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AN ANALYSIS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND
JOB SATISFACTION FOR RESTAURANT EMPLOYEES

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

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* * * * *

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ABSTRACT

The current study investigated the relationship between employee empowerment and job satisfaction for restaurant employees. Specifically, it examined psychological empowerment, the dimensions of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and organizational variables affecting psychological empowerment. Organizational commitment as an outcome of job satisfaction of non-supervisory employees working in casual restaurants was also explored. Nine research questions were asked in the study. A survey instrument, including the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)- short form, was developed using various scales measuring psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, information accuracy, communication openness, trust, leader member exchange and training.

Data was gathered from non-supervisory restaurant employees working in three casual restaurant chains located in Midwest United States. A total number of 924 surveys from 66 restaurants were used in the analysis. In addition to descriptive statistics, other analyses such as factor analysis, analysis of variance, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis were used to investigate the research questions.

The results of this study showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. It is also found that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between job satisfaction

and organizational commitment. The results of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire revealed a four-factor solution for the restaurant employees. Organizational factors, which were information accuracy, communication openness, leader member exchange quality, trust, and training played important roles in explaining psychological empowerment. Leader member exchange quality was found to be the strongest predictor of psychological empowerment. Implications of the findings for theory and practice were discussed in addition to the limitations and recommendations.

Dedicated to my family

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As the dynamic business environment has been forcing service organizations to modify their traditional management techniques, the guides previously developed for the manufacturing sector commonly used by the restaurant business become obsolete. Unyielding operational procedures, simple job descriptions, and established standards have been the major philosophies in the manufacturing model practiced by service firms. The traditional management paradigm of the manager in control and the employees being controlled have often been utilized in the restaurant business. However, the techniques used in accordance with traditional management principles have started to function inefficiently, as competition emerges and more demanding customers with individual needs come out on the changing environment (Durnford, 1997). Therefore, adapting new management techniques has become necessary for all organizations to deliver the highest quality services and products in globally challenging circumstances.

Employee empowerment, one of the newer techniques utilized by organizations, has been receiving accelerated attention from scholars and practitioners alike (Donavan, 1994; Townsend & Gebhardt, 1997). Likewise, empowerment has been considered a dynamic and complex phenomenon (Foster-Fishman, Salem, Chibnall, Legler, &

Yapchai, 1998). Researchers have approached the definition of empowerment from several orientations (Conner, 1997; Rudolph & Peluchette, 1993). The self-generated exercising of judgments (Bell & Zemke, 1988), and giving authority to make everyday decisions (Sternberg, 1992) are among the definitions of empowerment. Other definitions of empowerment refer to some aspect of command and control. For example, control over decision-making (Parker & Price, 1994), authority over work processes (Pfeffer, 1994), command over performance goals and measurement (Beer, 1991), and/or domination over other people (Fulford & Enz, 1995) have been emphasized by the scholars.

There is no clear-cut theoretical definition of empowerment, and different people understand empowerment differently (Rappaport, 1984). Khan (1997) defines empowerment as “a continuing interpersonal relationship that nurtures mutual reliance between employees and employers” (p.44). Khan further suggests that achieving performance goals quickly, efficiently, and consistently is likely by instituting empowerment. On the other hand, Spreitzer (1995b) defines empowerment as a psychological mindset that includes the fit between one's job and personal values. It is the belief that one has the necessary knowledge and skills to perform the job well that can make a difference in the organization.

Employee empowerment facilitates the creation of an integrated quality environment, where superior products and services become practical. In order to increase effectiveness in the restaurant industry, management must become active in empowering their employees. This is done by sharing information, creating autonomy, and establishing self-directed teams (Potochny, 1998).

Latest technological advances, coupled with changing needs and the growing demands of customers, have forced organizations to develop and produce better services. In the 1970s, Theodore Levitt suggested that maintaining uniformity and controlling operations by strict methods in the manufacturing sector produces efficiency; hence, implementing same methods into service sector resulted in the same outcomes (Levitt, 1972). On the other hand, employee empowerment has dramatically challenged Levitt's approach in recent years (Bowen & Lawler, 1995). Nevertheless, the impact of employee empowerment from one organization to another is still uncertain, as empowerment techniques continue to attract organizations.

In the service industry, employees are deemed the biggest asset to their company, because they are the instruments delivering service to the profit-generating customer. When a customer walks away from a service-providing organization, his or her emotion about the organization largely depends on the employees' behavior (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 1999). The customer's emotions can be described as either pleased and satisfied, or annoyed and victimized. The former is always the expected output for any organization to survive. Since the way that employees think about their companies, or their perceptions, affect the employees' treatment toward the customers, teaching employees how to properly utilize the service process increases the effectiveness of the organization. Employee empowerment, considered as one of the key components of providing better customer service in hospitality industry by a number of researchers (Brymer, 1991; Fulford & Enz, 1995; Lashley, 1999; Potochny, 1998), helps employees find quick solutions for customers' problems and this, in turn, produces an increase in the overall effectiveness of the organization toward both its customers and employees.

The key concept to employee empowerment is giving individuals as much responsibility as they can manage. By giving responsibility and autonomy to employees, managers can save a considerable amount of time for completing other tasks. Employees who are empowered will also feel that they are more satisfied in their jobs (Fulford & Enz, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason 1997), and they are most likely to be more productive, changeable and cooperative (Stone, 1992). Today, more organizations than ever before have taken up the challenge of providing superior service to their customers. Because of the risk of having too many dissatisfied employees, hospitality organizations have developed techniques that are keeping them away from such risks. Having employees who are satisfied with their jobs helps organizations provide superior service.

There has been considerable interest in the study of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction as they relate to employee empowerment (e.g. Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, & Brown, 1999; Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Spreitzer, 1995a). A number of studies investigated empowerment and job satisfaction of persons working at the organizational level; however, few studies have considered psychological empowerment of service workers exclusively. Further, even fewer empirical research studies have been completed to explain the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry; therefore, this research will contribute to the field of hospitality in this particular topic.

Purpose of the Study

Based on a review of the literature concerning empowerment and job satisfaction and focusing on the feelings of service workers, this study investigates the reciprocal relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of restaurant workers. In particular, this study will test how psychological empowerment dimensions, meaning, competence, and influence, affect job satisfaction. Organizational factors affecting empowerment and organizational commitment as a result of job satisfaction will also be explored. With respect to the main purpose of the study, the following purposes are formulated as well:

1. To measure the dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, and influence) among foodservice workers at the selected restaurants.
2. To explore job satisfaction as well as its underlying components such as intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction of the selected restaurant workers.
3. To determine the relationship between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and the general job satisfaction of foodservice workers at the selected restaurants.
4. To explore the relationship between selected organizational variables affecting psychological empowerment and psychological empowerment.
5. To determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment while considering the mediating effect of psychological empowerment.

Research Questions

The following research questions have been developed for the study.

1. What are the characteristics of the restaurant employees working for the selected restaurant chains? What are the descriptive statistics for the scales used in the study?
2. What are the scores of psychological empowerment and the scores of the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among the restaurant chains?
3. What is the factor structure of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire for the restaurant employees working for the restaurants?
4. What are the levels of overall job satisfaction scores for the employees working for the restaurants? Do the raw job satisfaction mean scores differ among restaurants? What are the restaurant employees' job satisfaction preferences?
5. What are the scores of organizational commitment for employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among restaurants?
6. What is the relationship between scores on psychological empowerment and scores on job satisfaction of the employees working in the selected restaurants?
7. What is the variability of job satisfaction through the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? What is the contribution of each of the dimensions of psychological empowerment to the explanation of job satisfaction?

8. What are the effects of the organizational factors on psychological empowerment when they are considered as predictors of psychological empowerment at the selected restaurants?
9. What is the relationship between scores on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the restaurant employees? How do scores on psychological empowerment affect this relationship? Is there any mediating effect of psychological empowerment between job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Assumptions

Methodological Assumptions

1. It is assumed that the respondents answered the questionnaire themselves.
2. It is assumed that the respondents answered the questionnaire truthfully and accurately assessing feelings of empowerment and degree of job satisfaction while responding to the questions to the best of their knowledge.

Theoretical Assumptions

1. Psychological empowerment in the service sector is predicted by measuring the dimensions: meaning, competence, and influence.
2. Intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfactions are the major dimensions of job satisfaction.
3. Employee empowerment is positively related to general job satisfaction.
4. Information accuracy, communication openness, trust, training and leader member exchange are the organizational factors affecting psychological empowerment.

Definition of Terms

While there are many definitions of the term “empowerment” and “job satisfaction”, the definitions below will be used for the purpose of this study. An understanding of these meanings is essential to an assessment of the nature and value of this study.

Empowerment: The process of placing authority in the hands of people to solve problems by releasing the expression of personal power (Bell & Zemke, 1988).

Psychological Empowerment: A psychological mindset that includes the fit between one's job and personal values. It is the belief that one has the necessary knowledge and skills to perform the job well that can make a difference in the organization (Spreitzer, 1995b).

Job Satisfaction: An affective or emotional reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992, p.1).

Intrinsic job satisfaction: How people feel about the work they do, (e.g. ability utilization, achievement, creativity, and independence) and the nature of job task itself (Spector, 1997, p. 15).

Extrinsic job satisfaction: Aspects of work that have little to do with the job tasks or jobs themselves (e.g. pay, rewards, operating conditions) (Spector, 1997, p. 15).

Non-Supervisory Restaurant Employee: A person working for a restaurant facility in a non-managerial position.

Foodservice Industry: All establishments where food is regularly served outside the home. Such establishments include formal restaurants, hotel or motel and department store dining rooms, coffee shops, family restaurants, specialty and ethnic restaurants, and fast food outlets (Payne-Palacio & Theis, 1997, p.4).

Casual Restaurants: Places where you can relax and enjoy familiar-yet interesting-food that tastes good, but does not overextend your budget (Lowe & Nicholas, 1997).

Organizational Commitment: The relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Significance of the Study

Effective empowerment practices may help organizations to be more competitive and profitable, as well as to survive and grow. These practices also allow employees to respond immediately and with greater versatility to customer inquiries and requests. In service business, the service delivery process requires immediate fulfillment of the customer's needs. In order to gain a competitive advantage in this challenging business, each employee should play a major role when it comes to solving problems.

As one of the techniques used for satisfying customers, empowerment practices have affected powerful hospitality companies such as American Airlines, Marriott Hotels, and Kentucky Fried Chicken (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Kizilos, 1990). More and more service companies are likely to adapt empowerment techniques (Bowen & Lawler, 1995) as global competition emerges in the 21st century. A number of questions concerning the different meanings, implementation, benefits, and limitations of empowerment have been raised. Since it is considered as a controversial (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995a; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), enigmatic (Potterfield, 1999), and popular concept, a

critical examination of employee empowerment in restaurant settings will provide valuable information regarding effective empowerment practices for the foodservice managers and employees.

Foodservice professionals can take advantage of the results of this empirical study and they will also have a chance to look closely at the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. Zimmerman (1995) suggests that empowerment takes different forms in different contexts and the empirical research and evidence of employee empowerment in hospitality settings is limited (Brymer, 1991). In addition, Lashley (1996) suggests that research on empowerment needs to take into account the perceptions, experiences, and personalities of the empowered (p. 341). Studies related to different aspects of management have been conducted about both employee empowerment and job satisfaction of service workers; however, there is little information about how psychological empowerment influences job satisfaction of restaurant workers.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, a framework of the research is discussed. The framework includes a number of definitions of empowerment from the literature, the purpose of the research, the research questions, the definitions of terms that will be used in the study, the assumptions, as well as the significance of the study. The next chapter discusses the related literature about empowerment, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, and hospitality workers. Additional chapters will explain the methodology, results and implications for theory and practice.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter Overview

The focus of this study is to investigate employee empowerment and job satisfaction in restaurants. Specifically, this study sought to identify the level of psychological empowerment of restaurant workers and to investigate the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of these workers.

To examine the complementary relationship between job satisfaction and empowerment, the first part of the literature review will discuss the theories of management and empowerment, organizational factors affecting empowerment, types and benefits of empowerment, and recent research on empowerment of service workers.

Following the literature review on empowerment, theories of job satisfaction, intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction, the relationship between job satisfaction, and empowerment topics will be presented. Lastly, a brief discussion about organizational commitment and turnover in hospitality industry will be introduced.

Management Theories and Empowerment

To some extent, many of the strategies and methods currently used in organizations reflect a synthesis of earlier approaches. When these approaches are conceptualized and put it into a frame for action, they are presented as theories (Steers & Porter, 1983). An understanding of the theories proposed by management scholars and practitioners may help managers in their decision-making and actions.

In the early 1900s, individual attitudes, behaviors, and on group processes were emphasized by the Behavioral Management Theory. This theory focused on employee behavior in an organizational context, and was the precursor of the formal study of Organizational Behavior (Griffin, 1990). Increasing concern for the human element in management was encouraging scholars to investigate new tools and methods for managing people in the 1920s (Sherman, Bohlander, & Chruden, 1988).

Under the influence of the new trends, Elton Mayo and his associates began the Hawthorne Studies in 1927 to determine how working conditions affect worker fatigue and productivity (Griffin, 1990; Sherman et al., 1988). These studies assisted in advancing the human relations movement and highlighted the need for providing a more participative and employee-centered form of supervision in organizations (Sherman et al., 1988). Although the human relations approach helps in improving the working environment, job satisfaction and worker output have been found to be negligible (Carrell, Kuzmits, & Elbert, 1992).

Later approaches, such as McGregor's (1960) "Theory X & Theory Y", Likert's (1967) "System 4", and Herzberg's "Two factor" challenged the ideas of the human

relations movement (Steers & Porter, 1983). McGregor sorts out management styles as based on Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X, the traditional hierarchical system, is based on the assumption that people are indolent and they should be manipulated and controlled. Theory Y concludes that control and pressure are not the only ways of getting people to fulfill their jobs. McGregor, in his book, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, proposed that managers should be tutors who provide working environments in which the worker's own power can be released without difficulty (McGregor, 1960).

The most noticeable origins of empowerment come from Douglas Mc Gregor's Theory Y (Kinlaw, 1995). Theory Y was based on a belief that employee motivation, productivity, and participation can be sustained by designing jobs that are motivation intensive. Mc Gregor emphasizes that management by direction does not work for every organization, because the typical devices of control, rewards, incentives, and assurances no longer continue to exist in the mind of workers. According to Mc Gregor, worker participation is essential for success, and employees must be involved in planning, organizing, and controlling their own efforts. Schein (1975) suggests that even though Theory Y does not imply participative management, it leads to an assumption that people have the capacity to use their imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in solving problems, that they know how to accept and seek responsibility, and that how the managers can integrate human needs and organizational goals.

Conger and Kanungo's Research on Empowerment

Conger and Kanungo (1988) have approached empowerment from a different point of view. These researchers criticized the examination of empowerment in management literature while only concentrating on participative management techniques as the means of sharing power or delegating authority (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 473; Kanter, 1983). They also questioned previous approaches to empowerment, believing these approaches do not always show how employees feel about empowerment. Conger and Kanungo believe that understanding of the construct is limited and confusing; therefore, it needs to be examined more meticulously.

The study of empowerment has been divided into two approaches: a) the relational approach to empowerment; and b) the motivational approach to empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The relational approach to empowerment implies decentralization of power and authority to enable workers to take part in decision-making (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1983; Kizilos, 1990) and concerns the individual's power and control relative to others (Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999). Thus, the relational approach gives employees the ability to perform with more discretion in their jobs. On the other hand, the motivational approach refers to self-determination (Deci, 1975) and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986), while relying upon goal setting and open communication (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In their position for explaining empowerment, Conger and Kanungo believe that the motivational construct better reflects the real meaning of empowerment. They define empowerment as "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the

identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information” (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p.474).

As it is understood from the definition, Bandura’s (1986) self-efficacy theory is the foundation of Conger and Kanungo’s definition and process of empowerment. Self-efficacy, which is a central construct in Bandura’s Social Learning Theory (Bandura 1977, 1982; Wood & Bandura 1989), refers to people's confidence in their ability to perform well in a specific task domain (Bandura 1997). Locke (1997) suggests that the concept of self-efficacy has application to virtually every area of organizational psychology: from selection to career development, to leadership, to job design, to performance appraisal, to rewards and incentives, and to teams (Locke, 1997, p. 804). According to the self-efficacy theory, people who believe themselves to be capable are likely to set more challenging goals (Bandura 1997; Locke & Latham 1990).

When explaining the process of empowerment, Conger and Kanungo identified five stages (Figure 2.1). These five stages, later named by Kanungo (1992) as a diagnostic checklist for managers, are: 1) Conditions that will be removed after the third stage causing powerlessness; 2) The use of managerial strategies and techniques; 3) Providing self-efficacy information to subordinates; 4) Results in empowering experience of subordinate and; 5) Leading to behavioral effects.

