the twenty restaurants (60% of the restaurants) are independently owned and provide full, table service with no buffet service. None of the independent restaurants in the sample offered a buffet as part of their dining option as did some of the corporate restaurants. Eight corporate owned restaurants (40% of the restaurants) were included in the study. Six of the eight corporate owned restaurants provide table and a buffet dining

option and provided 57% of the overall FOH responses. Two corporate owned restaurants have table service only with no buffet service.

The service style of the restaurant can be used as an indication of how much work or skill is required of the restaurant employee. Restaurants offering a buffet as part of their menu options require less skill from the FOH worker compared to the work involved in a full, table service restaurant menu. Buffets require the FOH restaurant workers to take empty plates from tables and fill drink orders with little communication with the customers. In comparison, the table service restaurants require the FOH employees to interact and build a relationship with the customers. The current study has no independent restaurants with buffets as a dining option. Therefore, the independent FOH employees in the study experience different interactions with their guests compared to the corporate FOH employees. The independent FOH employees provide a higher level of service and require a different skill set compared to the service delivery of the corporate FOH that have buffets as a dining option.

The demographics of the study are compared to national demographic figures in Table 8. However, a note must be made that the national demographic figures are inclusive of all food service workers or a sub-category identified as “eating and drinking places.” The national data do not specify between FOH and BOH employees or ownership type. In terms of gender, the current study’s sample consisted of a majority of females (82%), with 18% being males. The National Restaurant Associations’ (2006) *State of the Restaurant Industry Workforce* report shows that of workers in eating and drinking places, 53% of females and 47% are male. Thus, the study sample is biased by having a greater percentage of females than the national average. Nationally, 41% of

typical foodservice workers are under the age of 25 (National Restaurant Association, 2006). In this study, the mean age of the participants was 25.5 years old. This study's sample is somewhat older than the National average.

Table 8. *Demographic and Descriptive Variable Results*

Demographics	N	% of total population	Industry averages
<i>Gender</i>			
Male	18	18%	47%
Female	82	82%	53%
<i>Age, mean = 25.5</i>			
<18	0	0%	11%
< 20	24	24%	22%
18 to 24	61	63.5%	36%
25 to 29	17	18%	12%
30 to 34	5	5%	9%
35 to 39	4	4%	8%
40 to 44	5	5%	8%
45 to 49	3	3%	6%
50 to 54	1	1%	4%
55 to 59	0	0%	3%
60 to 64	0	0%	2%
65 and over	0	0%	2%
<i>Education</i>			
Seventh to eleventh grade	3	3%	25%
Twelfth grade	11	11%	36%
College			
13 th year	8	8%	Some college –no degree = 22%
14 th year	23	23%	
15 th year	27	27%	
16 th year	18	18%	Associate degree = 5%
Graduate/Professional School			Bachelor's degree = 8%
17 th year	2	2%	Master's and higher = 1%
18 th year	7	7%	
19 th year	0	0%	
20 th year	1	1%	
<i>Restaurant Service Style</i>			
table service with buffet	57	57%	
No buffet	43	43%	
<i>Restaurant Type</i>			
Independent	38	38%	
Corporate	62	62%	

The education levels of the respondents for this study are higher than the national average education levels. The majority (78%) of the restaurant employees in the current study have had at least 13 years of education. The modal categories occur in their 14th year of education (23%) or 15th year of education (27%). The National Restaurant Association (2006) found in their industry study that the highest educational level (35%) of foodservice workers was in the “high school graduate” category. The second highest was the “seventh to eleventh grade” at 23% and third highest was “some college-no degree” at 22%. One reason the educational levels are higher in this study sample than the national average is the location of the study in a college town where the level of education among job candidates will be higher. Another reason is the national education levels are inclusive of quick-service and table-service restaurants, whereas the current study does not include quick-service restaurants. The quick-service or fast-food industry hires more high school age students than table-service restaurants due to their style of service and food preparation (DiPietro, R. B. & Milman, A., 2008). Although gender, age and educational levels of the respondents are somewhat different from national averages for foodservice workers, they are likely similar to foodservice employees in college towns. With no previous research focused on foodservice employees in college towns, however, it is difficult to know how representative the study’s sample is.

The results from the open-ended questions (Table 9), how long have you been at your present job; What is your present job your usual line of work; were found to be useful in the analysis of the quantitative results of the study. It could have been assumed that the respondents would have identified themselves as students due to the location of the study; however, 51% stated their usual line of work was as a server and only 19%

identified themselves as a student. The average tenure at the present job was 36 months, whereas the average length of time in this line of work was 82 months. Thus, the respondents, on average, were fairly stable member of the workforce.

Table 9. *Responses from Open-ended Questions by Study Participants*

MSQ Question	Cumulative Responses
How long on present job (months)?	Average 36 months (3 years)
Minimum	1 month
Maximum	300 months (25 years)
Standard Deviation	59
What is your usual line of work?	
Hospitality: Server	51%
Bartender	4%
Hostess	3%
Student	19%
Other	8%
No answer	15%
How long in this line of work? (months)	Average 82 months (6.8 years)
Minimum	1 month
Maximum	300 months (25 years)
Standard Deviation	74

Scale Validation

An exploratory factor analysis for the 20 MSQ items was conducted to determine the factor structure for the current study's data. The factor analysis was conducted using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization (Appendix I). Analyses resulted in four components with loadings greater than one, which is sometimes used as the cut off for determining what factors to use. The results from the Principal Component Analysis were used to develop and analyze the scales for this study. The scree plot (Appendix H) showed that the first two components should definitely be extracted. However, depending on where one considers the "elbow" to be on the plot, components 3 and 4 could be also

be extracted. Initially all four components were extracted and used to develop new scales with the intention to eliminate components 3 and 4 if they were not significant in understanding the underlying dimensions of the scales. However, conceptually the new scales developed from components 3 and 4 did help to in the analysis and remained as part of the findings for the study.

From the four extracted components, the satisfaction factors that had loadings resulting in .60 or higher were used to create new four new scales (Table 11). The alpha's for the new scales ranged from .87 to .481. The two lowest scales with alpha's of .481(tipped wages) and .551(teamwork) were of concern due their two item structure and low alphas. Consideration once again was given to eliminating the two new scales (tipped wages, teamwork); however, conceptually they fit into the overall analysis of the study. To determine if including loadings of .40 or higher would improve the results of the regression analysis, the additional satisfaction elements were added to the scales and new regression analyses were conducted. Logically, there were slight improvements in the R-squared and beta results of the models because more satisfaction elements were added to each scale. However, the increases when using all of the .40 and higher loadings were not significant enough to change the overall conceptual results of the models. Therefore Table 12 represents the results of the regression analysis inclusive of components with a .45 and higher loading. A second analysis of the four extracted components was also conducted using a Principal Axis Factoring (Table 10) method with a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization. The results of the Principal Axis Factoring (Appendix G) produced similar results to the Principal Component Analysis to confirm the results.