At stage one, four main conditions are specified leading to a psychological state of powerlessness. The first condition contains organizational factors (the access to relevant information, the available equipment within the organization, labor problems, significant technological changes) that influence the extent to which individuals have the

possibility of acting in a responsible way. Supervisory style (high control, some extent of control, or supportive and non-controlling), reward systems (low incentive value of rewards, lack of competence and innovation-based rewards, and arbitrary reward allocations) and the last condition, job design (lack of role clarity, lack of training, lack of meaningful goals, unrealistic goals, limited contact with senior management) are particularly identified as conditions that cause powerlessness in organizations.

Stage two of Conger and Kanungo's model of empowerment process suggests that implementing management techniques, such as modeling, goal setting, job enrichment, participative management, and contingent/competence-based rewards, helps individuals reduce the feeling of powerlessness that might have experienced at stage one of the model. However, Conger and Kanungo (1988) did not specifically clarify how each of these techniques should be used to remove the feeling of powerlessness.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) state that by using Bandura's (1986) techniques at stage three, subordinates are provided with self-efficacy information by using enactive attainment, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal; therefore, the conditions causing powerlessness will be removed and this will cause individuals to feel empowered in stage four.

Behavioral effects that stem from the empowering experiences of subordinates at stage four are the last stage of Conger and Kanungo's model of empowerment. In this stage, subordinates are enabled and their self-efficacy is assumed to be increased. Following this stage, the initiation and persistence of behavior to accomplish task objectives can be observed. Conger and Kanungo say that this is especially important to organizational leaders. They claim that not only some negative effects on subordinates,

such as demoralization and adaptation to change could be eased, but also higher performance and increased motivation are reached (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 476).

In addition, these individuals feel more satisfied with their jobs, become productive, and contribute to the organization in a larger extent (Kanungo, 1992).

STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3	STAGE 4	STAGE 5
Conditions leading to a psychological state of powerlessness	The use of managerial strategies and techniques	To provide self-efficacy information to subordinates using four sources	Results in empowering experience of subordinate	Leading to behavioral effects
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organizational Factors Supervision Reward system Nature of job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participative management Goal setting Feedback system Modeling Contingent/competence-based reward Job enrichment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enactive attainment Vicarious experience Vicarious persuasion Emotional arousal <p>and</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthening of effort-performance expectancy or belief in personal efficacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Initiation/persistence of behavior to accomplish task objectives
		Remove conditions listed under Stage 1		

Figure 2.1: Conger-Kanungo (1988) -The process of empowerment

Thomas and Velthouse's Cognitive Model of Empowerment

Following Conger and Kanungo's (1988) study of empowerment, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) presented a cognitive model of empowerment (Figure 2.2). The researchers conceptualize empowerment in terms of changes in cognitive variables (task assessments), which determine the motivation of individuals. Empowerment is regarded in the study as a psychological state that exists solely within the mind of the individual person. The emphasis made in the model discusses how an empowered state of mind within an individual is reached by the perceptions of the individual. The primary differences between Conger and Kanungo's study and Thomas and Velthouse's study are: a) the concept of empowerment as motivation is identified by intrinsic task motivation; b) the task assessment causing this motivation has been deliberately identified; and, c) the interpretive processes through which workers arrive at those task assessments have been acquired (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 667).

Brief and Aldag's (1977) intrinsic work motivation description is adapted by Thomas and Velthouse to describe intrinsic task motivation. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined intrinsic task motivation as "positively valued experiences that individuals derive directly from a task. In the present model, intrinsic task motivation involves those generic conditions by an individual, pertaining directly to the task, that produce motivation and satisfaction." (p. 668).

The model consists of six elements, three of which comprise the central part. The core is an ongoing cycle of environmental events or outcomes influenced by behavior (i.e., performance evaluations, training sessions, mentoring), task assessments (i.e., impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice), and behavior (i.e., activity,

concentration, initiative, resiliency, flexibility). Environmental events (element 1) make feedback available to a person pertaining to consequences of his/her behavior (element 3) or conditions and events pertinent to future behavior. Task assessments (element 2) are a sense of self-determination, personal meaning, a sense of competence, and perceived impact correlated by the global assessments (element 4), and they are considered as interpretations or constructions of reality. An individual's assessment of how high his or her feelings about these assessments is positively related to feelings of empowerment (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). For the purposes of the present study, these four situational assessments will be discussed in detail.

The first situational assessment, **impact**, is the degree to which the behavior is considered to “make a difference” in accomplishing the task. Various researchers have studied impact under different labels (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p.672). For instance, Rotter (1966) studied impact as a locus of control, and suggested that people who believe that they can control what happens to them have an internal locus of control. In contrast, people who are inclined to think what happens to them is a function of luck, fate, or powerful others have an external locus of control. These individuals perceive little or no connection between their own behavior and subsequent events. Accordingly, lack of impact causes “learned helplessness” (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978). People who are sheltered from the consequences of their own behavior are inclined to expect to be sheltered and rescued every time they have a problem.

Competence refers to the degree to which a person can perform task activities skillfully when he or she tries. (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). White (1959) suggests that competence is a gradual learning process, which is needed in an individual's interaction

to his or her environment. He also asserts that achievement is one of the outcomes of competence motivation. Competence is studied under different names in literature as well. For instance, self-efficacy and competence bear corresponding meanings. Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as the beliefs on one's capabilities to organize and execute a course of action required to produce a given attainment. Kinlaw (1995) claims that competence is the strongest control mechanism for empowerment, because empowerment only works when people want to be competent.

Meaningfulness relates to the value of the task goal or purpose. A person's perception about how meaningful what is done (the tasks) in their jobs affects their satisfaction and feelings of empowerment (i.e. Lawler, 1983; Spreitzer, 1995b; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Intrinsically, an individual's inherent caring about his or her job or perceived standards encompass meaningfulness. External factors affecting people's cognitions about how they feel are important as well. For instance, Bowie (1998) cites Immanuel Kant's moral philosophy to describe meaningful work. Bowie's description implies mostly the external factors affecting one's feelings about meaningful work: "Meaningful work is work that is freely entered into, that allows the worker to exercise her autonomy and independence, that enables the worker to develop her rational capacities, that provides a wage sufficient for physical welfare, that supports the moral development of employees and that is not paternalistic in the sense of interfering with the worker's conception of how she wishes to obtain happiness" (Bowie, 1998, p.1087). Job meaningfulness has been linked to job satisfaction (Hackman & Suttle, 1977), and a positive relationship has been found between job satisfaction and employee

empowerment as related to service employees (i.e. Fulford & Enz, 1995; Koberg et al., 1999). Hence, it is expected that as perceived meaningfulness increases, job satisfaction will also increase.

Perceived **choice or self-determination** is a sense of choice in the initiation and regulating of actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). People who experience higher levels of self-determination tend to be more motivated to exercise control over their environments, because they believe themselves to have a more internal locus of causality. (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In addition, individuals experience choice when they select one option from meaningful alternatives that possess relatively equal attractiveness and some degree of indeterminacy. This concept has similarities with Hackman and Oldham's (1980) psychological sense of responsibility drive from autonomy (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Global assessments are more general than specific task assessments, and they are assumed to be inductive generalizations from past task assessments (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 670). Interpretive styles (element 5) produce additional data for task assessments. Thomas and Velthouse claim that interpretive styles will increase the amount of explained variance in task assessments when these styles are added to existing models such as job design and charismatic leadership.

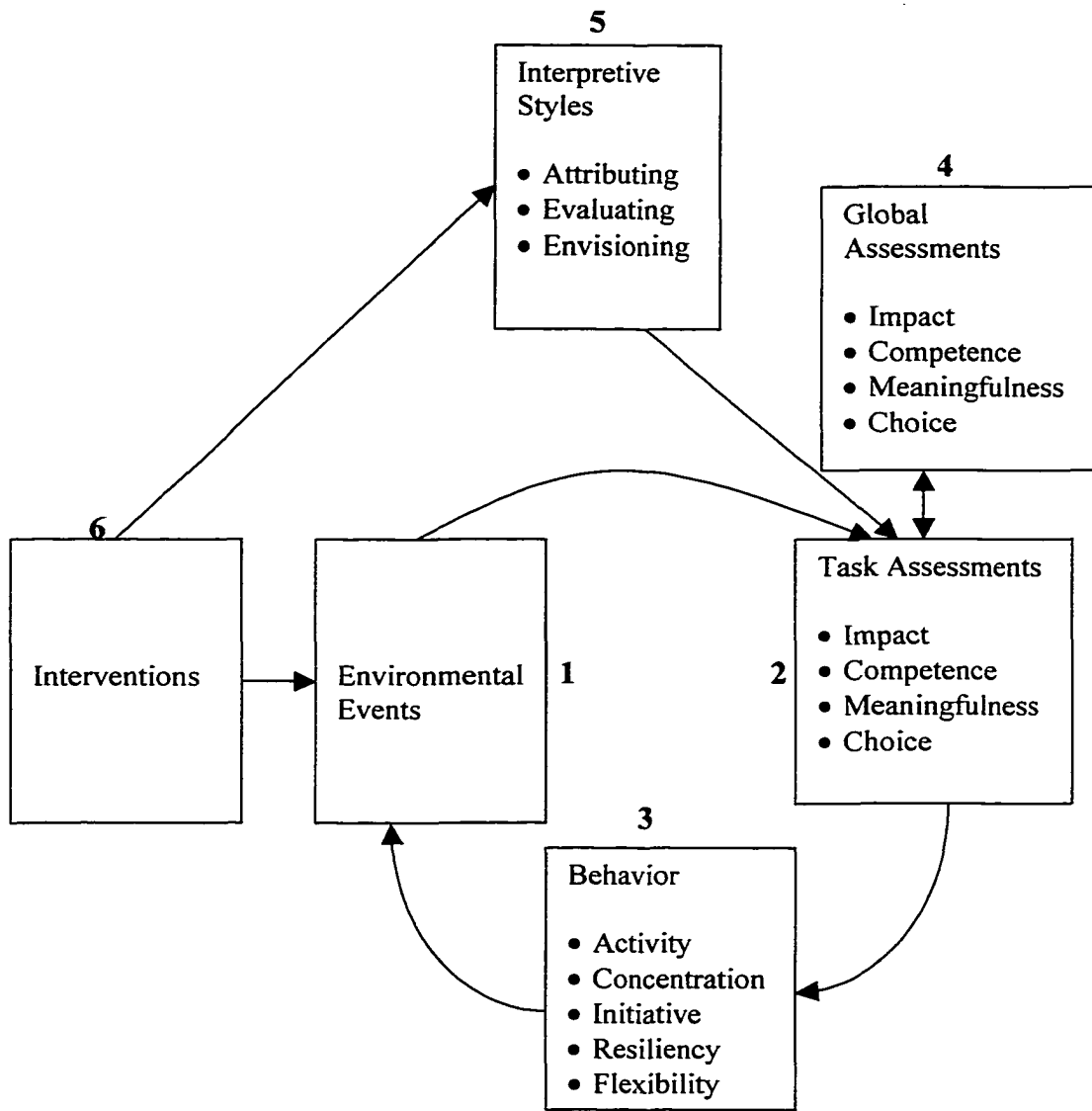


Figure 2.2: Thomas and Velthouse (1990)- Cognitive model of empowerment

In order to produce empowerment, environmental events and patterns affecting one's interpretation of data are deliberately modified. These are described as interventions (element 6) in the model. Leadership (House, 1977), delegation (Leana, 1987), job design (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and reward systems (Deci, 1975) are selected by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as shaping, preferably increasing, the task assessments. In addition, Thomas and Velthouse suggest that practicing self-empowerment is important, if previously irrational beliefs that resulted in emotional difficulties and self-disturbing behaviors occur.

Spreitzer and Psychological Empowerment

Spreitzer (1992) has concentrated on the construct development and validation of empowerment. The four task assessments (impact, competence, meaning, and choice) are used by Gretchen Spreitzer (1992) to operationalize, define, and measure psychological empowerment. She investigated and validated the antecedent conditions and intervention strategies, and tested the effects of a sense of empowerment on specific behaviors. Underlying dimensions of empowerment originate from an exploratory thematic analysis of literature (Spreitzer, 1992). The findings of the analysis supported Thomas and Velthouse's "task dimensions" and the four general dimensions were identified. They include a sense of meaning, a sense of competence, a sense of self-determination, and a sense of impact. While the four dimensions represent the psychological perspective of empowerment, a relational perspective of empowerment is represented by social-structural components of empowerment. Organic structure, organizational support, access to strategic information, access to organizational resources,

and organizational culture are identified as social structural antecedents of psychological empowerment. Innovation, upward influence, and self and managerial effectiveness are identified as the behavioral outcomes of empowerment.

The indicated antecedents and outcomes with the four dimensions of empowerment established a framework for Spreitzer (1992). To empirically test the framework, she conducted a survey among 279 middle managers in a large multinational company. Results showed a strong support for the construct validation and the four dimensional conceptualization. While sociopolitical support, span of control, and access to strategic information are found as predictors of empowerment, access to resources and integrative culture assessed by subordinates do not indicate any relationship to empowerment. The results of the test for the outcome variables indicated that sense of empowerment influences individual behavior. In sum, empowerment was found to be a mediator between social structural antecedents and behavioral outcomes.

Spreitzer continued the investigation of psychological empowerment and various organizational variables by conducting a considerable number of studies between 1995 and 2000 (Spreitzer, 1995a, 1995b; Spreitzer, 1996; Spreitzer, De Janasz, & Quinn, 1999; Spreitzer, Kizilos & Nason, 1997). Although a common data sample is examined in several studies, it is later emphasized that all of these studies serve different intentions (Spreitzer, et al., 1999). The first study concentrates on intrapersonal empowerment (i.e. cognitive empowerment), which is claimed to mediate the relationship between the social structural context and behavioral outcomes (Spreitzer, 1995a). To explore the relationship between those two variables, Spreitzer operationalizes social-structural context as perceptions of role ambiguity, sociopolitical support, access to strategic

information and resources, and work unit culture. Behavioral outcomes are also operationalized as innovativeness and effectiveness. Three hundred twenty four middle managers from different units of a Fortune 50 organization participated in the survey. Results list some of the social structural variables associated with intrapersonal empowerment (i.e. role ambiguity, access to information, and culture are positively related, but access to resources and sociopolitical support are not related). In addition, while mediating effects of empowerment are not confirmed, a strong relation exists between intrapersonal empowerment and effectiveness.

In her second study in 1995, Spreitzer examined a multidimensional measure of psychological empowerment in a workplace (Spreitzer, 1995b). Self esteem, locus of control, information, and rewards were indicated as antecedents, whereas managerial effectiveness and innovation were considered as outcomes. Two samples have been drawn. Three hundred ninety three managers were randomly selected for the primary sample and 128 employees were selected for the second sample. The construct reliability and validity of the four dimensions were tested and supported by a second order confirmatory factor analysis.

Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1996) were explored in Spreitzer's 1996 study. Six work unit social structural characteristics that form a work context were hypothesized to facilitate empowerment: perceptions of role ambiguity, span of control, sociopolitical support, access to information and resources, and work unit climate. The data set was the same as Spreitzer's previous research on the construct validation of an empowerment measure. A strong negative relationship was found between role ambiguity and empowerment while sociopolitical

support, span of control, a participative climate, and access to information show a positive relationship with empowerment. Access to resources was not significantly related to empowerment. In conclusion, this research indicates that high involvement social structures are proved to foster opportunities in a workplace.

An analysis of psychological empowerment and effectiveness, satisfaction and strain was examined in the 1997 study (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Four dimensions of empowerment were reviewed first, and then the relationship between those dimensions and specific outcomes (e.g., effectiveness, satisfaction and strain) were investigated. The researchers tested the relationships among variables on both manufacturing and service employees, and consistent results were gathered for those employees. According to the results, a mixture of experiences of empowerment on all four dimensions relates the outcomes; therefore, it is concluded that single dimensions of empowerment have different effects on different outcomes (e.g., competence and impact on effectiveness; meaning on work satisfaction) (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997).

The role of psychological empowerment in leadership was investigated in the most recent study of Spreitzer and her colleagues (Spreitzer et al., 1999). Specifically, a relationship between empowerment and four change-oriented leadership behaviors, such as being innovative, influencing bosses, being inspirational to subordinates and renouncing status quo, were explored in this study. Leadership variables were evaluated by a group of the supervisor's subordinates. According to the results, dimensions of empowerment were linked with innovation, upward influence, and inspiration; however, minimum effects on empowerment toward managerial characteristics associated with maintaining status quo have been found.

These series of studies examined by Spreitzer have had significant impact on the development of the research on psychological empowerment. Not only has additional insight into the empowerment dilemma been achieved, but also an understanding of many unexplored issues is attained with her studies.