Table 10. *Loading of Rotated Components*

Rotated Component Matrix^a				
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Activity	.466	.369	.080	.112
responsibility	-.008	.378	.708	.208
Variety	.186	.580	.312	.258
social status	.339	.754	.059	.001
supervision-hr	.867	.018	.214	.199
supervision-technical	.725	.148	.319	.298
moral values	.345	.304	-.117	.476
Security	.016	.225	.178	.767
social service	.067	.589	-.031	.393
authority	.127	.585	.373	-.116
ability utilization	.019	.757	.221	.312
company policy	.552	.237	.451	.293
compensation	.402	-.028	.152	.627
advancement	.632	.445	.077	.214
independence	.397	.468	.404	.338
creativity	.347	.386	.411	.324
Working conditions	.413	.154	.472	.416
coworkers	.367	-.030	.750	-.041
recognition	.764	.296	.139	-.031
achievement	.474	.683	.041	.112

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations

Table 11. *New Scales Using .60 and Higher Satisfaction Element Loadings*

Component	Scale label	Elements from MSQ	Respondent Mean Score from MSQ	Cronbach's alpha	Mean Score	SD
#1	Supervision	supervision-human resources	3.54	.87	13.83	4.16
		supervision – technical	3.65			
		Advancement	3.10			
		Recognition	3.48			
#2	Self worth	social status	3.39	.812	10.59	2.82
		ability	3.62			
		utilization	3.54			
#3	Team work	Responsibility	3.76	.551	7.86	1.73
		Coworkers	4.09			
#4	Tipped wages	Security	3.99	.481	7.26	1.89
		Compensation	3.23			

Note. Light grey (yellow) highlight= intrinsic components, dark grey (blue) highlight = extrinsic components

The newly generated scale labeled “supervision” is composed of four MSQ elements; supervision-human resources, supervision –technical, advancement, and recognition. Each of these job satisfaction elements are part of the extrinsic scale originally created by Weiss, et al., (1967) and have mean scores ranging from 3.10 to 3.65 on a 5-point Likert scale, indicating a neutral to satisfied response from the sample respondents. These indicators would lead one to believe the FOH employees are not completely satisfied with their current supervisors but they are not completely dissatisfied either. The respondents also do not see much room for advancement from their current positions but are not completely dissatisfied with the prognosis.

The other element in the “supervision” scale is recognition. Again, the respondents’ mean score was in the neutral category for recognition which indicates they are not satisfied or dissatisfied with the level of recognition they are receiving from their supervisors. As tipped employees, FOH employees do not necessarily need recognition from the company or a supervisor because the customers are the ones giving them recognition via the gratuity left for them when they have completed their work. Being recognized as a good server from the customers may be more important than being recognized by the supervisors because a server can earn more money if the customers recognize their hard work.

The second new scale is labeled “self worth” due to the three elements comprising it, social status, ability utilization and achievement. All three of these job satisfaction elements are part of Weiss, et al., (1967) intrinsic scale. The mean scores of these elements ranged from 3.39 to 3.62 on a 5-point Likert scale, which indicates the respondents are mostly neutral to satisfied by the way they are able to use their abilities on the job and the sense of accomplishment they receive from the job. The lowest ranked item was social status or the chance to be “somebody” in the community. The neutral response leads one to believe that these three elements may not be of great importance to the respondents in the hospitality industry. For some people jobs in the restaurant industry are just stepping stones to another job or career, and in many situations the schedule of a restaurant job fit well into families’ lives. The need or desire to involve themselves in the community to gain a sense of accomplishment from their current job is not necessarily an important aspect of job satisfaction.

The third new scale created is labeled “teamwork” due to the two job satisfaction elements, responsibility (intrinsic) and coworkers (extrinsic). The MSQ question related to responsibility asked the study participants their satisfaction when it comes to their chance to work alone on the job; the mean score was 3.76. Once again this neutral to satisfied response on the 5-point Likert scale indicates that responsibility may not be as important to the FOH employees. However, the highest mean for any of the new scales pertained to co-workers and the way everyone gets along on the job ($x = 4.09$). Combining responsibility and coworkers in this manner may show that FOH employees do not feel they are working alone, but are working with a team of people. In the restaurant industry, a good FOH staff understands the importance of working together to ensure the customers are satisfied.

The fourth new scale, labeled “tipped wages”, is composed of security (intrinsic) and compensation (extrinsic). Security had a mean score of 3.99 and compensation a 3.23 on the 5-point Likert scale. The combination of these two elements may be the result of gratuity as part of the FOH’s wages. FOH employees in Pennsylvania are only required to make a base hourly rate of \$2.83, with tips filling in the gap to the state minimum wage of \$7.25 per hour. It appears that the respondents are not satisfied with the amount of money they are making for the amount of work they must do. There could be several reasons for this low level of satisfaction. Some FOH employees may feel the tipped base rate of \$2.83 per hour may not be enough money or that the customers are not leaving enough of a gratuity.

The respondents were not asked if they were required to “pool” their tips at the restaurant they were working in, which could have had an effect on the compensation

variable. In some restaurants the FOH employees are required to “pool” their tips to encourage teamwork. At the end of the shift the money is divided up among the employees. So, if one employee works harder than another and receives more tips, they still end the shift with an equal amount of money. If a server is not feeling well and barely does any work on the shift, they are still going to receive the same amount of money of their coworkers who worked harder. “Pooling” tips can be a positive experience for some employees, while others will not take a serving job in a restaurant that “pools”.

The other negative effect on job satisfaction that occurs in the restaurant industry is the obligation to “tip out” other staff members. When there are several FOH positions working together such as servers, bussers, bartenders, server assistances, food runners and hosts, there are usually company policies requiring the server share their tips at the end of the shift with the other employees who assisted them. Dissatisfaction occurs when the server must do all of the work, with little help from the others, and still has to share their tips. Corporate restaurants with elaborate computer systems will know how much each server must “tip out” due to their total sales at the end of the shift. In independent restaurants there will not be as many “helpers” for a server to “tip out”. Therefore, they are able to keep more of their own money each shift.

These different situations that affect the financial well-being of the employees can determine their job satisfaction levels, and may explain why many servers prefer smaller restaurants to work in compared to larger restaurants. However, the high level of job security shows that employees feel they are receiving steady work. Combined, the two elements may show that the FOH employees are receiving enough hours on the schedule

but are not satisfied with the amount of money they are making which is usually a result of low tips in the restaurant industry.

Regression Results

Table 12 shows the results for six OLS multiple regressions in which each of the satisfaction scales were regressed on type of restaurant and three demographic control variables, age, gender, and educational level. Model 1 is a regression of the intrinsic subscale on the four variables and as predicted the independent restaurant workers were more intrinsically satisfied than the corporate workers. The strongest predictor was age with the results indicating that as the FOH employees increase in age the intrinsic elements of their job become increasingly important to their satisfaction levels. Females were also found to have slightly higher levels of intrinsic satisfaction while education was the weakest variable in the model. Overall, the intrinsic satisfaction model had a good R-square of .244 that was driven primarily by age.

Model 2 is a regression the extrinsic satisfaction subscale with the four independent variables resulting in a weak R-square of .018. All four of the independent variables were found to have weaker relationships with the extrinsic subscale. None of the variables were significant, and the beta for age was weak (.13). Model 3 is a regression of the supervision subscale (consisting of all extrinsic items from the MSQ) and was found to be weak with an R-squared of .041. None of the independent variables were significant with the supervision subscale, and similar to Model 2 the only beta with positive strength was the variable age. Overall, Models 2 and 3 which are comprised of all extrinsic satisfaction items from the MSQ did not produce results that can be used to answer the hypotheses of the current study.

Model 4 is a regression of the self-worth subscale on the four variables with significant relationships found with age and education. The strength of age in Model 4 was good and indicates that the self worth subscale becomes increasingly important to FOH employees as they age. However, the strength and direction of education indicates that the FOH's level education may not be a determining factor of self worth satisfaction items (social status, ability utilization, achievement). Overall, Model 4 had an R-squared of .159 and was driven by age similar to Model 1. Both Models 1 and 4 are comprised of all intrinsic satisfaction items from the MSQ.

Model 5 regressed team work with all four variables resulting in an R-squared of .082. A significant relationship was found with restaurant type indicating that the independent FOH employees are more satisfied with the responsibility they have at work and their relationship of their coworkers compared to the corporate FOH employees. Responsibility as an item on the MSQ is an intrinsic satisfaction item, and coworker is an extrinsic satisfaction item. Therefore, Model 5 does not completely support the hypotheses of this study because the teamwork subscale is a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction items. However, the restaurant type did influence the model therefore is worthy in noting for future research.

Model 6 has an model with an R-squared of .085 that is driven by restaurant type and age. Model 6 regressed the tipped wages subscale with the four independent variables and found restaurant type and age to be significant and both having position direction. Similarly to Model 5, the tipped wages subscale is comprised of an intrinsic (security) and an extrinsic (compensation) satisfaction item from the MSQ. Therefore, Model 6 does not support the hypotheses of this study however still holds useful

information for future research focused on the importance of job security and compensation in independent restaurants and older FOH workers.

Summary

The independent variable, restaurant type was found to have a significant relationship in three of the six subscale models. Although the level of significances and the strength of those relationships were not found to be very strong it is of interest to note that restaurant type was only found in the three models that included intrinsic satisfaction items.

Restaurant type was not found to be significant in the extrinsic model. The variable age was similar to restaurant type and was also significant in three of the six models, all of which had intrinsic satisfaction items. The age variable has the strongest relationships in the models with all positive directions.

Table 12. *OLS Regressions: Satisfaction Scales Regressed on Type of Restaurant and Demographics*

	Model 1: Intrinsic R ² = .244			Model 2: Extrinsic R ² = .020			Model 3: Supervision R ² = .042			Model 4: Self worth R ² =.225			Model 5: Team work R ² =.083			Model 6: Tipped wages R ² =.094		
Independent Variable	B	Beta	Sig. (1-tail)	B	Beta	Sig. (1-tail)	B	Beta	Sig. (1-tail)	B	Beta	Sig. (1-tail)	B	Beta	Sig. (1-tail)	B	Beta	Sig. (1-tail)
Restaurant Type	2.69	.159	.091	.246	.017	.872	-.873	-.077	.465	1.667	-.152	.108	1.05	-.205	.047	.732	.149	.148
Age	.410	.387	.000*	.114	.126	.237	.127	.178	.094	.236	.343	.000	.049	.151	.143	.062	.203	.052
Gender	2.72	.131	.164	-1.08	-.60	.568	-.336	-0.24	.820	2.52	.186	.050	-.130	-.020	.841	-.368	-.061	.550
Education	-.743	-.158	.093	-.194	-.048	.647	-.121	-.038	.715	-.431	-.141	.134	-.140	-.098	.336	-.212	-.155	.131

Note: dummy variable is 1 for type

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY

Introduction

Age as the most important demographic variables in the results came as a surprise. The hypothesis of the current study does not focus on age as a determining factor in the satisfaction levels of FOH employees. To determine if the findings in regards to age as an indicator of job satisfaction in this study were similar to other researchers' findings, a review of the literature was completed. Rhodes (1983) completed one of the most extensive literature reviews focused on age-related differences in work attitudes and behaviors. She found a positive relationship between age and overall job satisfaction, however, it was not due to pay, promotions, coworkers, and supervision which are all extrinsic factors. The majority of subjects in the studies who were highly satisfied with their work reported intrinsic as opposed to extrinsic rewards as their most preferred job aspect. (Rhodes, 1983).

White and Spector (1987) also found significant results when regressing overall job satisfaction on age. They conducted a multiple regression and entered all of their satisfaction elements together; congruence, work locus of control, salary, and organizational tenure and found that each element made a significant contribution to their hypothesis except age. Therefore, they concluded that the effects of age were indirect and only acting through the other elements of satisfaction. Age, by itself as the independent variable was unable to explain satisfaction. The results of their study found that older workers are more satisfied because they have higher salaries, higher positions in the

workplace, more internal locus of control, longer tenure, and greater congruence (White and Spector, 1987). Roelen, et al. (2008) also found age to be a significant factor when analyzing the job satisfaction of mental health workers. They developed their own 15 scale survey from the dimensions found in previous researchers' findings.

The literature review of age in relation to job satisfaction resulted in both significant and insignificant results of the effects age has on worker's satisfaction levels. Many of the studies that did focus on age used common sense logic or really could not explain why age turned up as a significant variable when discussing their findings. There were no studies found that specifically focused on the restaurant industry and how age affects FOH restaurant workers. With findings that are speculative and inconclusive, it is obvious that age as a predictor of FOH restaurant worker satisfaction could be a useful topic for future restaurant industry research.

Gender and education were the least influential variables in the regression analysis of the six models. Gender was not found to be significant in any model. Education was significant in two of the six models, however, the relationships were weak and the direction was negative in at least one model. And similar to restaurant type and age, education was only found to be significant in models with intrinsic satisfaction items. The sample population consisted of a majority of women, however, the work of a FOH restaurant worker is the same regardless of gender. Therefore, a difference in satisfaction levels by gender may not be expected. With questions on the MSQ asking gender neutral questions, one would assume that gender would not appear as a determination of satisfaction. Education, however, was higher for the sample population compared to the restaurant workers on a national level. Therefore, I expected to see some

type of effect on the satisfaction levels. Although weak, the education level was only significant in the intrinsic models, similar to the other variables. One could assume that FOH employees with higher education levels have other options in finding employment and look for restaurant work due to the intrinsic satisfaction elements.

One of the newly created scales, teamwork made up of an intrinsic (responsibility) and extrinsic (coworkers) satisfaction element, was found to be significantly predicted by restaurant type. Specifically, respondents from independent restaurants had higher levels of satisfaction with teamwork than respondents from corporate restaurants. Since teamwork was not a primary variable in this study, a review of the literature was not conducted before the data analysis. Therefore, a review of the literature on teamwork in the restaurant industry was conducted to determine if the results from the current study's data results were similar to other researchers' findings.

Ingram and Jones (1998), point out that despite the many claims that teamwork and employee empowerment can improve a restaurant organization's performance and the employees' satisfaction, it appears that food service firms (meaning corporate run restaurants) are not changing their traditional ways of working. The focus of Ingram and Jones' (1998) findings came from an investigation of a corporate restaurant chain. They observed for a corporate run restaurant to loosen the "reins of control" would make radical internal changes in the organization and would require a departure from traditional methods, carrying an element of risk for the staff and management (Ingram and Jones, 1998). Lashley (1995) points out that in the hospitality industry, empowering the employees engages them emotionally so they are willing to accept personal responsibility for the success of their customer interactions. Empowering employees is

more prevalent in flatter organizations, where the levels of management are less likely to allow the FOH employees to take responsibility for their customer interactions (Lashley, 1995).