Organizational Factors Affecting Empowerment

Trust

A trusting relationship is considered as one of the most powerful and efficient organizational tools (Culbert & McDonough, 1986). Trust influences a variety of subordinates' work attitudes and behaviors (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, & Martin, 1997).

Mayer and his colleagues define trust as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p.712). This trusting atmosphere can only be created through empowerment, where the employee is entrusted to make decisions that control what he is responsible for. Wyatt suggests that an environment, where trust among individuals is high, triggers feelings of empowerment and inspiration of those to benefit themselves and their organizations (Wyatt, 1996). Through greater trust to the organization and organization's goals, employees tend to take more responsibility for their own performance and its improvement.

Khan (1997) advocates that empowerment is based on the central idea of trust and it is an ongoing interpersonal relationship that fosters mutual trust between employees and employers; therefore, it is natural to expect that employees will take responsibility

(Coleman, 1996), take risks (Randolph, 1995), and perform proactively, when they have feelings of trust for both their colleagues and managers.

Training

Training is important not just to learn new skills, but also to improve the self-confidence of employees. Workers cannot be expected to step up and perform efficiently without some type of training. An implementation of empowerment practices with connection to reorganization efforts at Harvester Restaurants proves that training and communication were the essential elements of implementing empowerment in this particular organization (Ashness & Lashley, 1995). D'Annunzio-Green and Macandrew's (1999) study of empowerment also supports Ashness and Lashley's investigation. This time, empowerment is associated with downsizing activity in a large multinational corporation. The concept of empowerment has been explained to the employees as clearly as possible and written statements are added into the employees training policy (D'Annunzio-Green & Macandrew's, 1999).

Since change and restructuring strategies in both roles and responsibilities often confuse employees, introducing employee involvement without preparing the workers is a potential way to fail. Bowen and Lawler (1995) suggest that these new work designs and structures should make employees feel more empowered. Adequate training helps employees capture these new ideas and strategies recently served into their organizations more easily.

An integral part of a training program should contain detailed descriptions of the restaurant's food and beverage products, of its competitors, and other important aspects.

Training and coaching efforts in organizations help employees develop skills, confidence and belief in themselves, which in turn, increases the employees' motivation.

Information and Communication

Information sharing and access to information are deemed critical while implementing empowerment (Ashness & Lashley, 1995; Bowen. & Lawler, 1992,1995; D'Annunzio-Green, & Macandrew, 1999; Randolph, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995b). The level of trust will be leveraged by distributing information in any organization and will clear ambiguities. In order to help employees understand the business, management should assist employees to become aware of all aspects of the business. This is especially important in the service industry, where turnover and competition are relatively higher than that of the other sectors.

D'Annunzio-Green & Macandrew (1999) used four focus groups from a hotel company where formal empowerment practices are employed. The findings from the focus groups suggest that employees think that both formal and informal communication are the most important factors for them while they are trying to understand empowerment. Employees want to know why an empowerment program is necessary; therefore, distribution of the information seems to be one of the most important factors for them.

Bowen and Lawler (1992, 1995) emphasize the need for effective information flow among organization's members. They state that employees will feel empowered when they are informed about their organization (Bowen & Lawler, 1992, 1995).

Potochny (1998) suggests that sharing of both financial and other basic information gives

employees a feeling of ownership. Once information has been identified and exchanged, action plans for change can be developed.

Leader-Member Exchange

Sparrowe (1994) suggests that the effects of leadership and the quality of supervision can be captured by the Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory, which is a measure of the differential relationships between supervisors and employees within a work group that captures the variance in outcomes resulting from dyadic processes (Sparrowe, 1995, p. 97).

Leader member exchange relationships varied in terms of the amount of material resources, information and support exchanged by two parties. Empowerment theorists Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) emphasize the importance of supervision as it relates to empowerment. Equitable treatment of subordinates is one of the most valued behaviors of a leader (Hollander, 1978).

Sparrowe (1994) also states that service employees, whose relationships with their supervisors are positive, will generate feelings of having meaningful work, competence, and impact on their jobs (Sparrowe, 1994). His study of over thirty-three different hospitality organizations in 1994 and 1995 reveals that the relationship between subordinates and their immediate supervisors is a significant element in the development of feelings of empowerment (Sparrowe, 1994, 1995).

Types of Empowerment

How much and what type of empowerment should be utilized in the service organizations is explored in the literature as well. Brymer (1991) divides empowerment into two types. The first is structured empowerment, which gives employees the authority to make decisions; however, to some extent structured empowerment confines authority. The second type of empowerment is flexible empowerment, which provides broad guidelines to the employees to act quickly to respond guest needs or problems.

Bowen and Lawler (1992) pursue a different approach in terms of specifying empowerment types. Suggestion involvement, which is the first type, constitutes a minor transformation from the control model. In this type, employees are empowered to give suggestions not to implement. Their second type, job involvement, is a notable deviation from the control model. Extensive use of teams is executed in this type. Supervising would be different in such a way that manager should coach employees, not dictate to them. The third type, high involvement, is deemed as the full empowerment and every aspect of the organization is different from control-oriented organization within this type. This may be expensive to implement because it requires testing and continuous development. Untested or undeveloped management practices may fail, if they are not planned efficiently with respect to an organization's needs and values.

Ford and Fottler (1995) suggest that most of the writing on empowerment is not focused on implementation. They contend that empowerment must occur within some limits. This is a challenge in terms of implementation. To evaluate jobs, two dimensions of the jobs should be considered: job content and context. While job content represents

the tasks and procedures necessary for carrying out a particular job, job context has broader meanings dealing with organizational goals, values, and organizational setting.

Benefits and Constrains of Empowerment

Research into the benefits of empowerment is not as indeterminate as the definition of empowerment. It is widely believed by scholars that empowering employees to take care of the guests' needs or problems immediately, instead of waiting for a manager to handle the issues, boosts customer satisfaction (Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Brymer, 1991, Cohen, 1997). Secondly, empowerment provides an ownership attitude to the employees, making employees more satisfied with what they do (Brymer, 1991; Gandz & Bird, 1996; Khan, 1997). Thirdly, employees share more responsibility; therefore, managers experience less hindrance to handle many other non-essential tasks that do not result in any measurable success or profit (Cohen, 1997). Managers' roles change with empowerment, and they become process managers rather than enforcers and work directors (Brymer, 1991). When empowered employees are taking care of most of the customer's problems, managers are able to allocate time to focus on activities where their efforts would result in a rise in sales, profits or both (Cohen, 1997). Bowen & Lawler (1995) suggest that employees who confidently perform specialized tasks according to established procedures see that the service delivery system rarely fails and customers are always satisfied. The quality and productivity of an organization's service increase with respect to increased satisfaction for both managers and employees (Khan, 1997).

In addition to the primary benefits above, there are also a number of subordinate benefits of empowerment discussed in the literature. Brymer (1991) suggests that when

empowerment allows employees to provide feedback to managers about guest needs, problems, and concerns, employees can be a source of service ideas (Bowen & Lawler, 1992); therefore, recovering from service failures and correcting of mistakes will be faster and quicker responses to customer needs during service delivery will be maintained. Overall, customer expectations will be surpassed and employees will feel better about their jobs during service delivery (Bowen & Lawler, 1992).

Empowerment has not always been prescribed as the best approach to enhance an organization's effectiveness. It is also accepted that empowerment has some limits (Argyris, 1998). For instance, Eccles (1996) argues that while empowerment and other policies designed to involve employees are useful, nothing can replace effective management power. He supports strong management, and he mentions that good managers are finding that their contributions are becoming recognized as vital. Eccles maintains the idea that strong management makes organizations successful and that empowerment is not necessarily a tool for managers. He asserts that despite the fact that team spirit and innovation should be supported, that does not make an organization feel free to all. Eccles's approach to empowerment sounds old-fashioned. On the other hand, he supports his ideas by providing strong examples and giving some intriguing experiences.

Managers who are accustomed to acquire power and authority may be reluctant to relinquish it (Argyris, 1998; Khan, 1997; Kizilos, 1990; Kowal & Parsons, 1995). Middle managers' support is especially important in utilizing empowerment. The power of a middle manager is derived from their control of information. Some middle managers

retain power by deliberately withholding information (Conner, 1997). It is also important to remember that empowerment and information are like brothers.

When the business environment is predictable, requiring low-cost, high-volume operations, employee empowerment may not be appropriate. Some employees are better suited for empowerment than others; therefore, the degree of empowerment that is used for employees should be explored.

Another potential constraint in the empowerment process is the lack of a shared vision. This is an essential ingredient. Block (1991) describes the creation of a vision, which expresses values and what one hopes to contribute, as the first step toward empowerment. Kanter (1983) points out the need for specificity. Based on the assessment of a particular corporation's strengths and traditions, the concepts and visions driving change must be both inspiring and realistic. From an organizational perspective, Peters (1987) believes that an effective vision in the marketplace would emphasize the creation of enduring capability that would, in turn, allow the organization to execute the strategy. In his analysis, Peters includes empowerment of people as a criterion for effective visions. Despite its current popularity, it is evident that there are several constraints surrounding the empowerment process. This situation is aggravated by the lack of empirical evidence supporting its effectiveness.

Service Industry, Restaurant Business and Empowerment Implementation

The modern business world has been facing a transformation from an economy based on manufacturing to one based on service. The roots of this shift and the development of food service business began after the labor crises in World War II (Reynolds, 1998). The food service business is the largest segment in the hospitality industry, and it is one of the largest businesses overall in the United States. According to the National Restaurant Association, several key facts for the restaurant industry in terms of its relations with its workers are:

- The restaurant industry employs 11 million people, making it the nation's largest employer outside of government.
- The restaurant industry provides work for more than 8 percent of those employed in the United States.
- One-third of all adults in the United States have worked in the restaurant industry at some time during their lives.
- Eating-and-drinking places are extremely labor-intensive. Sales per full-time-equivalent employee were \$52,480 in 1998, notably lower than other industries.
- Total annual wages and benefits equal \$39 billion for fullservice restaurants and \$35 billion for limited-service (fast-food) establishments.
- The restaurant industry is an important employer of new workers, providing employment opportunities for persons who are relatively inexperienced or unskilled.
- Almost 6 out of 10 employees in foodservice occupations (58 percent) are women, 12 percent are African-American, and 17 percent are of Hispanic origin.
- Nearly 3 out of 4 quick service operators have recently hired an employee who was a former welfare recipient.

Source: National Restaurant Association Web Site
(http://www.restaurant.org/research/ind_glance.html)

Fierce competition from top to bottom challenges even big restaurant firms to keep up with ongoing trends. Cohen (1997) attributes a restaurant's success to the "Wow" effect. He describes the "Wow" effect as all the efforts that are collectively done

by the top management group to keep the restaurants fresh and exciting for both customers and employees (Cohen, 1997. p.75). In this type of environment, the success of a service organization depends largely on the social and practical skills of its personnel, their dedication, manner, initiative and hard work (Anastassova & Purcell, 1995).

Brymer (1991) states that most of the hospitality operations run with centralized and hierarchical structure. This type of structure is strictly followed by employees. Changing this hierarchical structure and asking managers to relinquish some of their decision-making ability might be difficult, but not impossible. As a matter of fact, sharing some of the authority could result in a new leadership strategy for the managers. To implement empowerment into the organizations, a change in policies, practices, and structures of the organization is inevitable (Bowen & Lawler, 1995). Without clear objectives and scope (Brymer, 1991), preparing and implementing the organizational change necessary for empowerment can be overwhelming.

Lashley (1999) claims that employment practices, particularly gaining competitive advantage through improved service quality, have been linked to employee empowerment in service industry. Having such a connection makes implementation somewhat difficult because of the intangibility of services. Management commitment is needed in order for employee involvement to be effective (Brymer, 1991; Conner, 1997; Ford & Fottler, 1995; Khan, 1997). Lower level employees are usually concerned about management commitment. They think that without such commitment, employee involvement becomes just another program-of-the-month. Potential programs can be sabotaged at almost any level of management. This is why it is so important to appraise

the organizational environment before starting an employee involvement program.

Without such management commitment, it is probably better not to even try empowerment. In addition, sharing information, creating autonomy through structure, and letting teams become the hierarchy is the plan for implementing and continuing empowerment.

For employee involvement programs to be successful, managers must also change their perspectives and behavior. What is often not realized is that the jobs of lower- and middle-level managers may change as much as those of lower-level employees. For the typical supervisor, giving employees increased decision-making power means that the supervisor has less power. It's necessary to train that supervisor to understand his or her new job as coach, liaison, planner, and policy maker. Supervisors often find these new tasks to be more rewarding than their former jobs, but the transformation is not easy.

Empowerment Research in the Hospitality Industry

Fulford and Enz (1995) scrutinize the consequences of perceived empowerment on the attitudes of employees in service-based organizations. They propose that service employees' perceptions of empowerment will affect their job satisfaction, performance, loyalty, and delivery of service. In addition, they posit that customer contact employees will have many more empowerment feelings than employees with no customer contact. Data was obtained from a total of 297 employees (ages 16-67 yrs) working in thirty private clubs from the Eastern region of the United States. Fulford and Enz utilize Spreitzer's (1992) conceptualization of empowerment in their study. The principal component method is used to analyze four dimensions of empowerment, i.e., impact, competence, meaning, and choice. While meaning and competence are retained as

distinct factors after the factor analysis, impact and choice load into a single factor; therefore, a three-factor structure is realized and the researchers name the new factor as “influence”. Fulford and Enz argue that club environment and other factors, such as the nature of the group researched and the size of the company, are the basis of this reduction from two dimensions of empowerment into one. Calculated reliability coefficients for new subscales reveal a high degree of scale reliability (0.70 to 0.83) (Fulford & Enz, 1995, p. 168). The results show that satisfaction, performance, loyalty, and service delivery are explained by these three dimensions. In addition, differences are found between the feelings of empowerment of part-time and full-time workers. In contrast, the empowerment feelings of front office and back office employees do not differ significantly.

Corsun and Enz (1999) want to predict the impact of psychological empowerment of service workers in terms of support-based relationships between both internal organizational relationships and employee-customer relationships (Corsun & Enz, 1999). The researchers suggest that environments in which cooperation and trust shape relationships among workers are those that foster empowerment. In addition, internal organizational relationships, such as peer-helping behaviors and supportive organizational environments, and employee-customer relationships, such as having supportive customers and maintaining employee-customer value congruity, are linked to empowerment. To test this linkage, data is collected from 292 service employees in 21 private clubs from the eastern United States. The study reveals that when peer helping and customer supportive relationship exist, employees feel more empowered.

Conversely, supportive organizational environment and employee customer value congruity do not indicate any relationship with empowerment.

Conrad Lashley has conducted a series of studies for understanding empowerment in a service and hospitality context by concentrating more on the organizational level rather than an individual's feelings of empowerment. The limits of empowerment, as well as several strategies that can be used for hospitality operations, are explored in the 1994 study (Lashley & McGoldrick, 1994). His research findings indicate that in terms of the hospitality industry, HRM strategies, such as competition through service quality, have been associated with employee empowerment. In addition, Lashley gives examples from McDonald's suggestion schemes, Scott Hotel's employee training programs, Hilton International's employee involvement strategies, and semiautonomous work groups and flat levels of management strategies from Harvester Restaurants, as they are related to empowerment. It is also indicated in the study that hospitality industries should choose forms of empowerment according to their culture, their perceptions of organizational needs, and the definitions of empowerment.

Selection of the different forms of empowerment is the concentration of Lashley's first study in 1995 (Lashley, 1995a). Lashley provides a framework for understanding managerial motives in selecting different forms of empowerment in this study. The benefits, as well as managerial meanings and initiatives used to foster those meanings of empowerment, have also been identified. Empowerment through participation, involvement, commitment, and delayering are some of the meanings explored. Investigating changes toward the management hierarchy (i.e. delayering) and empowerment practices at McDonald's restaurants in the Wales area is the subsequent

study that Lashley conducted in 1995. In this study, the organizational structure of the restaurants is compared before and after the implementation of the change (Lashley, 1995b). Five dimensions of empowerment, specifically, task dimension, task allocation, power, commitment, and culture, which constitute a framework, are investigated. Informal interviews are conducted with twelve managers and two area supervisors. Results suggest that empowerment practices and feelings of empowerment change one from another. Empowered restaurant managers feel that they do not need ongoing close supervision anymore, and they realize that they are accountable for their actions and performance. On the other hand, there is a lack of clarity in terms of boundaries of responsibilities and authorities among managers.

Ashness and Lashley examine an empowerment program at Harvester Restaurants for the service workers (Ashness & Lashley, 1995). More specifically, re-organization programs based on a consideration of culture, organization, people and system, as they relate to empowerment, have been investigated at Harvester Restaurants. A removal of two layers of management within the organization is realized when the restructuring program was put into practice; therefore, perceptions and expectations of those involved in working within the organization have been ambiguous. Semi-structured interviews are conducted to understand what each individual feels about empowerment. Results indicate that upon execution of the program, individuals have become capable of understanding and committing to the business objectives throughout the organization. In addition, problems are resolved more quickly without recourse to the manager (Ashness & Lashley, 1995, p. 29.).

A recent work concerning employee empowerment in services is a reflection of Lashley's previous studies (Lashley, 1999). Covered topics in this study are: empowerment in the service sector, managerial intentions for empowerment, the forms of empowerment, and the state of empowerment in the service context. One of the most emphasized points again is that there is not a standardized empowerment program that can be used for a certain type of organization, therefore, a framework analysis based upon a number of key dimensions is needed before implementing an empowerment program.

Job Satisfaction

Growth of the interest in the quality of work caused researchers to investigate various aspects of jobs and their relations to improving productivity for a long period of time. Among these aspects, job satisfaction is considered the most often researched organizational variable in the organizational behavior literature (Blau, 1999; Kiechel, 1989). In 1976, Locke conducted a review of job satisfaction and claimed that over 3,350 articles had been written about job satisfaction between 1957 and 1976 (Locke, 1976). With respect to this special attention, almost all aspects of job satisfaction, in accordance to theories, measures and definitions, motivational, emotional, and informational components (Beck, 1990), have been explored in management literature by various researchers.

In the late 1920s, the factors influencing productivity and job satisfaction were investigated in Hawthorne studies conducted by Elton Mayo and his associates. They started exploring the productivity of service workers. According to the results of the study, psychological and social influences were much more effective than changes in wages and hours, which had long been the primary matter of most managers and

economists who had assumed that labor was basically an article of trade to be bought and sold (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg and his colleagues' two-factor theory is based upon a study conducted to explore the factors influencing job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman, 1959). This study concluded that there are two kinds of job-related factors (Table 2.1) in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Motivators or intrinsic factors, which are related to content of the job or the job itself, are considered to satisfy people's psychological needs, such as recognition, responsibility, achievement, advancements, and the work itself (Herzberg, 1987). These intrinsic factors are also called as satisfiers. On the other hand, hygiene or extrinsic factors related to the job environment such as compensation, supervision, working conditions, and company policy could generate dissatisfaction when they are lacking. Herzberg claims that hygiene factors are not directly related to job satisfaction; therefore, these factors will not distinctly improve performance (Herzberg, 1982).

Motivators-Intrinsic Factors	Hygiene- Extrinsic Factors
1. Recognition	1. Interpersonal relations
2. Achievement	2. Working conditions
3. Responsibility	3. Salary-Compensation
4. Advancement	4. Company policy and administration
5. Work itself	5. Supervision
	6. Job security

Table 2.1: Herzberg's motivators and hygiene factors affecting job satisfaction

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow, one of the founders of school of humanistic psychology and the leader of modern personal-growth movement (Zemke, 1988), believed that human needs are arranged in a graded series. He classified these hierarchical needs into five categories: 1. Self-actualization (self-fulfillment and growth); 2. Self-esteem (self-respect and esteem of others); 3. Social level (relations with others); 4. Safety (security, stability, structure, and order); and, 5. Physiological level (food, rest, and environment).

According to Maslow, while unsatisfied needs can influence behavior, fulfilled needs no longer motivate people.

Physiological needs are the essential needs. Breathing, eating, drinking and physically surviving are the most straightforward in the hierarchical scale. Maslow claims that they are the first priority of the human being and that nothing else is desired until they are satisfied (Maslow, 1970). Once these needs are satisfied, safety needs such as protection, security, stability, structure, order and anxiety, become important.

Social needs constitute the third level. These needs are: the need to be with others, to belong, to have friends, to love and be loved. Maslow states that social needs become primary motivators after the satisfaction of safety and physiological needs. Feeling a part of the team and being valued could be given as examples of the social needs in the workplace.

Self-esteem or ego needs is the fourth level in the hierarchy. Satisfaction of the need for self-esteem leads to feelings of self-confidence, strength, and mastery. After these four needs are satisfied, the final need, self-actualization, is realized. Self-actualization is considered as the pinnacle of the human needs. As an individual progresses upward, it becomes progressively more difficult to successfully fulfill the needs of each higher level. For this reason Maslow believed that very few people actually reach the level of self-actualization, and it is a lifelong process for the few who do (Maslow, 1970).

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory, developed by Vroom (1964), has served as a theoretical foundation for many studies in psychology, organizational behavior, and managerial accounting (Baker, Ravichandran, & Randall, 1989). The theory is intended to explain how a person decides on among alternative forms of behavior. According to Vroom (1964), human behavior is a function of two factors: the perceived value of the reward that certain behavior yields, and the expectation in the doer that certain behaviors will actually yield that reward. Expectancy theory posits that motivated behavior or effort depends upon an individual's willingness to display effort, his possession of requisite

skills and abilities, as well as his ability to perceive the most appropriate way of obtaining his objectives.

Vroom's expectancy theory consists of three components. The first one, valence, is described as the extent to which a person is worth a specific reward (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999) or an individual's assessment of the attractiveness of an initial outcome directly expected from the effort made. Motivation to receive a reward will increase when an individual thinks that the reward for his or her effort will be equal to or more than his or her expectancy.

Instrumentality or performance-outcome expectancy is related to a person's expectations that the rewards he will receive are closely tied to his level of performance. In other words, instrumentality is the relationship between performance and the receipt of consequences (Vroom, 1964). For example, low instrumentality for a foodservice worker is realized if he works for straight wages and has no prospect for bonuses no matter how extraordinary his performance has been.

The last component, expectancy, is defined as a subjective probability that expresses perceived relationship between levels of effort and levels of performance on the task. In order to maintain high expectancy, training, empowerment, or any technique increasing individuals' perception can be implemented (Griffith, 1996; Villere & Hartman, 1990).

Equity Theory

As a dominant theory in social exchange and justice within organizations (Kabanoff, 1991), Adams' Equity theory states that people want a balance between their inputs and outcomes and the outcomes that other people receive for their inputs (Adams,

1965). Inputs are whatever the individual believes they are bringing to the task and outcomes are whatever participants believe they get, given their inputs (Griffith, 1996). Considering this assumed balance, the job satisfaction of employees increases as their perception of the return for their input increases (Lawler, 1973). Equity theory posits that perceptions of equitable pay play an important role in defining attitudes and behaviors concerning employment, because individuals attempt to equate their ratios of outcomes to inputs with the ratios of relevant others. If a worker believes that his or her efforts are being under-rewarded in comparison to his or her colleagues' efforts, the worker will attempt to restore balance by either securing additional rewards or reducing his or her efforts (Bradt, 1996; Farkas & Anderson, 1979; Griffith, 1996). The relationship between outcomes and inputs is formulated as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes}_A}{\text{Inputs}_A} = \frac{\text{Outcomes}_B}{\text{Inputs}_B}$$

Later on, Walster and his colleagues had revisited this formula for the conditions in which participants have negative inputs (Walster, Berscheid, & Walster, 1973).

$$\frac{O_A - I_A}{|I_A|} = \frac{O_B - I_B}{|I_B|}$$

O and I stand for the respective perceived outcomes and inputs of each participant and |I| is the absolute value of the participants' inputs. Whenever an inequity takes place in the exchange, individuals will become distressed and their motivation to reduce the inequity will increase (Glass & Wood, 1996). On the other hand, balance between these variables generates increased performance (Gould, 1979) and job satisfaction (Lawler, 1983).

Job Characteristics Theory

Job characteristics refer to the content and nature of the job tasks themselves (Spector, 1997). Job Characteristics Theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980) suggests that personal and organizational outcomes are influenced by five job characteristics: 1. autonomy, i.e., the freedom employees have to do their jobs as they see fit; 2. task identity, i.e., whether or not an employee does an entire job or a piece of job; 3. task significance, i.e., the impact a job has on other people; 4. skill variety, i.e., the number of different skills necessary to do a job; and 5. job feedback, i.e., the extent to which it is obvious to employees that they are doing their jobs correctly (Spector, 1997, p.33.)

According to the theory, motivation to execute the job tasks will grow when people consider their jobs meaningful and enjoyable (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Spector, 1997). Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) was developed to evaluate these theoretical characteristics, and the researchers found that a mixture of these characteristics predicts job satisfaction. The survey is also considered one of the most used tools that measures job satisfaction (Pierce & Dunham, 1976). In addition, Lee-Ross (1998) found that the Job Diagnostic Survey and theoretical framework behind the survey is valid for employees working in the hospitality sector.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Conceptualization of job satisfaction in literature occurs in several ways, as indicated in the theories of job satisfaction. Intrinsic-extrinsic job factor dichotomy, emphasized in Motivation-Hygiene theory by Herzberg, Mausner and Synderman (1959), strongly influences job satisfaction research (Spillane, 1973). Herzberg and his associates state that some events are more related to satisfaction, while others are related

to dissatisfaction. Motivating, intrinsic or satisfying factors refer to factors that stem from performing the work and from experiencing feelings of accomplishment and self-actualization (e.g., freedom in job and task-identity). On the other hand, hygiene, extrinsic, or dissatisfying factors are derived from the rewards bestowed on an individual by peers, superiors or the organization and can take the form of recognition, compensation, advancement, or other benefits (Naumann, 1993).

Following a review and synthesis of the related literature, Pritchard and Peters (1974) suggest that job satisfaction is the notion of rewards. First, they distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. They suggest that extrinsic rewards, such as pay, promotion, security, etc. are granted by the organization, and intrinsic rewards, such as feelings of accomplishment, feelings of doing an important job, etc. are given to the person by himself. They then contend that intrinsic satisfaction is determined by intrinsic rewards and extrinsic satisfaction is determined by extrinsic rewards. Lastly, they claim that intrinsic satisfaction could be conceptualized as the actual job duties the person performs, whereas extrinsic satisfaction arises mostly from the interactions of the worker with the organization outside his actual job duties (Pritchard & Peters, 1974, p.317). The results of the study support their argument. They found that intrinsic satisfaction is determined more by the job itself than is extrinsic satisfaction. Green (1972), Schwab and Cummings (1970) also assume that a cause and effect relationship exists between improved performance and greater job satisfaction, because of the rewards associated with improved performance.

Other studies conducted in literature about job satisfaction connect intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction with a number of other factors. For example, De Young (1985-

1986) found that intrinsic satisfaction is associated with intrinsic motivation. By association, intrinsic satisfaction differs from extrinsic motivation in that it is not easily manipulated. Rewards or punishments influence extrinsic motivation; however, intrinsic motivation remains unaffected by these manipulations.

Arvey and Dewhirst (1979) looked at the relationships between age, salary treatment as a measure of performance and diversity of interests in general and in job specific occupational areas and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. They found that age had a significant positive relationship with extrinsic satisfaction whereas diversity of interests in general, and in job specific occupational areas was positively related to job satisfaction.

Later, Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham (1989) explore the environmental and genetic components of job satisfaction. One of the several outcomes indicated in the results of their study suggests that organizations have less control over the individuals' feelings about job satisfaction. Even though some environmental effects accelerate intrinsic job satisfaction, certain boundaries still exist for each individual. In addition, it is proposed that an employee's current knowledge of job satisfaction might be an indicator of future job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. A recent study conducted in Hong Kong to investigate hotel employees' choice of job-related motivators reveals that maintaining high satisfaction with extrinsic factors does not ensure actual satisfaction; therefore, intrinsic factors must be satisfied as well (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

The Work Adjustment Project, which is intended to the development of diagnostic tools for assessing the work adjustment of the prospective applicants and the evaluation of work adjustment outcomes, was a basis for Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist

(1967) to develop the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Two forms of the MSQ are created for the purposes of the research, a short form and a long form. The long form of the MSQ consists of one hundred items (five items per facet), and the short form is composed of twenty items (one item per facet). The MSQ short form measures intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction with twenty very specific facets.

Weiss et al. (1967) suggest that the MSQ, with these twenty facets of job satisfaction, helps obtain a more individualized representation of job satisfaction than other measures of job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Empowerment

Empirical research about certain organizational behaviors and the outcomes of these behaviors for the employees of both service and manufacturing organizations have helped a number of researchers conclude that there is a relationship between an employee's job satisfaction and feelings of empowerment (Ashness & Lashley, 1995; Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Fulford & Enz 1995; Rogers, Clow, & Kash, 1994; Sparrowe, 1994; Spreitzer et al., 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994).

In terms of the connection between four employee empowerment dimensions (impact, meaningfulness, competence, and self-determination) and job satisfaction, there are several conclusions made by various researchers. For example, a link between meaningfulness of work and work satisfaction is founded in literature (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Herzberg, 1966; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Individuals who think that their work is meaningful report more satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Spreitzer et al. (1997) suggest that those who feel more proficient about their work are expected to feel more satisfied with their job. Thomas and Tymon (1994) found that as personal control

increases, satisfaction increases; hence, there is a positive relationship between personal control and job satisfaction. In addition, impact dimension of empowerment is also found to be associated with work satisfaction. (Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Contrary to some of the arguments above, Spreitzer et al. (1997) found that empowerment dimensions are differentially related to different outcomes. For example, their research reveals that meaning and self determination are related to job satisfaction, whereas competence and impact have no significant relation to job satisfaction.

A research study conducted about empowerment practices in Harvester Restaurants reveals that empowerment fosters feelings of job satisfaction (Ashness & Lashley, 1995). Sparrowe's research on service workers (1994) also advises that satisfaction with pay and promotion are associated with empowerment. Fulford and Enz (1995) discovered that the dimensions of meaning and influence (they collapsed choice and impact dimensions of empowerment to one dimension and named it influence) significantly explain job satisfaction, but that competence is not a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

In exploring ways to increase the job satisfaction of service personnel, Rogers and his colleagues highlight several points (Rogers et al., 1994). First, they suggest that maintaining effective communication and having clear goals in a service organization helps service personnel to respond to the needs of customers in a quick and accurate manner. They also claim that empathy, which is the individualized attention the firm provides its customers (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988), generates satisfied employees and satisfied customers. They conclude that taking part in an environment where empathy is a dominant element of doing business requires empowerment, and

freedom to express empathy toward customers will let employees feel less tension on the job, which will turn into higher job satisfaction (Rogers et al., 1994).

Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Turnover

The hospitality industry has certain characteristics that differentiate itself from other industries. It is usually seen as an industry where job security and promotions are minimal. Other characteristics, such as limited career development opportunities and low wages, also affect an employee's decision to stay in or leave the industry. This raises costs and decreases the quality of service delivered. In such an industry, organizational commitment and employee turnover have always been important factors for hospitality firms.

The relationship between organizational commitment, turnover and job satisfaction was explored by a number of researchers (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Mueller, Finley, Iverson, & Price, 1999; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Russ & McNeilly, 1995). By definition, turnover refers to actual movement across the membership boundary of an organization (Price, 1977; 1997) and organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee feels loyalty to a particular organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mueller, Wallace, & Price, 1992; Price, 1997). Igarria and Greenhaus (1992) claim that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the most immediate determinants of turnover intentions. While the direction and causation among these variables can be different (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), it is commonly stated that job satisfaction affects organizational commitment, and that organizational commitment affects turnover intentions (Brown & Peterson, 1993).

Employees who are both satisfied with their jobs and well-committed to their organizations are considered to be stable with their organizations. It has been suggested that this relationship is extensively affected by several other factors, such as type of occupation, age of employee, experience, gender, research design, and sample selection (Cohen, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1990; Russ & McNeilly, 1995; Werbel & Gould, 1984).

Turnover has not always been harmful for hospitality organizations. When low performers quit their jobs, this could be in favor of the organization. Newcomers will bring fresh ideas and positive energy resulting higher degrees of efficiency and enthusiasm to their new organization. On the other hand, the idea of always having potential employees to work in the hospitality industry has been changed by the labor shortages. According to the National Restaurant Association's Restaurant Industry Operations Report-1999, "restaurant-employee-turnover rates increased in 1998 at both fullservice and limited-service (fast-food) operations. Fullservice restaurants with an average check of \$10 or more posted a median annual turnover rate of 83 percent in 1998, compared with 61 percent in 1997" (Ebbin, 2000). The costs associated with turnover can be direct, such as administrative expenses, separation pay and training, or indirect, such as productivity losses (Woods & Macaulay, 1989). By dollar figures, turnover cost for each hourly employee is around \$3,000 for a restaurant (Wasmuth & Davis, 1983; Woods & Macaulay, 1989).

Chapter Summary

With respect to the purpose of the research and the research questions described in Chapter One, a literature review on psychological empowerment and job satisfaction is presented. The review includes the theories of management, the theories of empowerment, benefits, types and organizational factors affecting empowerment, as well as empowerment research and implementation in hospitality and service industry.