Whyte's (1948) analysis of the unique dimensions within a restaurant focuses on the social status positions of the FOH restaurant worker. His observations are relevant to the teamwork that occurs in a restaurant. The better the entire staff can work together, the more efficient the customers' experiences will be, and the satisfaction of the FOH restaurant work will also increase. Whyte (1948) found that each employee working in a restaurant holds a position of social status, and divisions of authority and power are created no matter the size of the restaurant. In the BOH, the chef and his staff believe they have a higher social status than the FOH employees. And in the FOH, there are several different positions such as cashiers, bartenders, host that feel they have a higher level of social status than the servers. Ultimately, a server has one of the lowest levels of social status in the organization, with the dishwasher having the lowest. In a formal organization, demands would be made from the highest status positions to the lowest levels. However, in the restaurant industry the customer holds an additional position of status that can make demands at any level within the organization, but mainly at the service level with the servers. When a customer initiates a demand to the server, the server must then make a prompt demand on a higher status position (chefs, cashiers, etc.). These demands have a natural tendency to upset the status levels of the organization and can create animosity among the restaurant workers. If the demands are not handled appropriately the probability of the request being fulfilled is slowed down by the person in the higher status position to re-assert their status position. If this type of behavior is

allowed by the owners and managers, it can lead to decreased job satisfaction among servers and eventually in turnover issues (Whyte, 1948). The teamwork among the different areas (FOH and BOH) of a restaurant is critical to the overall success of the business. More importantly, a restaurant where the status levels of the workers do not interfere with delivering the products and services will be successful in retaining their FOH employees. The current study found that respondents in independent restaurants are more satisfied with teamwork, and satisfaction with coworkers and responsibility are the two key elements in the scale. The independent restaurants are smaller with fewer employees in both the FOH and BOH, all working together more frequently and having more personal interactions with one another than in a corporate restaurant. Teamwork in an independent restaurant is critical to its success so finding that the FOH employees are more satisfied than the corporate FOH is understandable, and an interesting result from this study.

As predicted, restaurant type was found to be an important variable when analyzing the satisfaction levels of FOH employees especially with the intrinsic satisfaction items of the MSQ. Restaurant type was only found to be significant with the intrinsic scales, which does not undeniably confirm the prediction that independent, FOH workers have higher intrinsic satisfaction levels compared to corporate FOH employees. However, the results of the regression analysis do support the idea that a restaurant's organizational structure may be an important variable when determining FOH job satisfaction.

Review of Hypothesis

Age was found to be a greater factor in job satisfaction than previously thought within the study's sample population. The study shows that age was significant with Weiss, et al's, (1967) original intrinsic scale and two of the newly created scales of self worth and tipped wages. The positive effect of age on satisfaction makes logical sense with FOH employees in the restaurant industry. The restaurant industry is a complex field of work that accepts employees of almost any age and educational background. The broad spectrum of employees' ages places them at different points in their lives with different responsibilities, resulting in different reasons for working in a restaurant. Some employees may be supplementing their income while in school while other employees are trying to earn more money as a second income and do not expect to stay at the job for a long period of time. On the other hand, other restaurant employees need the job as their primary source of income for themselves and their family and remain at the same restaurant for several years. The data show that as a server ages, the intrinsic elements of job satisfaction becomes more important to them.

Focusing on the theoretical frameworks of organizational structures, a corporate structure that is tall with more layers of management, would lead us to believe that intrinsic work elements are not as important to those working in those restaurants as compared to workers in smaller, more flat structures (such as independent restaurants). Weber's perspective on bureaucratic organizations and the alienation that occurs with employees, would lead us to believe that employees working in a corporate business would not be concerned with creativity in their work, the use of their abilities in the work they perform or other intrinsic work elements. Although the tall, corporate structure is

more ideal for a successful company, the bureaucratic structure can alienate the employees creating a desire to leave because a sense of connectivity to the organization does not exist.

On the other side of the spectrum, the human relations theory leads us to believe that employees have individual needs and personal goals that must be met to be satisfied with their work. The smaller, independent restaurants are structured in a way that provides employees with greater autonomy to do their work, creativity while performing their mundane tasks, and the feeling of being an important part of the organization. This study found this to be true, that independent restaurant employees are more satisfied with the intrinsic elements of their work.

Restaurant type (independent restaurants), age and education were found to predict job satisfaction therefore, the hypothesis that the intrinsic elements of job satisfaction are more important among the independent FOH employees was supported. Another important finding of this study is that employees in independent restaurants were more likely to be satisfied with teamwork. The teamwork subscale was comprised of the “responsibility” and “coworkers” items from the original MSQ. The number of FOH employees working at one time on the same shift in an independent restaurant is normally smaller than a corporate restaurant due to the size of the establishment. In an independent restaurant the employees will also work together more frequently on the same shifts due to fewer employees, creating a stronger working relationship or weaker relationships if the employees do not get along with each other. The strong working relationships create an environment for effective teamwork which is essential in an independent restaurant.

All of the areas (FOH and BOH) within the restaurant must work together effectively to ensure each customer is satisfied with their dining experience.

The theoretical perspectives mentioned in chapter two leads us to believe that the extrinsic work elements are the main reasons FOH restaurant employees would work for a corporate restaurant, possibly sacrificing intrinsic elements of work. The FOH employees in the independent restaurants do not experience the same multiple levels of management, formal divisions of labor or the fringe benefits and increased compensation of those in corporate restaurants. The results of this study show that restaurant type was not a significant predictor of extrinsic sources of satisfaction. Therefore, the second hypothesis was not supported. The data support the idea that FOH employees in the independent restaurants are willing to sacrifice extrinsic work elements such as compensation and benefits for the intrinsic benefits.

Scope, Limitations, Delimitations

The scope of the study was restricted to the variables of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction elements of FOH and tipped employees in independent and corporate owned restaurants. The scope of the study population was also restricted to restaurant employees located in the western Pennsylvania college town of Indiana, Pennsylvania. This restriction was due to time, cost, and accessibility to the employees.

The limitations of the study include the sample size, the location, the restaurants, the survey questionnaires and the potential for researcher bias. The sample size for this study was the greatest limitation. Although the response rate was good (33%), the total number of useable surveys returned (100) limited the depth of analysis. Therefore the conclusions are tentative and cannot be generalized throughout the restaurant industry.

The location of the study was in a typical college town that was accessible for the researcher. The concern with the location is the lack of diverse racial demographics, as found by the American Community Survey administered by the United States Census Bureau. Secondly, the unique characteristics of college towns and the people that comprise the communities are different than other suburban communities. Including the number of part-time FOH workers who are enrolled in college full-time and work in a restaurant part-time. There is a potential for the data to be influenced by the location, however, it is unclear as to the magnitude of its influence on the study's results.

The restaurants vary in style of service, the food served and ownership type that could influence the data. The restaurants included in the study were all similar in that table side service was provided, however, the levels of service vary due to the restaurants theme and service standards. The restaurants included a mix of buffet, limited buffet and non-buffet service styles each of which requires different levels of service from the FOH employees. The ownership style may also have had an influence on the data since many of the independent restaurants, although non-corporate owned, could still have had several owners involved in the operation. Many independent restaurant owners are connected through their families, but many are business adventures by independent contributors. The corporate restaurants also have different ownership styles that include shared ownership by the local operator and other restaurants that are solely owned and operated by the corporation.

The reliability of the survey questionnaire was assessed by several earlier researchers in the hospitality industry. However, this study will be the first to use the MSQ in a smaller sample and for identifying the satisfaction levels of independent and

corporate restaurant employees. Also, the questionnaire was self-reported by the FOH restaurant employees. It is a limitation for this study because each respondent had to interpret the questions on the questionnaires individually. Individual interpretation leaves room for personal feelings and misunderstandings in the meanings if read differently by each respondent. This could only be eliminated if the researcher was available to help with the interpretations. The other limitation of the study is potential of researcher bias. Despite the use of convenience sampling methods and statistical analysis of the data, researcher bias may influence factors such as the research design and the conclusions drawn from the data.