Job satisfaction is also discussed in the review in concentrating on intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The following chapter will give details about the methods that will be used in conducting the research.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Overview

The study seeks to extend previous research findings (e.g. Ashness & Lashley, 1995; Corsun & Enz, 1999; Fulford & Enz, 1995) on feelings of empowerment and job satisfaction of non-supervisory employees working in the service industry, specifically in restaurants. In order to satisfy the objectives and research questions of the study, the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the data are explored in this chapter. The following sections describe the research methods used in conducting the study, including the research design, the survey procedure, the sample, the instrumentation, the data collection, and the methods of data analysis.

Research Design

This study examines the relationship between job satisfaction and psychological empowerment. Specifically, the dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction as well as organizational variables affecting psychological empowerment were investigated in the study. Organizational commitment as an outcome of job satisfaction of non-supervisory employees working in casual restaurants was also explored in this study. Descriptive and correlational statistics were used to examine

relationships among the variables. Standardized and close-ended questionnaires were employed for the research. The survey instrument contained self-reported questions about job satisfaction, psychological empowerment organizational commitment, trust, leader member exchange quality, information accuracy, communication openness, and adequacy of training.

The Sample

Non-supervisory employees working in three restaurant chains were targeted for the study. The restaurant chains in which the study was conducted employ 500 to 4000 non-supervisory workers. The Restaurant Chain A employs a total number of 4,486 people and approximately 4000 of the total employees work in the non-supervisory positions. Restaurant Chain B employs approximately a total number of 500 non-supervisory workers. Restaurant Chain C employs approximately 550 non-supervisory workers.

Restaurant Chain A owns and operates fifty-four restaurants, and franchises three restaurants in the eleven states in Midwest region of the United States as of December 1999. The chain has recently opened several new company-owned and franchised units in 2000 (nine units have been added as of September, 2000).

One of the main characteristics of the chain is that it features moderately priced popular American food in casual atmosphere. The food served in the chain's restaurants includes homemade pasta dishes, gourmet food, grilled steak, chicken specialties, and salads. In addition, the restaurant provides a full complement of alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages.

Restaurant Chain B operates nine restaurants in Columbus, Ohio; however, two new restaurants were scheduled to open in late summer 2000. The chain offers high quality and innovative menu items in different kinds of upscale-casual restaurants.

Restaurant Chain C operates eleven restaurants in central Ohio. It is a family style restaurant chain serving home, country style food. In comparison to Chains A and B, the menu is more limited and the prices are lower.

The total number of employees in non-supervisory positions for the three chains was 5,050. Forty percent of these 5,050 employees were targeted for the study; therefore, 74 survey packages for 2,000 employees were sent the survey on May 24, 2000. By June 24, 2000, 55 survey packages with 867 surveys were received resulting in a 43.3% return rate from the three restaurant chains. On June 27, 2000, follow-up letters and reminder cards were sent to the general managers of the remaining restaurants to increase the response rate. The cards and follow-up letters helped to increase the total response rate. Eleven more restaurants with 136 surveys from three chains were received by July 24, 2000 (Table 3.1).

A total of 1,003 surveys were collected from 66 restaurants representing 50.1% response rate. After a deliberate examination of the returns, some surveys were found incomplete and they were excluded from the study. As a result, the remaining 924 usable surveys represent a 46.2% final response rate. The sample consisted of both males and females with different types of demographics.

	Survey Sent (n)	Survey Received (n)	Usable Survey	Usable Return
<u>Restaurant Chain A</u>				
First Mailing	1,580 (54 Restaurants)	748 (44 Restaurants)	698	44.1%
Follow-up Letters	10 letters	109 (8 Restaurants)	100	
Total	1,580	857 (52 Restaurants)	798	50.5%
<u>Restaurant Chain B</u>				
First Mailing	200 (9 Restaurants)	68 (6 Restaurants)	60	30%
Follow-up Letters	3 letters	20 (2 Restaurants)	17	
Total	200	88 (8 Restaurants)	77	38.5%
<u>Restaurant Chain C</u>				
First Mailing	220 (11 Restaurants)	51 (5 Restaurants)	44	22%
Follow-up Letters	6 letters	7 (1 Restaurant)	5	
Total	220	58 (6 Restaurants)	49	22.2%
Grand Total	2,000 (74 Restaurants)	1,003 (66 Restaurants)	924	46.2%

Table 3.1: The sample and return

Variables of Interest

The review of literature was the source consulted to identify the variables that were used in this study. In general, the dependent variables are job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and the independent variables are psychological empowerment and organizational factors affecting psychological empowerment (Table 3.2).

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Demographics
<i>Psychological Empowerment</i>	<i>Job Satisfaction</i>	Gender
Meaning	<i>Organizational Commitment</i>	Age
Self-efficacy		Education
Influence		Current Job Tenure
		Industry Experience
<i>Organizational Factors</i>		Ethnic Background
Information Accuracy		Job Status
Communication Openness		Job Type
Leader Member Exchange		Language
Trust		
Adequacy of Training		

Table 3.2: The variables used in this study

Data Collection

Non-supervisory restaurant employees working in the casual restaurant chains were targeted in this study. In order to collect data from these employees, *Foodservice Operators Guide* (1999), a comprehensive list of the restaurants located in the United States, was used to identify the casual restaurant chains listed in the city of Columbus. The directory contains the names of the restaurant companies for each city in the United States. Twenty-eight chain restaurants from various restaurant companies were listed under the city of Columbus in this directory. Since casual restaurant chains were targeted for the study, several companies including quick service, and coffee shops were eliminated from the group. Out of twenty-eight, seven companies were identified as casual restaurant chains and were asked to participate in the study.

Because the target group are non-supervisory employees working in these restaurants, the top management of seven companies were contacted to obtain permission to conduct the research and the related survey. Three companies were interested in the study and scheduled a meeting with the researcher. The purpose and nature of the research were explained in the first scheduled meeting with the contact person of the restaurant companies. Each contact person was given a short presentation about the research and how it would be carried out. After the presentations, these companies agreed to participate in the research. In the remaining part of this study, these three companies will be referred to Chain A, Chain B and Chain C.

A second meeting was scheduled with the contact person from each of the three companies to talk about the details of the research and to collect the necessary

information about the restaurant chains. In this meeting, the contact person from each restaurant provided a list to the researcher containing the names of the managers, restaurant addresses and telephone numbers, and the approximate total number of non-supervisory employees working for each of the restaurants. Assurances of confidentiality as well as voluntary participation, were also given in the second meeting.

Upon receiving the necessary information about the restaurant companies, the general managers of all of the restaurants were informed by the researcher either via e-mail or telephone about the study. In addition, a letter explaining the nature of the study was sent to each restaurant along with a support letter from the corporate office, indicating permission to distribute the survey to the employees working in each restaurant.

The Human Subject Review Committee at the Ohio State University was also informed of the study and gave its approval. The format and the procedure of the survey were prepared using Dillman's (2000) methods. The survey was printed as a booklet. The front cover and the back of the survey contained no questions. Demographics were asked in the last part. Other methods suggested by Dillman were used thorough the survey. Each survey package contained items for the restaurant general managers and the employees. The general managers received a support letter for the research from the corporate office and a cover letter from the researcher that explains the details and procedure about the survey (Appendix C). The survey instrument (Appendix A), and a cover letter for each employee were placed in package.

The general managers of each restaurant carried out the distribution and collection of the surveys. The general managers were asked to distribute surveys randomly among

employees. Since the general managers were to collect the completed surveys, a small envelope with each survey was included for every employee to assure confidentiality. Employees were instructed to put their completed surveys into these provided envelopes. In addition, an addressed and stamped return envelope was included for ease of return by the general manager of these restaurants.

All the general managers were instructed to mail the survey packages directly to the researcher's address in order to assure participants of confidentiality. The surveys were coded in such a way as to assure subject confidentiality, and to facilitate the process of organizing data, of following up on non-respondents, and of reporting the results. It was indicated in the letters both to the general managers and to the employees that a report about the study will be provided them, upon request, after the study was completed.

Instrumentation

In order to operationalize the variables of psychological empowerment, the organizational factors affecting psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the research instrument was divided into three main sections:

- 1- Job satisfaction: This was measured by using Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form;
- 2- Questions about psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational factors affecting psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment was measured by an instrument designed by Fulford and Enz (1995). This instrument was originally designed by Spreitzer (1992, 1995a), and;

3- Demographic and Professional Characteristics of the Sample

The scales used in the survey instrument and the original Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the adopted scales were demonstrated at Table 3.3. Each instrument and their explanations are as following:

Part 1: Job Satisfaction

In order to measure job satisfaction of the workers, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short-Form (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967) was utilized for this study. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form (see Appendix A) consists of twenty items. Intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction are measured by this questionnaire. Each item is arranged with five responses in a Likert scale format. Response categories are: (1) Very Dissatisfied, (2) Dissatisfied, (3) Neutral, (4) Satisfied, and (5) Very Satisfied. A score for each respondent's intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction is calculated by adding his or her scores for the questions. Six of the twenty questions are used for measuring extrinsic satisfaction, and twelve questions are used for measuring intrinsic satisfaction. The remaining two items are used when measuring general job satisfaction. General satisfaction is found by measuring all 20 items. Adding up the scores from the 20 items and then dividing by 20 can reveal a raw mean score for general satisfaction.

Weiss et al. (1967) advise that raw satisfaction scores should be compared with the appropriate norm group to provide the point of reference. They also suggest, "The most meaningful scores to use in interpreting the MSQ are the percentile scores for each scale obtained from the most appropriate norm group for the individual. Ordinarily a

percentile score of 75 or higher would be taken to represent high degree of satisfaction; a percentile score of 25 or lower would indicate a low level of satisfaction; and scores in the middle range of percentiles indicate average satisfaction” (Weiss et al., 1967 p. 5).

The manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire provides data for the long form MSQ and the short form MSQ. Because some of the norm groups are not available, a similar norm group can be selected with a careful examination. This should be done based on comparing the characteristics such as type of supervision, working conditions, rate of pay and so forth. Lastly, MSQ ranked raw scores for all scales can be used to specify one’s satisfaction. These rankings indicate areas of relatively greater or lesser satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967).

There are two forms of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire: a long form and a short form. Weiss et al. (1967) suggest that validity of the short form may be inferred from validity of the long form (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist, (1964) conducted the construct validation studies, in addition to the other construct validation studies based on the Theory of Work Adjustment. Content and concurrent validity of the long form were also supported by the factor analysis and by measuring group differences in satisfaction (Weiss et al, 1967).

The reliability of the short form was found by investigating six occupational groups. The high reliability coefficients ranging from .77 to .92 for intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction for different occupational groups supported the high reliability of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form. In addition, the scale has extensively been used for measuring job satisfaction. Validity and reliability of the scale have been verified in many studies.

Part 2: Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment was measured by a scale first constructed by Spreitzer (1992, 1995b), and then modified by Fulford and Enz (1995) to better measure service employees' feelings of empowerment. Spreitzer developed a 12-item scale, which conformed to measure the four dimensions of psychological empowerment. These dimensions are: (1) meaning; (2) competence (self-efficacy); (3) impact; and (4) self determination. Using a seven-point Likert-type scale with scores ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), Spreitzer employs three items for measuring each dimension (total of 12 items). The total score for the psychological empowerment scale has a possible range from 12 to 84. Adding up the scores of the 12 items and then dividing by 12 gives an average psychological empowerment score. The dimensions of psychological empowerment were stemmed from Conger and Kanungo's (1988) empowerment construct and from Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) theory of empowerment. Higher scores indicated higher levels of each dimension. The Cronbach alpha reliability for the empowerment measure was .74, and reliabilities for each of the scales were between .81 and .88 (Spreitzer, 1995b). Spreitzer also established validity of the instrument (Spreitzer, 1992; 1995b). Convergent, divergent, and predictive validity of empowerment from the related constructs, such as self-esteem and social desirability were established by Spreitzer.

In order to test Spreitzer's scale in the service environments, Fulford and Enz (1995) analyzed the scale, using the principal component method with varimax rotation. A three-factor structure was identified, which is partially different from Spreitzer's factor

structure. While meaning and competence (self efficacy) dimensions were consistent with that of Spreitzer's dimensions, self-determination and impact were loaded into a single factor, named as "influence". Fulford and Enz suggested that this is due to the nature of labor-intensive service organizations (Fulford & Enz, 1995, p.165). Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for meaning, self-efficacy, and influence were .80, .70 and .83 respectively. With respect to the purposes of the research, Fulford and Enz's instrument originally developed by Spreitzer was used in this study, using three items to measure psychological empowerment.

Organizational Factors Affecting Empowerment and Their Measurement

Leader Member Exchange quality was assessed with Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, and Tepper's (1992) six-item LMX-6 scale. Three components (i.e. Perceived Contribution, Loyalty, and Affect) of leader member exchange quality were identified by two questionnaire items for each component. Scores from the 6 items are added and then divided by 6 to obtain an average score for the leader member exchange quality scale. Schriesheim et al. (1992) tested the scale with two independent samples and retested in two other samples. Correcting these test and retest coefficients for measurement unreliability gave excellent reliabilities of .96 and .99 for the two samples. Convergent and discriminant validity of the LMX scale were also supported in other studies (Schriesheim, Liden, Maslyn, Cogliser, & Williams, 1997; Schriesheim, Scandura, Neider, & Eisenbach, 1992).

Adequacy of training was measured with Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh's, (1979) three-item adequacy of training scale that is taken from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. The Michigan Organizational Assessment

Questionnaire is used for assessing the employees' work attitudes and perceptions. Training adequacy was tested within the survey, in addition to other seventeen characteristics, which reflect an individual's perceptions about various task, job and role characteristics (Cammann et al., 1979). Alpha coefficient for the three-item adequacy of training scale was .59. A seven point Likert scale was used for responses for this scale. The response categories were: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Slightly Disagree, (4) Neutral, (5) Slightly Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Information accuracy and communication openness were measured by a scale developed by O'Reilly and Roberts (O'Reilly & Roberts, 1976). The scale consisted of ten questions. While the first five questions measured the accuracy of information, the other five assessed if individuals think that there was open communication in their work groups. An analysis of the total of 449 subjects from three different work groups (i.e. military personnel, clinic personnel, and practice personnel) resulted in Cronbach alphas of .74, .73, and .75 respectively for information accuracy and .88, .85 and .86 for communication openness. Again, a seven-point Likert scale is used for the responses with the response categories of (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Slightly Disagree, (4) Neutral, (5) Slightly Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Trust was measured by the interpersonal trust scale developed by Cook and Wall (1980). There were twelve questions used in the scale and a seven point Likert scale was utilized for the responses. There were two subdimensions in the scale. The scale calculated both faith in the intentions of peers and management and, confidence in actions of peers and management. Cronbach alpha reliability was .80 for the overall scale. A seven point Likert scale is used for the responses with the response categories of

(1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Slightly Disagree, (4) Neutral, (5) Slightly Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Organizational Commitment Measure

Organizational commitment is the degree of loyalty the employees feel toward the restaurants in which they are working. This study utilized the revised version of the 4-item organizational commitment scale recently used in two studies by Mueller et al. (1999) and Curri van (1999). Cronbach alpha reliabilities of the scales were .81 and .80 respectively. This scale was originally developed by Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) and it consists of fifteen items. The four items used in this study are highly inter-correlated, highly reliable and positively worded; therefore, this short version of the organizational commitment scale was employed in this study. A seven point Likert scale is used for the responses with the response categories of (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Slightly Disagree, (4) Neutral (5) Slightly Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Part-3: Demographics

The restaurant employee demographic information form was developed after a review of the relevant literature concerning psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of these workers. The respondents provide information about themselves in this part. These data were used to describe how different types of people feel about empowerment in relation to how they feel about job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Type of the scale</i>	<i>Cronbach Alpha</i>
<i>Psychological Empowerment</i>	(12)	Likert-7	
Meaning	3		.80
Competence (self-efficacy)	3		.70
Influence	6		.83
<i>Organizational Factors</i>			
Information Accuracy	5	Likert-7	.74
Communication Openness	5	Likert-7	.85
Leader Member Exchange	6	Questions-close-end answers	.96
Trust	12	Likert-7	.80
Adequacy of Training	3	Likert-7	.59
<i>Job Satisfaction*</i>	(20)	Likert-5	.87
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	12	Likert-5	.86
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	6	Likert-5	.90 (median)
<i>Organizational Commitment</i>	4	Likert-7	.80
<i>Demographics</i>	9		
Total Items	76		

*Two more items are used when measuring general job satisfaction

Table 3.3: The scales used in the survey instrument and the original Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the adopted scales

Data Analysis

The analysis of data was based upon the research objectives formulated for this study. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences 10th version (SPSS) was used to explore the data, using various statistical methods such as Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), factor analysis, and multiple regression analysis.

Gender, ethnic background, job status, job type, and language were assumed to be nominal data. Age, current job experience, and industry experience were considered as interval data. Highest degree of education was considered ordinal.