A delimitation of the study is the possibility of variables that have not been controlled for in the research design that are influencing the findings of the study. The theoretical models of job satisfaction and organizations imply that there are other elements that influence the satisfaction levels of employees that cannot always be controlled in research studies. One of those elements is the level of emotional intelligence of each employee that is necessary in the service industry (Hochschild, 1983). Controlling for all variables was not possible due to the complexity of the variables and the use of the survey questionnaire to gather the information. The study was also delimited to the consideration of using bureaucratic theories of Max Weber and human relations theories in relation to job satisfaction for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the data. There may be other theories based in psychology, leadership and sociology that may help in understanding the relationships found in this study.

Practical Applications and Future Research

This study is a useful as a starting point for future research in the restaurant industry, specifically the independent sector. Little research is available that is focused on the independent restaurants, providing little clarification as to how the organizations function and survive. Future restaurant industry research focused on, or making the distinction of the effects of the organizational structures could help the owners and managers of both the independent and corporate restaurants with allocating resources in a more cost effective manner. An evaluation of existing job satisfaction programs in the different restaurants could be used to useful in understanding what elements of job satisfaction companies are targeting. Those elements could then be compared to the factors in this study to determine if the managers and owners are actually targeting the appropriate elements to make a difference in their organization.

Another recommendation is a similar study with a larger sample population investigating the effects of age and education with the other job satisfaction scales. The location of the current study provided access to independent and corporate restaurants. However, because the sample was located in a college town, the majorities of employees had higher educational levels and were slightly older than the national averages. A national study that represents the full-service, casual dining sector of the restaurant would be useful in determining if age and education do have as great of an effect as seen in this study. Because the national data include fast food and other types of eating and drinking locations, it is unclear if the location of this study in a college town is unique in its findings.

A third recommendation would be the use of the data from this study to conduct more cross-disciplinary research studies focused on the typical American college town. Cross-disciplinary research studies not specifically focused on the restaurant industry, but conducted to investigate the unique environment of college towns and their businesses would be beneficial to a variety of researchers. The limited amount of research focused on a typical college town in America appears to be a neglected niche by academics living and working within these communities. The unique characteristics of college towns attract many people to live in them and also have unique business strategies developed by the business owners. Studies comparing college town businesses and other suburban communities where educational institutions are not located could generate new discussions in several industries and disciplines.

The results of this study could help independent restaurant owners improve their labor turnover and costs by improving job satisfaction of their FOH employees. Although intrinsic satisfaction elements were found to be more predicted by restaurant type for restaurant workers in this sample, data such as exit interviews and job satisfaction surveys specifically designed for the establishment could be also be useful. It is recommended that owners and managers focus on these elements when developing employee job satisfaction policies and procedures.

Conclusions

New job satisfaction scales (supervision, self-worth, team work and tipped wages) were created in this study due to a different factor structure in my data in comparison to the data used by Weiss, et al. (1967). FOH employees in the restaurant industry were not part of Weiss, et al's (1967) original study, therefore, the transferability of the MSQ in

the restaurant industry may not be as appropriate as previously thought. Other researchers in the hospitality field found the MSQ short form to be a useful measurement tool for their research. However, previous studies did not include restaurant type as the independent variable which may be out of the scope for the tool.

The MSQ short form could be more useful for future research in the restaurant industry if specific parts are used, but not the whole tool. Testa, et al., (1998) did this when developing the Cruise Line Job Satisfaction Questionnaire in their attempts to gather data from the unique characteristics and challenges of the cruise line industry. Therefore, to achieve some level of data comparability, a newly created restaurant industry employee job satisfaction measurement tool could be created by using components of the MSQ short form.

Summary

The current study focuses on the FOH employees in full-service, casual dining restaurants in a college town. A quantitative research design was undertaken, using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form developed by Weiss, et al. (1967). Three hundred questionnaires were distributed to twenty restaurants in a typical college town. One hundred usable questionnaires were returned for a 33% response rate. The low sample size for the study is a concern when attempting to generalize the findings to a larger population of restaurant workers. However, prior to this study, information focused specifically on independent FOH employees was minimal, creating a gap in the restaurant literature. Therefore, although the sample population may be small, the results are a good starting point for discussions and future research in the restaurant industry regarding the specific elements of FOH job satisfaction in the independent and corporate restaurants.

It was also difficult to compare the results of the study with other research findings because the population is unique. Using restaurants in a college town added additional limitations when generalizing the results to a large population, due to the lack of information specific to workers in college towns. Research focused on the unique characteristics of typical American college towns is limited providing little support for the culture and demographics of these towns. Therefore, it is unknown if the results of the current study are due to the low number of participants or a result of the location.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A. *Table of Minimum Hourly Wages for Tipped Employees, by State*

Jurisdiction	Future Effective Date	Basic Combined Cash & Tip Minimum Wage Rate	Maximum Tip Credit Against Minimum Wage	Minimum Cash Wage ¹	Definition of Tipped Employee by Minimum Tips received (monthly unless otherwise specified)
FEDERAL: Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA)		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	More than \$30
STATE LAW DOES NOT ALLOW TIP CREDIT					
Minimum rate same for tipped and non-tipped employees					
<u>Alaska</u>				\$7.75	
<u>California</u>				\$8.00	
Guam				\$6.55	
Minnesota:					
Large employer ²				\$6.15	
Small employer ²				\$5.25	
Montana:					
Business with gross annual sales over \$110,000				\$7.25	
Business with gross annual sales of \$110,000 or less				\$4.00	
Nevada				\$7.55 \$6.55	With no health insurance benefits provided by employer and received by employee With health insurance benefits provided by employer and received by employee
Oregon				\$8.40	
Washington				\$8.55	
Minimum rate lower for tipped employees than for non-tipped					
New Mexico		\$7.50	\$5.37	\$2.13	More than \$30
Puerto Rico					
STATE LAW ALLOWS TIP CREDIT					
Arizona		\$7.25	\$3.00	\$4.25	Not specified
Arkansas		\$6.25	\$3.62	\$2.63	More than \$20

Colorado		\$7.24	\$3.02	\$4.22	More than \$30
Connecticut		\$8.25	31.0%	\$5.69	At least \$10 weekly for full-time employees or \$2.00 daily for part-time in hotels and restaurants. Not specified for other industries.
<i>Hotel, restaurant</i>			\$2.56	\$5.69	
<i>Bartenders who customarily receive tips</i>			11%	\$7.34	
Delaware		\$7.25	\$5.02	\$2.23	More than \$30
District of Columbia		\$8.25	\$5.48	\$2.77	Not specified
Florida		\$7.25	\$3.02	\$4.23	
Hawaii		\$7.25	\$0.25	\$7.00	More than \$20
(Tip Credit permissible if the combined amount the employee receives from the employer and in tips is at least 50 cents more than the applicable minimum wage)					
Idaho		\$7.25	\$3.90	\$3.35	More than \$30
Illinois		\$8.00	40%	\$4.80	\$20
Indiana		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	Not specified
Iowa		\$7.25	\$2.90	\$4.35	More than \$30
Kansas		\$7.25	40%	\$2.13	More than \$20
Kentucky		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	More than \$30
Maine		\$7.50	50%	\$3.75	More than \$20
Maryland		\$7.25	up to 50%	\$3.63	More than \$30
Massachusetts		\$8.00	\$5.37	\$2.63	More than \$20
Michigan		\$7.40	\$4.75	\$2.65	Not specified
Missouri		\$7.25	\$3.62	\$3.63	Not specified
Nebraska		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	Not specified
New Hampshire		\$7.25	55%	45%	More than \$30
New Jersey		\$7.25	\$5.12 <u>3</u>	\$2.13	Not specified
New York		\$7.25	under review	under review	Not specified
<i>Building service</i>			None	\$7.25	
<i>Restaurant industry</i>					
Food service workers			\$2.60	\$4.65	