The psychological empowerment score for each employee is calculated by averaging the response items for the factors. A single score is obtained by this method. MSQ raw data were analyzed using correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, and ANOVA. Each of the research questions, the statistical procedure, and computation used to respond to the questions are as follows:

Research Question 1

What are the characteristics of the restaurant employees working for the selected restaurant chains? What are the descriptive statistics for the scales used in the study?

The demographic and professional characteristics of the respondents were demonstrated. The demographic characteristics explored in this study included gender, age, ethnic background, and native language. The professional characteristics include the education level, job tenure, job status, and job type. For each characteristic, quantity and corresponding percentage were indicated for each category.

For the scales used in the study, the means, standard deviations were illustrated. Scale reliabilities and scale intercorrelations were presented as well.

Research Question 2

What are the scores of psychological empowerment and the scores of the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among the restaurant chains?

Psychological empowerment of the respondents was assessed using a scale developed by Spreitzer (1992) and modified by Fulford and Enz (1995). Twelve items were used to find a total psychological empowerment score for each respondent. The total score for the psychological empowerment scale has a possible range from 12 to 84. A principal component analysis was conducted to examine the factor structure of the scale. There are three dimensions measured by the scale and the total scores for each dimension was found by adding up the corresponding items for each subscale. In addition, the total psychological empowerment score was categorized into three categories (low, average and high) by running a K-means cluster analysis (Gupta, 1999) using the SPSS.

The differences between the scores of psychological empowerment and the dimensions of psychological empowerment were examined performing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Research Question 3

What is the factor structure of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire for the restaurant employees working for the restaurants?

Factor structure of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was examined by running an analytical procedure using the SPSS. Principal component analysis using varimax rotation was utilized for the study to explore the dimensions in the data set. The scree plot and eigenvalue criterion (keeping factors with eigenvalues greater than one) were used to retain factors.

Research Question 4

What are the levels of overall job satisfaction scores for the employees working for the restaurants? Do the raw job satisfaction mean scores differ among restaurants? What are the restaurant employees' job satisfaction preferences?

A twenty-item scale was utilized to measure job satisfaction. A raw job satisfaction score for each respondent was found by summing up the scores from the 5-point Likert scale. (1=very dissatisfied thru 5 very satisfied). Total job satisfaction score range was between 20 and 100. Raw scores were converted to percentile scores to assess the levels of job satisfaction for each respondent. The levels of job satisfaction were named as low, average and high as suggested by the MSQ manual (Weiss et al., 1967).

The means and standard deviations of the 20 facets measured by the MSQ were also investigated to find which facets were the most and the least satisfiers for the restaurant employees.

An ANOVA was conducted to see if the overall job satisfaction scores differed among restaurants.

Research Question 5

What are the scores of organizational commitment for employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among restaurants?

A four-item scale was used to find an organizational commitment score for each respondent. Total score was found by summing up the scores from each item to find organizational commitment scores for each respondent. The total organizational commitment score was categorized into three categories (low, average and high) by running a K-means cluster analysis using SPSS. An ANOVA was conducted to see if the scores differed among restaurants.

Research Question 6

What is the relationship between scores on psychological empowerment and scores on job satisfaction of the employees working in the selected restaurants?

Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were found between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. For each chain, individual correlation coefficients were computed and interpreted according to its significance and magnitude.

Research Question 7

What is the variability of job satisfaction through the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? What is the contribution of each of the dimensions of psychological empowerment to the explanation of job satisfaction?

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed between the dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction to explore the variability of job satisfaction through the dimensions of psychological empowerment. The amount

of variance explained by the dimensions of psychological empowerment when job satisfaction is considered as dependent variable was found for each chain.

Research Question 8

What are the effects of the organizational factors on psychological empowerment when they are considered as predictors of psychological empowerment at the selected restaurants?

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted using several demographic variables and organizational factors as predictors. Multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) and R^2 change was computed at each step.

Research Question 9

What is the relationship between scores on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the restaurant employees? How do scores on psychological empowerment affect this relationship? Is there any mediating effect of psychological empowerment between job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Correlation coefficients between the mean general satisfaction score, the mean psychological empowerment score and the mean organizational commitment score were calculated. Partial correlation coefficients between the mean general job satisfaction score, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction scores and organizational behavior scores were computed controlling psychological empowerment.

Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures will be followed to examine if psychological empowerment has a mediating effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment relationship. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), Judd and Kenny (1981) and Kenny (1999), there are several steps in establishing mediation (Figure 3.1):

- 1- The first step involves utilizing a regression equation using the independent variable (job satisfaction) and the dependent variable (organizational commitment) (estimate and test path c). The total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be significant for meeting the requirement of the first step.
- 2- The second step requires conducting a regression equation using the independent variable (job satisfaction) and the mediator (psychological empowerment) as dependent variable (estimate and test path a). The path from the independent variable to the mediator must be significant for meeting the requirement of the second step.
- 3- The third step requires examining if the mediator (psychological empowerment) affects the dependent variable (organizational commitment) (estimate and test path b). The path from the mediator to the dependent variable must be significant for meeting the requirement of the third step.
- 4- If the independent variable (job satisfaction) no longer has any effect (nonsignificant) on the dependent variable (organizational commitment) when the mediator (psychological empowerment) has been controlled, complete mediation has occurred (nonsignificant c).

If these four steps are followed and the conditions are met, variable M completely mediates the X-Y relationship. If the first three steps are met, this is a sign of partial mediation.

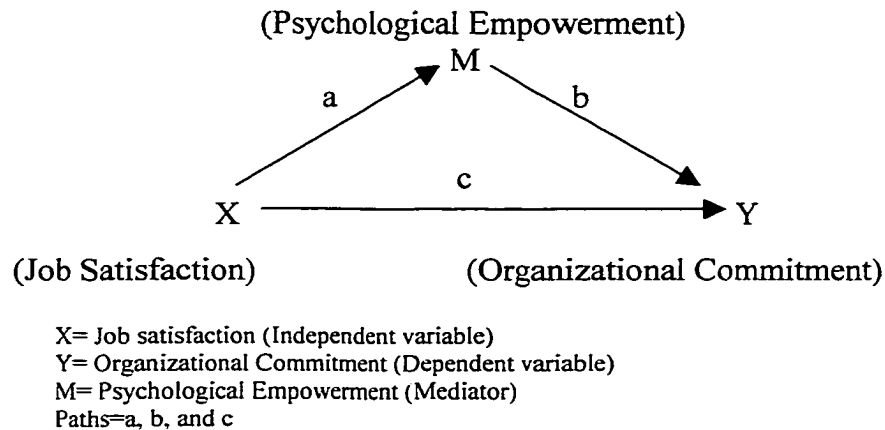


Figure 3.1: Testing the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on job satisfaction and organizational commitment

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the survey research sample, data collection procedures, instruments that will be used in the survey, and analyses that will be utilized for answering research questions. The location for the data collection, and the procedures were explained, and statistical procedures used to obtain the results were clarified. The next chapter will include the results of the data collection and subsequent data analyses.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This study investigated the reciprocal relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of employees working in casual restaurants. In particular, this study tested how psychological empowerment affects job satisfaction. Organizational factors affecting empowerment and organizational commitment as a result of job satisfaction were also explored in this study.

In order to investigate the research questions, a survey was developed and tested among restaurant employees. Two thousand surveys were distributed among restaurant employees of three restaurant chains. Nine hundred twenty four surveys from 66 units were received representing a 46.2% usable response rate. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form for measuring job satisfaction, Fulford and Enz's (1995) psychological empowerment measure and various measures for the other factors were utilized in the survey. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 10th version. The remainder of this chapter outlines the results of data analysis and the findings about the research questions.

Research Question 1

What are the characteristics of the restaurant employees working for the selected restaurant chains? What are the descriptive statistics for the scales used in the study?

The survey contained questions about demographic data and professional characteristics of the participants in section four. The demographic characteristics explored in this study included gender, age, ethnic background, and native language. The professional characteristics include the education level, job tenure, job status, and job type. Following the presentation of the demographic and professional characteristics of the respondents, descriptive statistics of the scales- job satisfaction, psychological empowerment, trust, information accuracy, communication openness, training, leader member exchange quality and organizational commitment will be introduced in this part.

A- Demographic Characteristics

Gender

For the 924 employees participating in the study, 37.8% were identified as male, 61.6% were identified as female. The distribution of 349 male respondents for Chain A, Chain B and Chain C were 38.2%, 41.6%, and 24.5% respectively. Likewise, the distribution of 569 female respondents for Chain A, Chain B and Chain C were 61.2%, 58.4%, and 73.5%, respectively. As shown in Table 4.1, females were in the majority in all three chains. Hartline and Ferrell's (1996) study about customer-contact service employees reported that among 561 employees, 32% were male and 68% were female. Fulford and Enz (1995) reported that males were 56% and females were 44% in their

study. The Restaurant Employee Profile was published by the National Restaurant Association and it includes information about restaurant employees (National Restaurant Association, 2000). The document reported that 53% of those working in eating and drinking places are female, while 47% of those workers are male.

	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Gender								
Male	305	38.2	32	41.6	12	24.5	349	37.8
Female	488	61.2	45	58.4	36	73.5	569	61.6
No Response	5	.6	-	-	1	2.0	6	.6
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
 (%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.1: Gender

Age

For the sample of 924 employees participating in the study, 911 employees responded to the question regarding age. The average age was 26.43. The median age was 23 and the mode was 20. The youngest age reported was 15 and the oldest was 63. Hartline and Ferrell (1996) reported that 63.8% of the customer contact employees were between the ages of 20 and 30. On the other hand, the average age at Fulford and Enz's (1995) study was 35. It was reported in the Restaurant Industry Profile that 28% of all eating and drinking places employees in 1998 were under 20 years of age, nearly 61% were under age 30, and 6% were age 55 or older.

Table 4.2 shows the distribution of the ages of the respondents for the three chains.

Age	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Less than 19 years old	131	16.4	8	10.4	4	8.2	143	15.5
20-25 years old	364	45.6	40	51.9	7	14.3	411	44.5
26-31 years old	137	17.2	10	13.0	7	14.3	154	16.7
32-37 years old	66	8.3	12	15.6	9	18.4	87	9.4
38-43 years old	54	6.8	4	5.2	10	20.4	68	7.4
44 years and older	36	4.5	1	1.3	11	22.4	48	5.2
No Response	10	1.2	2	2.6	1	2.0	13	1.4
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
 (%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.2: Age

Ethnic Background

Of the 924 respondents, 86.2% were white, 6.5% were black, and 2.3% were Hispanic. Of the remaining 5%, 2.6% were Asians and Native Americans and 2.4% of the respondents did not indicate their ethnic background.

Fulford and Enz (1995) reported 76% of the respondents were white, 8.4% were black, and 8.8% were Hispanic in their study. Restaurant Industry Employee Profile provided figures for the employees working in the eating and drinking places. Eighty

percent of the respondents were White; 16% were Hispanic (persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race); 13% were African American; and 6% Asian in the report.

The responses for each chain and the total responses were demonstrated at Table 4.3.

Ethnic Background	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
White	682	85.5	72	93.5	43	87.8	797	86.2
Black	54	6.8	2	2.6	4	8.2	60	6.5
Hispanic	20	2.5	1	1.3	-	-	21	2.3
Asian	10	1.3	-	-	-	-	10	1.1
Native American	8	1.0	-	-	-	-	8	.9
Other	6	.8	-	-	-	-	6	.6
No Response	18	2.3	2	2.6	2	4.1	22	2.4
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
 (%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.3: Ethnic background

Native Language

English was the major language spoken among the employees. Among 919 respondents, 97.5% of the employees reported that their native language was English. Employees whose native language is Spanish were only 1.6%. Three (.4%) employees reported that their native language was different than English or Spanish but they did not

indicate their native languages. Five (.5%) employees did not report their language (Table 4.4).

Native Language	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
English	776	97.2	76	98.7	49	100.0	901	97.5
Spanish	14	1.8	1	1.3	-	-	15	1.6
Other	3	.4	-	-	-	-	3	.4
No Response	5	.6	-	-	-	-	5	.5
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
(%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.4: Native language

B- Professional Characteristics

Education Level

The majority of the respondents were attending some college or technical school (52.7%). Almost six percent (5.8%) of total respondents had some high school, while 22.8% were high school graduate. College graduates were 15.7% and 2.2% had finished graduate school. The distribution of the education levels of the three chains is presented in Table 4.5. The highest level of education was 41.4% for some college and technical school graduates and 33.6% for the high school graduates in Fulford and Enz's study (Fulford & Enz, 1995). Hartline and Ferrell (1996) found similar levels in their study with respect to education. College graduates were 21.5%, high school graduates were

23.1% and employees with some college education were 43.3% in their study (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996).

According to the Restaurant Employee Profile 2000, in 1998, 33% of employees in eating and drinking establishments had at least some college education, 31% were high school graduates and 36% had less than high school education.

Highest Education Level	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Some high school	41	5.2	1	1.3	12	24.5	54	5.8
High school graduate	192	24.1	4	5.2	15	30.6	211	22.8
Some college/ technical	417	52.3	52	67.5	18	36.7	487	52.7
College graduate	127	15.9	18	23.4	-	-	145	15.7
Graduate degree	15	1.9	2	2.6	2	4.1	19	2.2
Other	3	.4	-	-	-	-	3	.3
No Response	3	.4	-	-	2	4.1	5	.5
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
 (%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.5: Education level

Job Tenure

A-Current Job Experience

The amount of time that an employee worked in the restaurants ranged from 1 month to 20 years. The mean current job experience was 27 months; the median was 12 months for all of the restaurants. The majority of the total respondents worked in their jobs for less than five years. Only 9% of the respondents worked in their current jobs between five and ten years, and 4.1% worked more than ten years (Table 4.6). In their sample, Fulford and Enz (1995) identified that 34.6% worked less than three years and 32.9% worked three to five years in their current job.

The Restaurant Employee Profile (2000) stated that the mean current job tenure was 38 months; the median was 15 months for individuals in foodservice operations. In addition, 64% of individuals in foodservice occupations had less than three years of tenure, 21% had 3 to 6 years, 5% had 7 to 9 years, and 9% had more than 10 years of job tenure with their current employers.

B-Industry Experience

Industry working experience for the employees ranged from 1 month to 44 years. The mean foodservice industry experience was seven years. The majority of the total respondents had worked in foodservice industry less than ten years.

While Chains A and B had workers with 15 years or more experienced workers, 11.5% and 15.6% respectively, 32.7% of Chain C employed workers with 15 years or more experience (Table 4.7).

	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Tenure with the Current Job								
Less than 3 months	113	14.2	11	14.3	7	14.3	131	14.2
3 months to less than 1 year	215	26.9	18	23.4	8	16.3	241	26.1
1 year to less than 2 years	144	18.0	27	35.1	6	12.2	177	19.2
2 to less than 5 years	212	26.6	15	19.5	16	32.7	243	26.3
5 to less than 10 years	73	9.1	3	3.9	7	14.3	83	9.0
10 years and higher	32	4.0	1	1.3	5	10.2	38	4.1
No Response	9	1.1	2	2.6	-	-	11	1.2
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
(%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.6: Current job experience

	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Industry Experience								
Less than 1 year	79	9.9	7	9.1	6	12.2	92	10.0
1 year to less than 5 years	286	35.8	21	27.3	9	18.4	316	34.2
5 years to less than 10 years	214	26.8	18	23.4	7	14.3	239	25.9
10 years to less than 15 years	85	10.7	10	13.0	7	14.3	102	11.0
15 years and higher	92	11.5	12	15.6	16	32.7	120	13.0
No Response	42	5.3	9	11.7	4	8.2	55	6.0
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
(%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.7: Industry experience

Job Type

Eight types of jobs and the distribution of the jobs for the total population are demonstrated in Table 4.8. The majority of the employees (611 or 66.1%) were working as a server. Among other responses, 125 employees (13.5%) were cooks; 51 (5.5%) were busboys; 44 (4.8%) were bartenders; 33 (3.5%) were prep persons; and 33 (3.5%) were in various positions such as administrative assistant, intern, pantry worker, and trainer.

Job Type	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Waiter/Waitress	518	64.9	61	79.2	32	65.3	611	66.1
Busboy	45	5.6	3	3.9	3	6.1	51	5.5
Cashier	-	-	-	-	3	6.1	3	.3
Dish& Pot Worker	14	1.8	-	-	1	2.0	15	1.6
Cook	111	13.9	8	10.4	6	12.2	125	13.5
Prep person	29	3.6	1	1.3	3	6.1	33	3.6
Bartender	42	5.3	2	2.6	-	-	44	4.8
Other	31	3.9	2	2.6	-	-	33	3.5
No Response	8	1.0	-	-	1	2.0	924	1.0
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
(%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.8: Job type

Job Status

Sixty-six percent of the total number of employees were full-time while the remaining 33.3% of the employees were part-time. Six employees did not report their job status. As shown in Table 4.9, full time employees were the majority at the three chains.