All other workers					
Employees averaging between \$1.60 and \$2.35 per hour in tips.			\$1.60	\$5.65	
Employees averaging \$2.35 per hour or more in tips.			\$2.35	\$4.90	
<i>Hotel industry</i>					
Food service workers			\$2.60	\$4.65	
All other workers (all year and resort hotels)					
Employees averaging between \$1.60 and \$2.35 per hour in tips			\$1.60	\$5.65	
Employees averaging \$2.35 per hour or more in tips			\$2.35	\$4.90	
All other workers averaging more than \$4.10 per hour in tips			\$2.90	\$4.35	
Employees averaging \$4.10 per hour or more in tips			\$2.35	\$4.90	
<i>Miscellaneous Industries</i>					
Employees averaging between \$1.10 and \$1.75 per hour in tips			\$1.10	\$6.15	
Employees averaging more than \$1.75 per hour in tips			\$1.75	\$5.50	
North Carolina <u>4</u>		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	More than \$20
North Dakota		\$7.25	33%	\$4.86	More than \$30
Ohio <u>5</u>		\$7.30	50%	\$3.65	More than \$30
Oklahoma <u>6</u>		\$7.25	50% <u>3</u>	\$3.63	Not specified
Pennsylvania		\$7.25	\$4.42	\$2.83	More than \$30
Rhode Island		\$7.40	\$4.51	\$2.89	Not specified
South Dakota		\$7.25	\$5.12 <u>3</u>	\$2.13	More than \$35
Texas		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	More than \$20
Utah		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	More than \$30
Vermont <i>Employees in hotels, motels, tourist places, and restaurants who customarily and regularly receive tips for direct and personal customer service.</i>		\$8.06	\$4.15	\$3.91	More than \$120
<i>All other employees</i>			None	\$6.25	

Virginia		\$7.25	Up to 100% of MW	\$0.00 if tips equal MW	Not specified
Virgin Islands		\$7.25	\$5.12	\$2.13	Not specified
West Virginia ⁷		\$7.25	\$1.45	\$5.80	Not specified
Wisconsin ⁸		\$7.25	\$4.92	\$2.33	Not specified
Wyoming		\$5.15	\$3.02	\$2.13	More than \$30

Note. U.S. Department of Labor, 2010.

The following five states, not included in table, do not have State minimum wage laws: Alabama, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee. Also not included is Georgia, which exempts tipped employee under the law. Some states set subminimum rates for minors and/or students or exempt them from coverage, or have a training wage for new hires. Such differential provisions are not displayed in this table.

Footnotes.

¹ Other additional deductions are permitted, for example for meals and lodging, except as noted in footnote ⁸.

² **Minnesota.** A large employer is an enterprise with annual receipts of \$625,000 or more; a small employer, less than \$625,000.

³ In **New Jersey, Oklahoma, and South Dakota**, the listed maximum credit is the total amount allowable for tips, food and lodging combined, not for tips alone as in other states.

In **New Jersey**, in specific situations where the employer can prove to the satisfaction of the labor department that the tips actually received exceed the creditable amount, a higher tip credit may be taken.

⁴ **North Carolina.** tip credit is not permitted unless the employer obtains from each employee, monthly or for each pay period, a signed certification of the amount of tips received.

⁵ **Ohio.** The minimum cash wage for tipped employees of employers with gross annual sales in excess of \$255,000 is \$3.50 per hour (plus tips). For tipped employees of employers with gross annual sales of less than \$255,000, the tipped employee hourly rate is \$2.93 per hour (plus tips).

⁶ **Oklahoma.** For employers with fewer than 10 full-time employees at any one location who have gross annual sales of \$100,000 or less, the basic minimum rate is \$2.00 per hour, with a 50% maximum tip credit.

⁷ **West Virginia.** For employers with six or more employees and for state agencies.

⁸ **Wisconsin.** \$2.13 per hour may be paid to employees who are not yet 20 years old and who have been in employment status with a particular employer for 90 or fewer consecutive calendar days from the date of initial employment.

Appendix B. Response Rates from Individual Restaurants

Restaurant type & service style	Response Rates		
	N	% of responses from individual restaurants	% of total responses (N=100)
<i>Independent table service w/ buffet</i>	0	0%	0%
<i>Independent /No buffet</i>			
Restaurant 1	5	25%	5%
Restaurant 2	5	31%	5%
Restaurant 3	0	0%	0%
Restaurant 4	1	17%	1%
Restaurant 5	8	89%	8%
Restaurant 6	0	0%	0%
Restaurant 7	0	0%	0%
Restaurant 8	1	25%	1%
Restaurant 9	4	20%	4%
Restaurant 10	3	20%	3%
Restaurant 11	4	80%	4%
Restaurant 12	7	70%	7%
Total	38		38%
<i>Corporate & No buffet</i>			
Restaurant 13	0	0%	0%
Restaurant 16	5	17%	5%
Total	5		5%
<i>Corporate & table service w/ buffet</i>			
Restaurant 14	11	73%	11%
Restaurant 15	4	22%	4%
Restaurant 17	4	44%	4%
Restaurant 18	5	56%	5%
Restaurant 19	11	73%	11%
Restaurant 20	22	49%	22%
Total	57		57%

Appendix C. *Intercorrelations of Satisfaction Scales*

Scales			
Occupational group	Intrinsic and Extrinsic	Intrinsic and General satisfaction	Extrinsic and General Satisfaction
Total group	.60	.88	.82
Janitors and maintenance men	.53	.91	.82
Assemblers	.57	.90	.85
Machinists	.53	.90	.84
Clerks	.64	.94	.85
Electronics assemblers	.66	.93	.87
Salesmen	.52	.92	.80
Engineers	.68	.80	.79

Note. Intercorrelations of satisfaction scales for total group and seven occupational groups from Weiss, et al.(1967). Correlations between the intrinsic and extrinsic and general satisfaction scales are part-whole correlations which accounts for the high coefficients (Weiss, et al., 1967).

Appendix D. *Hancer and George (2003) Factor Analysis Results*

MSQ Short Form Factor Analysis for Nonsupervisory Restaurant Employees

Facet	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Original Scale
Supervision-Technical	.76				Extrinsic
Supervision-Human relations	.75				Extrinsic
Company policies and practices	.68				Extrinsic
Working conditions	.67				General
Recognition	.66				Extrinsic
Coworkers	.60				General
Compensation	.43				Extrinsic
Social status		.73			Intrinsic
Ability utilization		.73			Intrinsic
Authority		.68			Intrinsic
Achievement		.58			Intrinsic
Social service		.53			Intrinsic
Variety		.47			Intrinsic
Security			.65		Intrinsic
Activity			.63		Intrinsic
Moral values			.57		Intrinsic
Independence			.55		Intrinsic
Creativity				.81	Intrinsic
Responsibility				.75	Intrinsic
Advancement				.46	Extrinsic
Eigenvalue	7.17	1.78	1.13	1.01	
Percentage of total variance explained	35.87	8.93	5.66	5.04	
Cumulative variance explained	35.87	44.80	50.46	55.50	

Note: MSQ = Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Appendix E. Mean and Standard Deviations of Hancer and George (2003) Respondents

Respondent Job Satisfaction Results for MSQ Short Form (N = 798)

Facet	Type	M ^a	SD
Security	Intrinsic	4.2	0.8
Social service	Intrinsic	4.1	0.7
Moral values	Intrinsic	4.1	0.8
Activity	Intrinsic	3.9	0.7
Responsibility	Intrinsic	3.9	0.9
Working conditions	General	3.9	0.9
Coworkers	General	3.8	1.0
Variety	Intrinsic	3.8	1.0
Independence	Intrinsic	3.8	0.9
Supervision-Technical	Extrinsic	3.7	1.0
Creativity	Intrinsic	3.7	1.0
Supervision-Human relations	Extrinsic	3.6	1.1
Ability utilization	Intrinsic	3.6	1.1
Achievement	Intrinsic	3.5	1.0
Recognition	Extrinsic	3.3	1.2
Company policies and practices	Extrinsic	3.3	1.1
Authority	Intrinsic	3.3	0.8
Social status	Intrinsic	3.3	1.0
Advancement	Extrinsic	3.3	1.0
Compensation	Extrinsic	3.1	1.2

Note: MSQ = Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

a. The scale ranged from 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 5 (*very satisfied*).