Job Status	Chain A		Chain B		Chain C		Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)
Part time	265	33.2	31	40.3	12	24.5	308	33.3
Full time	527	66.0	46	59.7	37	75.5	610	66.0
No Response	6	.8	-	-	-	-	6	.6
Total	798	100	77	100	49	100	924	100

(n) Number of Respondents
(%) Percentage of Respondents

Table 4.9: Job status

The typical respondent of this study is female, white, 26 years of age and works as a server. She is a full-time employee and her native language is English. She has completed some college or technical school and has been working in her current job for slightly more than two years. She has been working in the industry for eight years. On the other hand, the typical employee reported in the Restaurant Industry Employee Profile differs somewhat from the typical employee reported in this study. The typical employee reported in the profile is female, under 30 years of age, a high school graduate

or less, and is a part-time employee with slightly more than one year of job tenure (Restaurant Industry Employee Profile, 2000).

Descriptive statistics for the instruments used in the study

There are several research instruments utilized in the study with respect to the purposes and the research questions. The means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities (Table 4.10) and Pearson Product Moment correlations (Table 4.11) for all scales were calculated. Cronbach alpha is the diagnostic measure that assesses the consistency of the entire scale (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Cronbach alpha values range between 0 and 1.0, with higher values indicating higher reliability among the indicators. An acceptable alpha value is 0.7 or greater but 0.6 is occasionally acceptable (Nunnally 1978).

Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient (r) summarizes the magnitude and the direction of a relationship and it can be any two quantitative variables (Hopkins, Hopkins, & Glass, 1996). The Pearson r correlations among the scales varied between .06 and .92 suggesting that the association between the scales differ from very low to very high (Table 4.11).

Scales	Mean***	SD	N	Alpha	# of Items
1. MSQ General Job Satisfaction*	3.72	.61	886	.90	20
2. Psychological Empowerment**	5.65	.87	916	.86	12
<u>Dimensions</u>					
Meaning**	5.62	1.21	923	.84	3
Competence**	6.39	.72	921	.55	3
Influence**	5.30	1.17	919	.87	6
3. Trust**	5.14	1.08	908	.89	12
4. Information Accuracy**	4.38	1.29	906	.81	5
5. Organizational Commitment**	5.22	1.32	916	.83	4
6. Communication Openness**	5.35	1.10	920	.83	5
7. Training**	6.30	.87	914	.67	3
8. Leader Member Exchange*	4.02	.62	910	.80	6

* 5 point Likert scale (1 low to 5 high)

** 7 point Likert scale (1 low to 7 high)

Table 4.10: Descriptive statistics for the scales used in the study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Job Satisfaction	-										
2. Psychological Emp.	.72	-									
3. Meaning (Dimension 1)	.59	.78	-								
4. Competence (Dimension 2)	.22	.49	.29	-							
5. Influence (Dimension 3)	.68	.92	.56	.27	-						
6. Trust	.73	.52	.39	.11	.53	-					
7. Information Accuracy	.47	.28	.19	.03	.30	.62	-				
8. Organizational Commit.	.68	.60	.59	.17	.53	.63	.46	-			
9. Communication Openness	.57	.44	.31	.14	.45	.70	.47	.52	-		
10. Training	.06	.16	.06	.43	.07	.06	.12	.09	.15	-	
11. Leader Member Exchange	.65	.58	.44	.22	.57	.62	.44	.59	.45	.13	-

Leader Member Exchange is measured on 5 point Likert scale, all others are measured on 7 point Likert scales.
(1 low 5 high: 1 low 7 high)

Correlations above .07 are significant at the .05 probability level, above .11 at the .01 level

Table 4.11: Scale intercorrelations

Research Question 2

What are the scores of psychological empowerment and the scores of the dimensions of psychological empowerment for employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among the restaurant chains?

Psychological empowerment of the respondents was assessed using a scale developed by Spreitzer (1992) and modified by Fulford and Enz (1995). While the original 12-item Spreitzer scale includes four factors, the modified scale is still comprised of 12 items with three factors: meaning, competence, and influence. Adding up the scores of these three measures provides a single psychological empowerment score for each respondent.

To examine Fulford and Enz's (1995) three-dimensional factor structure, a factor analysis was conducted using principal component method, varimax rotation. The correlation matrix was used to see the existence of relationships between observed variables. Several items showed a high correlation with each other thus supporting the need for factor analysis (Table 4.12). Eigenvalue criteria and scree plot were used to retain factors in the analysis. Factor analysis confirmed that the factor structure specified by Fulford and Enz (1995) was identical with the factor structure found for this study (Table 4.13). The first factor "influence" consisted of six items with loadings starting from .71 to .82, and explained 41.9% of the total variance. The second factor "meaning" has three items with loadings from .77 to .85 and explained 12% of the total variance. The third factor "competence" or self-efficacy has three items with loadings from .45 and .82, and explained 10.4% of the total variance. The total variance explained by three factors was 64.44%.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Item 1 - (Meaning)	1.00											
Item 2 - (Competence)	.18	1.00										
Item 3 - (Influence)	.36	.14	1.00									
Item 4 - (Influence)	.30	.21	.59	1.00								
Item 5 - (Meaning)	.70	.14	.45	.46	1.00							
Item 6 - (Competence)	.21	.22	.18	.19	.26	1.00						
Item 7 - (Influence)	.27	.19	.41	.47	.36	.22	1.00					
Item 8 - (Meaning)	.63	.18	.36	.38	.61	.22	.37	1.00				
Item 9 - (Influence)	.39	.11	.52	.52	.49	.18	.57	.46	1.00			
Item 10 - (Competence)	.10	.46	.05	.06	.08	.19	.16	.13	.14	1.00		
Item 11 - (Influence)	.33	.15	.46	.51	.39	.09	.64	.34	.62	.18	1.00	
Item 12 - (Influence)	.39	.18	.63	.52	.46	.16	.46	.39	.59	.14	.58	1.00

Table 4.12: Correlation matrix for psychological empowerment scale

No	Item	Influence	Meaning	Competence	Communality
11	I have freedom in determining how to do my job.	.82	.09	.11	.70
9	I have a great deal of control over my job.	.76	.29	.05	.66
12	I have influence over what happens in my work group.	.75	.25	.07	.64
7	I decide on how to go about doing my job.	.74	.10	.19	.60
4	I have a chance to use personal initiative in my work.	.72	.23	.06	.58
3	My opinion counts in work group decision-making.	.71	.28	-.09	.58
1	My work is very important to me.	.20	.85	.08	.78
5	My job activities are meaningful to me.	.36	.80	.04	.77
8	I care about what I do on my job.	.29	.77	.12	.69
10	I have mastered the skills to do my job.	.09	-.02	.82	.69
2	I am confident about my ability to do my job.	.11	.08	.80	.66
6	My job is well within my scope of my abilities.	.05	.34	.45	.33
		Eigenvalue	5.03	1.44	1.25
		Percent of total variance explained	41.93	12.04	10.47
		Cumulative	41.93	53.97	64.44

Table 4.13: Psychological Empowerment Factors: Principal Components Extraction-Varimax Rotation

After examining the factor structure, the scores of psychological empowerment as well as the scores of the dimensions of empowerment were computed for each chain (Table 4.14). The mean psychological empowerment score for Chains A, B and C were 67.5, 69.7, and 67.8 respectively. The scores for the dimensions of psychological empowerment were also calculated. Meaning score for Chains A, B and C were 16.7, 17, and 18.6; competence score for Chains A, B, and C were 19.1, 18.8, and 19.2; influence score for Chains A, B, and C were 31, 33.8, and 31.8 respectively.

For the total of 916 employees working for the three chains, the scores of psychological empowerment were classified using a statistical technique called k-means clustering. Gupta (1999) suggests that k-means clustering can be used when there are no pre-defined cut-off values for creating a categorical variable from a continuous variable. SPSS 10th edition was used to create three categories for the psychological empowerment score. After performing the analysis, the categories of low, average and high were found for psychological empowerment. As seen on Table 4.15, employees who were classified under low psychological empowerment for Chains A, B and C were 18%, 18.7% and 10.7% respectively. Employees who were classified under average psychological empowerment for Chains A, B and C were 48.4%, 41.5% and 44.9% respectively. Employees who were classified under high psychological empowerment for Chains A, B and C were 33.6%, 39.8% and 44.9% respectively.

		N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Meaning*	Chain A	797	16.73	3.64
	Chain B	77	17.03	3.73
	Chain C	49	18.67	2.77
	Total	923	16.85	3.63
Competence*	Chain A	796	19.18	2.16
	Chain B	76	18.89	2.19
	Chain C	49	19.22	2.23
	Total	921	19.16	2.17
Influence**	Chain A	794	31.06	7.03
	Chain B	76	33.86	5.92
	Chain C	49	31.90	8.21
	Total	919	31.80	7.03
Psychological Empowerment***	Chain A	792	67.50	10.46
	Chain B	75	69.73	9.91
	Chain C	49	69.80	10.81
	Total	916	67.81	10.46

* Score ranges from 3 to 21
** Score ranges from 6 to 42
*** Score ranges from 12 to 84

Table 4.14: The scores of the dimensions of psychological empowerment

	Chain A	Chain B	Chain C
Low Psychological Empowerment			
Cluster Center	51	54	47
# of cases in each group	142	14	5
Percentage (%)	18.0	18.7	10.7
Average Psychological Empowerment			
Cluster Center	67	68	66
# of cases in each group	384	31	22
Percentage (%)	48.4	41.5	44.9
High Psychological Empowerment			
Cluster Center	78	79	79
# of cases in each group	266	30	22
Percentage (%)	33.6	39.8	44.9

Table 4.15: Classification of the psychological empowerment score

The differences between the scores of psychological empowerment as well as its dimensions were examined performing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The ANOVA (Table 4.16) revealed that a significant difference exist for the psychological empowerment scores for the three restaurants, $F(2,913) = 2.5, p \leq .10$. Meaning and influence scores also were significantly different among the restaurant chains (Meaning: $F(2,920) = 6.81, p \leq .05$; Influence: $F(2,916) = 3.60, p \leq .05$), while competence score did not differ, $F(2,918) = .62, p \geq .05$.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Meaning	Between Groups	177.45	2	88.72	6.81	.00*
	Within Groups	11985.09	920	13.02		
	Total	12162.54	922			
Competence	Between Groups	5.89	2	2.95	.62	.53***
	Within Groups	4313.63	918	4.69		
	Total	4319.53	920			
Influence	Between Groups	353.82	2	176.91	3.60	.02*
	Within Groups	45018.73	916	49.14		
	Total	45372.55	918			
Psychological Empowerment	Between Groups	546.78	2	273.39	2.50	.08**
	Within Groups	99496.62	913	108.97		
	Total	100043.41	915			

* Significant $p \leq .05$
** Significant at $p \leq .10$
*** Not Significant

Table 4.16: ANOVA summary of psychological empowerment

Since meaning, influence and psychological empowerment scores differed among restaurants, pairwise comparisons have been made using Post-Hoc analysis among Chains A, B, and C. As suggested by Howell (1992) and Levin, Serlin and Seaman (1994), Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test (LSD) was employed. Howell (1992) suggests that LSD is useful when there are three levels and overall F is significant.

Pairwise comparisons using LSD technique (Table 4.17) revealed that the meaning score was different between Chain A and Chain C, and between Chain B and Chain C. Influence score was different between Chain A and Chain B and marginally different between Chain B and Chain C. The total psychological empowerment score was different between Chain A and Chain B and marginally different between Chain B and Chain C. In contrast, meaning score for Chain A and Chain B did not significantly differ. Influence score for Chain A and Chain C and psychological empowerment score for Chain A and Chain C did not differ significantly (see Table 4.17).

			Mean	Std. Error	Sig.
			Difference		
Meaning	Chain A	Chain B	-.30	.43	.48
		Chain C	-1.95*	.53	.00
	Chain B	Chain A	.30	.43	.48
		Chain C	-1.65*	.66	.01
	Chain C	Chain A	1.95*	.53	.00
		Chain B	1.65*	.66	.01
Competence	Chain A	Chain B	.29	.26	.27
		Chain C	-0.04	.32	.89
	Chain B	Chain A	-.29	.26	.27
		Chain C	-.33	.40	.40
	Chain C	Chain A	0.04	.32	.89
		Chain B	.33	.40	.40
Influence	Chain A	Chain B	-2.26*	.84	.00
		Chain C	-.30	1.03	.77
	Chain B	Chain A	2.26*	.84	.00
		Chain C	1.96	1.28	.12
	Chain C	Chain A	.30	1.03	.77
		Chain B	-1.96	1.28	.12
Psychological	Chain A	Chain B	-2.23**	1.26	.07
Empowerment		Chain C	-2.30	1.54	.13
	Chain B	Chain A	2.23**	1.26	.07
		Chain C	-0.06	1.92	.97
	Chain C	Chain A	2.30	1.54	.13
Chain B		0.06	1.92	.97	

* Significant at $p \leq .05$

** Significant at $p \leq .10$

Table 4.17: Multiple comparisons among restaurant chains for psychological empowerment (LSD method)

Research Question 3

What is the factor structure of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire for the restaurant employees working for the restaurants?

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form (1967) was used to assess job satisfaction for the restaurant employees. The manual for the MSQ specifies two dimensions: intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, as a result of factor analysis. While the intrinsic satisfaction scale consists of 12 items, extrinsic scale consists of 6 items. The general satisfaction, on the other hand, is found by summation of 20 items (two additional items with 12 intrinsic and 6 extrinsic items). The validity and reliability of the scale was confirmed by many studies; however, some researchers have had concerns about the contents of the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981; Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Landau, 1993).

For the purpose of identifying and examining the underlying dimensions of the 20-item instrument, a principal component analysis was utilized. Total of 924 responses were included in the analysis. The mean scores for each item replaced the missing scores. The suitability of the data was examined before utilizing the factor analysis. The correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity, measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) for the matrix and for individual variables, and initial estimate of communality for each variable in the observed variable set were taken into consideration while conducting the analysis. The correlation matrix was used to examine the existence of relationships between observed variables. It was discovered that correlations among variables support factor analysis (Table 4.18). Bartlett's test of sphericity, which is a measure of the

multivariate normality of the set of distributions, showed a significant value, meaning that these data do not produce an identity matrix; therefore, acceptable for factor analysis. The measure of sampling adequacy results ranging from .85 to .95 was acceptable and supported factor analysis. To look at whether the distribution of the values in the set was adequate for conducting factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was used. Values of KMO range from 0 to 1. The most desirable value is 1 for supporting the appropriateness of factor analysis. In the current study, KMO was .92, which indicates that factor analysis was feasible to conduct. Communalities ranging from .36 to .74 for 20 items indicated the strength of the association among variables in the observed variable set.

Principal Component Analysis using varimax rotation was utilized for the study to explore the dimensions in the data set. Items with eigenvalues greater than one were remained in the factor. In addition to the eigenvalue criterion, the scree plot was visually inspected to decide how many factors should be retained. A four-factor structure has been captured from the instrument (Table 4.19). Cumulative variance explained by these three factors was 55.65%.

Factor 1 contained seven items. Supervision-human relations, supervision-technical, company policies and practices, recognition, and compensation that appeared to represent extrinsic job satisfaction, were loaded on this factor. Two items about supervision measure the extent to which one is satisfied with his or her supervisor's behavior and decision-making ability during the performance of the job. Company policies and practices, working conditions and compensation measure extent to which individuals are satisfied with the organizational and managerial characteristics of a

company and its pay system. Recognition measures the extent to which one is satisfied with his or her feelings of receiving favorable notice or attentions resulting from doing the job. The other two items, working conditions and co-workers, that measures ones satisfaction with other workers and the quality of working conditions, were also loaded on Factor 1. These two items were originally called as general satisfaction items. The percent of total variance explained by the first factor was 36.06. This factor was named Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.

Factor 2 consisted of seven items as well. Social status, ability utilization, authority, achievement, social service and variety were loaded on this factor representing original intrinsic job satisfaction items. Authority and variety measure one's satisfaction with controlling others and doing different activities in a job. Ability utilization and achievement measure the extent to which individuals are satisfied with the feeling of success and being able to totally use of their abilities in a job. Social status measures the extent to which a person is satisfied with his or her job in terms of being recognized by others by working in a job. Social service measures the extent to which one is satisfied with having an opportunity to do things for other people. Advancement, which measures one's satisfaction with the opportunities to advance in a job, was loaded on this factor as well. The percent of total variance explained by Factor 2 was 8.91. This factor was named Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.

Factor 3 consists of three items. These items were: security, activity, and moral values. Security measures one's satisfaction with the signs of existence or nonexistence of job security. Activity measures the extent to which one's satisfaction with performing a dynamic job and moral values measures the extent to which one is satisfied with

performing a job without hesitating the consequences because of the requirements of the job. This factor was named satisfaction looming from the nature of the job. The percent of total variance explained by Factor 3 was 5.51.