Appendix F. Correlation Matrix of Questionnaire Variables

	activity	responsibility	variety	social status	supervision-hr	supervision-technical	moral values	Security	social service	Authority	ability utilization	company policy	compensation	advancement	independence	creativity working conditions	coworkers	recognition	achievement	
Correlation	activity	.284	.461	.396	.374	.487	.252	.257	.221	.134	.259	.338	.198	.412	.450	.386	.268	.231	.375	.468
	responsibility	1.000	.449	.355	.219	.377	.157	.336	.244	.403	.461	.477	.278	.320	.413	.405	.405	.387	.194	.330
	variety	.461	1.000	.403	.319	.406	.270	.374	.389	.380	.475	.428	.250	.415	.562	.562	.330	.215	.349	.505
	social status	.396	.355	1.000	.299	.414	.361	.154	.452	.368	.615	.446	.186	.556	.476	.392	.274	.238	.373	.626
	supervision-hr	.374	.219	.319	1.000	.772	.346	.214	.186	.257	.169	.662	.472	.627	.445	.442	.526	.396	.654	.396
	supervision-technical	.487	.377	.406	.414	1.000	.349	.312	.295	.228	.324	.607	.475	.559	.601	.549	.518	.435	.585	.397
	moral values	.252	.157	.270	.361	.349	1.000	.395	.288	.280	.261	.351	.283	.305	.379	.289	.380	.126	.315	.426
	security	.257	.336	.374	.154	.312	.395	1.000	.310	.173	.404	.277	.317	.337	.387	.341	.474	.153	.186	.312
	social service	.221	.244	.389	.452	.295	.288	.310	1.000	.238	.545	.324	.231	.248	.406	.273	.343	.057	.289	.403
	authority	.134	.403	.380	.368	.228	.280	.173	.238	1.000	.427	.335	.068	.373	.356	.393	.291	.212	.348	.422
	ability utilization	.259	.461	.475	.615	.324	.261	.404	.545	.427	1.000	.439	.270	.487	.537	.425	.355	.158	.257	.524

company policy	.338	.477	.428	.446	.662	.607	.351	.277	.324	.335	.439	1.000	.520	.570	.510	.463	.554	.487	.453	.460
compensation	.198	.278	.250	.186	.472	.475	.283	.317	.231	.068	.270	.520	1.000	.438	.391	.417	.331	.202	.242	.281
advancement	.412	.320	.415	.556	.627	.559	.305	.337	.248	.373	.487	.570	.438	1.000	.532	.460	.452	.183	.545	.603
independence	.450	.413	.562	.476	.445	.601	.379	.387	.406	.356	.537	.510	.391	.532	1.000	.772	.488	.436	.485	.516
creativity	.386	.405	.562	.392	.442	.549	.289	.341	.273	.393	.425	.463	.417	.460	.772	1.000	.429	.282	.409	.415
working conditions	.268	.405	.330	.274	.526	.518	.380	.474	.343	.291	.355	.554	.331	.452	.488	.429	1.000	.515	.467	.446
coworkers	.231	.387	.215	.238	.396	.435	.126	.153	.057	.212	.158	.487	.202	.183	.436	.282	.515	1.000	.392	.246
recognition	.375	.194	.349	.373	.654	.585	.315	.186	.289	.348	.257	.453	.242	.545	.485	.409	.467	.392	1.000	.590
achievement	.468	.330	.505	.626	.396	.397	.426	.312	.403	.422	.524	.460	.281	.603	.516	.415	.446	.246	.590	1.000

Note. Yellow highlight= intrinsic components, blue highlight = extrinsic components

Appendix G: Loadings of Rotated Components

Rotated Factor Matrix^a

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
activity	.357	.352	.109	.181
responsibility	.045	.362	.427	.381
variety	.189	.513	.168	.378
social status	.256	.737	.094	.058
supervision-hr	.912	.063	.181	.188
supervision-technical	.687	.200	.263	.350
moral values	.303	.303	.007	.282
security	.112	.226	.073	.574
social service	.098	.489	-.004	.308
authority	.128	.490	.221	.101
ability utilization	.016	.708	.101	.392
company policy	.512	.295	.352	.355
compensation	.408	.048	.053	.503
advancement	.581	.472	.021	.243
independence	.351	.469	.299	.454
creativity	.330	.372	.229	.461
working conditions	.394	.230	.391	.385
coworkers	.278	.064	.835	.049
recognition	.654	.366	.212	-.014
achievement	.396	.708	.080	.102

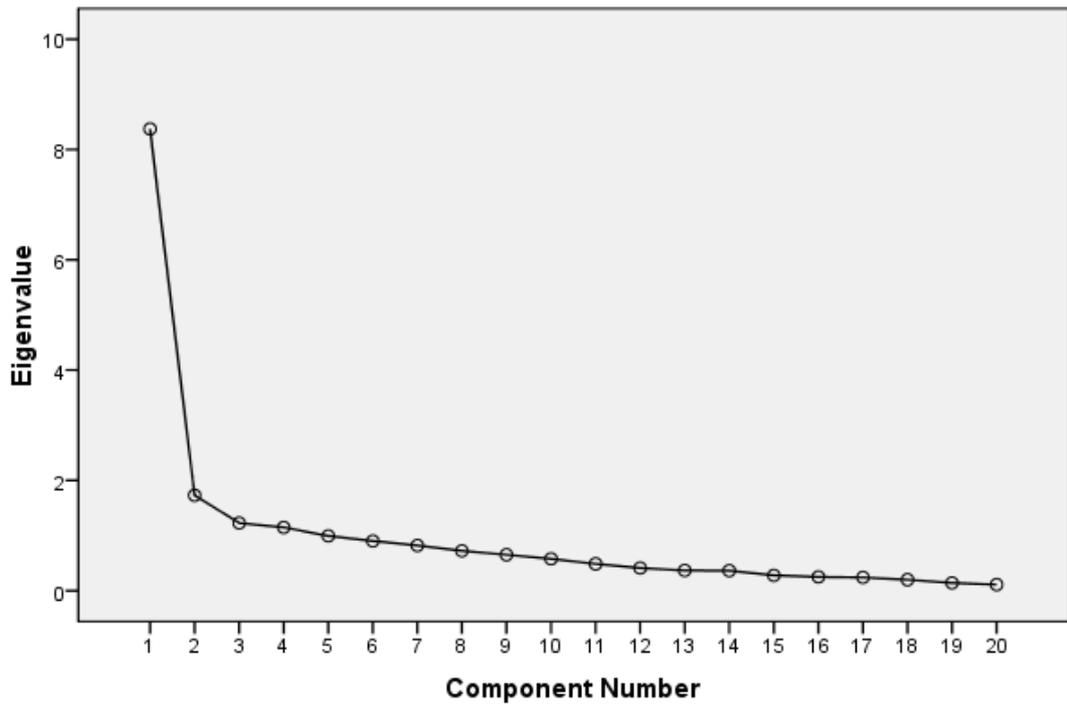
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Appendix H: *Scree Plot of Factor Analysis*

Scree Plot



Appendix I. Factor analysis of all Satisfaction Elements from MSQ

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.374	41.868	41.868	8.374	41.868	41.868
2	1.731	8.654	50.522	1.731	8.654	50.522
3	1.227	6.137	56.659	1.227	6.137	56.659
4	1.149	5.744	62.403	1.149	5.744	62.403
5	.994	4.968	67.370			
6	.902	4.510	71.880			
7	.819	4.097	75.978			
8	.723	3.615	79.593			
9	.652	3.262	82.855			
10	.578	2.888	85.743			
11	.487	2.435	88.178			
12	.411	2.054	90.232			
13	.368	1.842	92.074			
14	.364	1.818	93.892			
15	.278	1.390	95.282			
16	.251	1.254	96.536			
17	.241	1.203	97.739			
18	.200	.999	98.738			
19	.142	.709	99.448			
20	.110	.552	100.000			

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Yellow highlight= intrinsic components, blue highlight = extrinsic components

Appendix J: *PASSHE Universities and employer ranking*

PASSHE University	University Enrollment * (Fall 2008)	County	Town*	Town Population* *	Ranking University as Employer†
1. Bloomsburg	8,081 undergraduate, 774 graduate	Columbia	Bloomsburg, PA	12,375	1
2. California	6,925 undergraduate 1,594 graduate	Washington	California, PA	5,274	5
3. Cheyney	1,333 undergraduate 155 graduate	Chester	Cheyney, PA	7,093	***
4. Clarion	5,975 undergraduate 1,125 graduate	Clarion	Clarion, PA	6,185	1
5. East Stroudsburg	6,099 undergraduate 1,135 graduate	Monroe	East Stroudsburg, PA	9,888	10
6. Edinboro	6,154 undergraduate 1,517 graduate	Erie	Edinboro, PA	6,950	14
7. Indiana	11,928 undergraduate 2,382 graduate	Indiana	Indiana, PA	14,895	1
8. Kutztown	9,404 undergraduate 989 graduate	Berks	Kutztown, PA	5,067	16
9. Lock Haven	4,988 undergraduate 278 graduate	Clinton	Lock Haven, PA	9,149	2
10. Mansfield	2,944 undergraduate 478 graduate	Tioga	Mansfield, PA	3,411	3
11. Millersville	7,217 undergraduate 1,103 graduate	Lancaster	Millersville, PA	7,774	15
12. Shippensburg	6,733 undergraduate 1,209 graduate	Cumberland	Shippensburg, PA	5,586	15
13. Slippery Rock	7,691 undergraduate 767 graduate	Butler	Slippery Rock, PA	3,068	7
14. West Chester	11,482 undergraduate 2,137 graduate	Chester	West Chester, PA	17,861	7

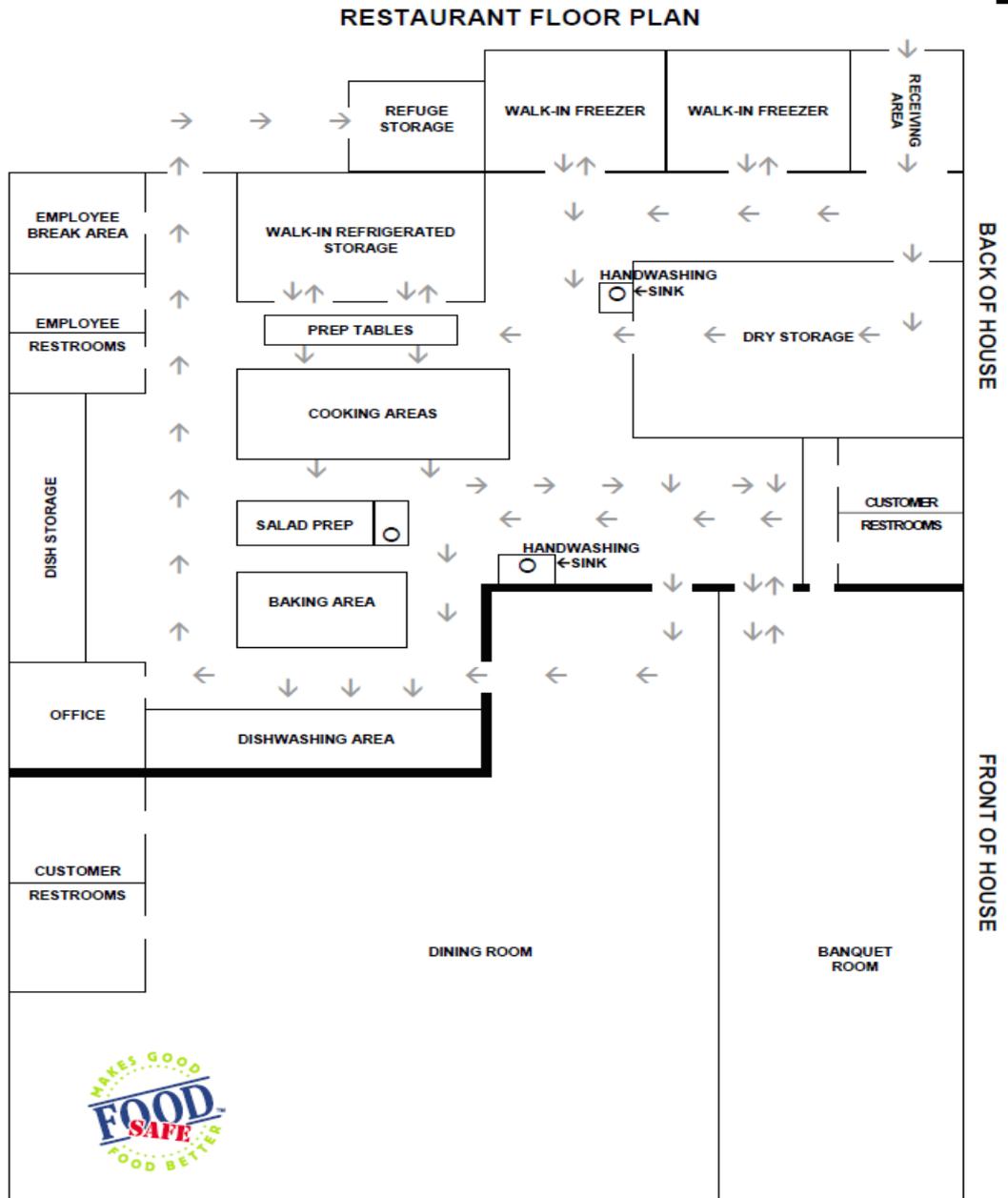
*Source: www.passhe.edu/universities/Pages/default.aspx

**Source: 2000 Census data from http://factfinder.census.gov/servlet/GCTTable?_bm=y&-geo_id=04000US42&-box_head_nbr=GCT-PH1&ds_name=DEC_2000_SF1_U&-format=ST-72000 Census data.

*** Data reports top 50 employers only; Cheyney is not in the top 50.

†Source: Pennsylvania Department of Labor: Center for Workforce and Information Analysis, 4th Quarter, 2004.

Appendix K. Floor plan of a Typical Restaurant Depicting Front-of-the-House and Back-of-the-House



Note. .docstoc (2010)