Factor 4 consists of three items as well. These items were: creativity, responsibility, and independence. Creativity and independence measure the extent to which individuals are satisfied with being independent in their jobs and having an opportunity to use their creativity while performing their job tasks. Responsibility measures the extent to which one is satisfied with having independence to use judgment. The percent of total variance explained by Factor 4 was 5.15. This factor was named autonomous job satisfaction.

The factor structure of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-short form for this study was different from the factor structure of the original MSQ-short form. While a two-factor composition --intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction-- was proposed in the original scale, this study introduces a four-factor structure.

There are several other studies, which indicated different factor structure (e.g. Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner & Lankau, 1993; Tan & Hawkins, 2000) and problematic construct validity (e.g. Arvey, Dewhirst, & Brown, 1978; Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner & Lankau, 1993; Spector, 1997) for the MSQ short form. For example, in a content and adequacy analysis, Schriesheim et al., (1993) conclude that the MSQ short-form subscales are debatable. According to Schriesheim et al. (1993), 13 of the original items unchanged; however, 7 items changed in their analysis. Social status (originally intrinsic) became a general item; general items co-workers and working conditions became extrinsic items; security (originally intrinsic) became extrinsic;

compensation and advancement (originally extrinsic items) became general items; and recognition (originally extrinsic) became a general item.

Tan and Hawkins (2000) also found a different factor structure for the MSQ for the respondents participating in vocational rehabilitation. A principal component analysis with varimax rotation revealed a three-factor structure for the MSQ. These factors were named an intrinsic and an extrinsic factor in addition to a factor pertaining to satisfaction derived from participating in vocational rehabilitation (Tan & Hawkins, 2000).

Correlation Matrix																				
MSQ Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Activity	1.00																			
2. Independence	.30	1.00																		
3. Variety	.31	.30	1.00																	
4. Social Status	.22	.20	.46	1.00																
5. Supervision- Human Relations	.26	.23	.26	.28	1.00															
6. Supervision- Technical	.25	.21	.25	.26	.75	1.00														
7. Moral Values	.20	.23	.27	.22	.33	.37	1.00													
8. Security	.33	.25	.28	.24	.31	.32	.36	1.00												
9. Social Service	.31	.25	.37	.39	.28	.24	.30	.35	1.00											
10. Authority	.16	.17	.24	.34	.10	.09	.15	.19	.31	1.00										
11. Ability Utilization	.29	.23	.45	.54	.24	.24	.20	.27	.44	.33	1.00									
12. Company Policies	.26	.18	.28	.33	.55	.56	.32	.34	.27	.16	.29	1.00								
13. Compensation	.22	.21	.25	.26	.36	.32	.23	.31	.20	.20	.24	.44	1.00							
14. Advancement	.26	.24	.46	.41	.33	.31	.27	.33	.35	.28	.42	.40	.43	1.00						
15. Responsibility	.27	.33	.40	.30	.34	.38	.31	.31	.37	.23	.38	.41	.34	.47	1.00					
16. Creativity	.25	.29	.35	.29	.30	.31	.23	.22	.30	.17	.32	.35	.30	.37	.65	1.00				
17. Working Conditions	.21	.20	.29	.22	.47	.49	.29	.30	.27	.08	.19	.51	.38	.35	.39	.37	1.00			
18. Co-workers	.12	.12	.14	.17	.28	.28	.12	.13	.17	.12	.11	.33	.23	.18	.22	.15	.42	1.00		
19. Recognition	.25	.27	.33	.35	.57	.53	.31	.31	.32	.24	.30	.52	.43	.45	.44	.40	.51	.35	1.00	
20. Achievement	.34	.31	.42	.49	.42	.41	.30	.34	.44	.36	.55	.45	.36	.49	.48	.40	.41	.25	.62	1.00

Table 4.18: Correlation Matrix for MSQ Short Form

MSQ	Scale Items	Factor	Factor	Factor	Factor	Original Scale	Com-munality.
		I	II	III	IV		
MSQ 5	Supervision-human relations: The way my boss handles his/her employees.	.74	.07	.36	.03	Extrinsic	.69
MSQ 6	Supervision-technical: The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	.73	.03	.37	.05	Extrinsic	.69
MSQ 12	Company policies and practices: The way company policies are put into practice.	.70	.19	.21	.14	Extrinsic	.60
MSQ 17	Working conditions: The working conditions.	.70	.05	.13	.26	General	.58
MSQ 19	Recognition: The praise I get for doing a good job.	.68	.30	.14	.23	Extrinsic	.63
MSQ 18	Co-workers: The way my co-workers get along with each other.	.60	.13	-.14	.03	General	.40
MSQ 13	Compensation: My pay and the amount work I do.	.49	.22	.11	.24	Extrinsic	.36
MSQ 4	Social status: The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	.21	.74	.09	.07	Intrinsic	.61
MSQ 11	Ability utilization: The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	.10	.73	.17	.19	Intrinsic	.61
MSQ 10	Authority: The chance to tell other people what to do.	.04	.67	.03	.00	Intrinsic	.45
MSQ 20	Achievement: The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	.41	.58	.20	.26	Intrinsic	.63
MSQ 9	Social service: The chance to do things for other people.	.12	.53	.39	.14	Intrinsic	.48
MSQ 3	Variety: The chance to do different things from time to time.	.11	.51	.27	.37	Intrinsic	.48
MSQ 14	Advancement: The chances for advancement on this job.	.32	.49	.14	.36	Extrinsic	.50
MSQ 8	Security: The way my job provides for steady employment.	.22	.19	.66	.06	Intrinsic	.53
MSQ 7	Moral values: Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	.26	.10	.61	.05	Intrinsic	.46
MSQ 1	Activity: Being able to keep busy all the time.	.06	.20	.58	.20	Intrinsic	.43
MSQ 16	Creativity: The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	.25	.16	.07	.80	Intrinsic	.74
MSQ 15	Responsibility: The freedom to use my own judgment.	.30	.23	.17	.74	Intrinsic	.73
MSQ 2	Independence: The chance to work alone on the job.	.01	.10	.45	.46	Intrinsic	.43
Eigenvalue		7.21	1.78	1.11	1.03		
Percent of total variance explained		36.06	8.91	5.51	5.15		
Cumulative variance explained		36.26	44.97	50.49	55.65		

Table 4.19: Factor analysis of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form

Research Question 4

What are the levels of overall job satisfaction scores for the employees working for the restaurants? Do the raw job satisfaction mean scores differ among restaurants? What are the restaurant employees' job satisfaction preferences?

Overall job satisfaction raw scores for the respondents were determined by adding up the values for the 20 items of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form. Each item corresponds 20 job satisfaction facets. A Likert-type scale from 1 (Very Dissatisfied) to 5 (Very Satisfied) was used in the scale. The mean score for raw scores for the MSQ scale can be converted to percentile scores using the normative data provided for the short form of the MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967). Since there is no norm group available for the restaurant employees in the manual, raw scores were ranked from lowest through highest then were converted to a percentile score using SPSS. Table 4.20 shows percentile equivalents of raw scores for the overall job satisfaction. The MSQ manual suggests that a percentile score of 75 or higher indicates a high degree of satisfaction; a percentile score of 25 or lower would indicate a low level of satisfaction and scores between 25 and 75 indicate average satisfaction. In order to select employees with high, average, and low satisfaction, the following steps were realized:

- 1- The raw score for the 25th percentile was found from the table and the responses with the same or lower raw score value than that score were considered as having a low level of satisfaction.
- 2- The responses with raw scores between the 25th percentile through the 75th percentile were considered as having average level of satisfaction.

3- The raw score for the 75th percentile was found and the responses with raw scores between the 75th percentile and higher were classified as having high level of job satisfaction (See Table 4.21).

Raw Score	42	52	57	61	65	67	69	71	73	74	75	77	79	80	81	83	84	87	90	93	99
Percentile Equivalent	1	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	99

Table 4.20: Raw scores and their respective percentile equivalents for the overall job satisfaction of the restaurant employees (n=886)

Using these percentile scores, employees who had low, average and high job satisfaction were found (Table 4.21). Employees who were categorized under low job satisfaction in Chains A, B and C were 25.6% (197), 19.4% (14), and 24.4% (11) respectively. Employees who were categorized under average job satisfaction in Chains A, B and C were 50.2% (386), 44.4% (32), and 51.1% (23) respectively. Employees who were categorized under high job satisfaction in Chains A, B and C were 24.2% (186), 36.2% (26), and 24.4% (11) respectively.

	Chain A	Chain B	Chain C
Low Job Satisfaction (Below 25%)			
Frequency	197	14	11
Percentage (%)	25.6	19.4	24.4
Average Job Satisfaction (26% to 74%)			
Frequency	386	32	23
Percentage (%)	50.2	44.4	51.1
High Job Satisfaction (75% and above)			
Frequency	186	26	11
Percentage (%)	24.2	36.2	24.4

n=769 for Chain A; 72 for Chain B; 45 for Chain C

Table 4.21: Classification of the overall job satisfaction scores

The MSQ short form measures 20 job satisfaction facets and each of these facets represents an individual aspect of job satisfaction. Looking at the scores of each facets and ranking them can assess employees' preferences with their jobs (Table 4.22). In order to do that, a rank ordered mean scores and standard deviations of the MSQ items were calculated. Security, social service, moral values and activity had the highest level of satisfaction mean scores. Authority, social status, advancement, and compensation had the lowest level of satisfaction mean scores.

Rank	Factor	Type	Mean	SD
1	Security	Intrinsic	4.23	.85
2	Social Service	Intrinsic	4.16	.77
3	Moral Values	Intrinsic	4.15	.84
4	Activity	Intrinsic	4.02	.78
5	Responsibility	Intrinsic	3.93	.95
6	Working Conditions	General	3.91	.94
7	Co-Workers	General	3.85	1.05
8	Supervision-Technical	Extrinsic	3.84	1.06
9	Variety	Intrinsic	3.84	1.02
10	Independence	Intrinsic	3.82	.97
11	Creativity	Intrinsic	3.79	1.01
12	Supervision-Human Relations	Extrinsic	3.72	1.17
13	Ability Utilization	Intrinsic	3.67	1.13
14	Achievement	Intrinsic	3.54	1.07
15	Recognition	Extrinsic	3.41	1.22
16	Company Policies and Practices	Extrinsic	3.39	1.14
17	Authority	Intrinsic	3.37	.90
18	Social Status	Intrinsic	3.35	1.06
19	Advancement	Extrinsic	3.33	1.06
20	Compensation	Extrinsic	3.22	1.23

Table 4.22: Rank ordered job satisfaction facets for MSQ short form (n=886)

In order to test if the raw job satisfaction scores differed among restaurant chains, several steps have been followed. First, means and standard deviations were obtained for the overall job satisfaction score for the three restaurant chains (Table 4.23). Then, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to see if overall job satisfaction scores differed among the three restaurant chains. Based on $p \leq .01$, a significant difference existed within comparisons of job satisfaction scores among three restaurant chains (Table 4.24). As shown in the multiple comparison table (Table 4.25), the differences between the overall job satisfaction scores of the Chains A and B as well as Chains B and C were significant while the differences between the overall job satisfaction scores of the Chain A and Chain C were not significant.

Chain Name	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Chain A	769	74.11	12.16
Chain B	72	78.53	11.64
Chain C	45	74.56	13.04
Total	886	74.50	12.21

Table 4.23: Mean and standard deviation overall job satisfaction scores for the chains

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1282.49	2	641.24	4.33	.01*
Within Groups	130720.98	883	148.04		
Total	132003.48	885			

* Significant at $p \leq .05$

Table 4.24: ANOVA summary of the overall job satisfaction

		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Chain A	Chain B	-4.41*	1.50	.00
	Chain C	-.44	1.87	.81
Chain B	Chain A	4.41*	1.50	.00
	Chain C	3.97**	2.31	.08
Chain C	Chain A	.44	1.87	.81
	Chain B	-3.97**	2.31	.08

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

** The mean difference is significant at the .10 level

Table 4.25: Multiple comparisons among restaurant chains for overall job satisfaction
(LSD method)

Research Question 5

What are the scores of organizational commitment for employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among restaurants?

This study utilized the revised version of the 4-item organizational commitment scale recently used in two studies by Mueller et al. (1999) and Currivan (1999). A seven point Likert scale is used for the responses with the response categories of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). Summing up the scores of the four items provides a single organizational commitment score for each respondent. The possible range of the organizational commitment was 4 to 28. The mean score for the Chains A, B and C were 20.59, 23.74, and 20.98 respectively (Table 4.26).

Chain Name	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Chain A	791	20.59	5.25
Chain B	76	23.74	4.85
Chain C	49	20.98	5.30
Total	916	20.87	5.29

Table 4.26: Mean and standard deviation organizational commitment scores for the chains

Utilizing a k-means cluster analysis (Gupta, 1999) among the total of 916 employees working for the three chains, organizational commitment scores were divided into the categories of low, average and high (Table 4.27). Employees who were classified under low organizational commitment for Chains A, B and C were 13.3%, 1.4%, and 6.1% respectively. Employees who were classified under average organizational commitment for Chains A, B and C were 37.4%, 28.9%, and 53% respectively. Employees who were classified under high organizational commitment for Chains A, B and C were 49.3%, 69.7% and 40.9% respectively.

	Chain A	Chain B	Chain C
Low Organizational Commitment			
Cluster Center	11	4	6
# of cases in each group	105	1	3
Percentage (%)	13.3	1.4	6.1
Average Organizational Commitment			
Cluster Center	18	18	19
# of cases in each group	296	22	26
Percentage (%)	37.4	28.9	53
High Organizational Commitment			
Cluster Center	25	26	26
# of cases in each group	390	53	20
Percentage (%)	49.3	69.7	40.9

Chain A n=791; Chain B n=76; Chain C n=49

Table 4.27: Classification of the organizational commitment score

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore if the mean organizational scores differed among three chains. Based on $p \leq .00$, a significant difference exists within comparisons of organizational commitment scores among three restaurant chains (Table 4.28). In order to find which scores were different among the chains, a LSD method was used. As shown in the multiple comparison table (Table 4.29), the differences between the organizational commitment scores of the Chains A and B as well as Chain B and C were significant while the differences between the organizational commitment scores of the Chains A and C were not significant.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	687.05	2	343.52	12.60	.00*
Within Groups	24889.00	913	27.26		
Total	25576.05	915			

* Significant at $p \leq .01$

Table 4.28: ANOVA summary of organizational commitment

		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Chain A	Chain B	-3.15*	.63	.00
	Chain C	-.39	.77	.61
Chain B	Chain A	3.15*	.63	.00
	Chain C	2.76*	.96	.00
Chain C	Chain A	.39	.77	.61
	Chain B	-2.76*	.96	.00

* The mean difference is significant at the .01 level

Table 4.29: Multiple comparisons among restaurant chains for organizational commitment

Research Question 6

What is the relationship between scores on psychological empowerment and scores on job satisfaction of the employees working in the selected restaurants?

Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the mean psychological empowerment score and the mean MSQ raw score for general satisfaction were computed for each of the three chains. For employees working at the Chain A, psychological empowerment was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($r=.72$, $p\leq 0.05$, 2-tailed). Similar results were observed for the other two restaurant chains. Psychological empowerment were significantly and positively related to job satisfaction at the chain B ($r=.69$, $p\leq 0.05$, 2-tailed) and C ($r=.69$, $p\leq 0.05$, 2-tailed) respectively (Table 4.31). Davis (1971) suggests that a correlation coefficient of $.72$ indicates very strong association between variables while $.69$ indicates substantial association between variables (Table 4.30).

Correlation Coefficient	Description
.70 or higher	Very strong association
.50 to .69	Substantial association
.30 to .49	Moderate association
.10 to .29	Low association
.01 to .09	Negligible association

Table 4.30: Conventions for describing measures of association (relationship) (Davis, 1971).

Chain		Job Satisfaction	
Chain A	Psychological Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	** .72
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
		N	764
Chain B	Psychological Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	** .69
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
		N	71
Chain C	Psychological Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	** .69
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
		N	45

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.31: Correlation matrix- Relationship of job satisfaction and psychological empowerment for the three restaurant chains

Research Question 7

What is the variability of job satisfaction through the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? What is the contribution of each of the dimensions of psychological empowerment to the explanation of job satisfaction?

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted between the dependent variable, job satisfaction, and the independent variables of, meaning, competence and influence. Descriptive statistics for job satisfaction and the dimensions of psychological empowerment were presented in Table 4.32. Before conducting a regression analysis

between variables, the extent of multicollinearity among variables was examined by looking at the correlations between variables and detecting the Variance Influence Factors (VIF). The VIF explains the degree to which each independent variable is explained by the other independent variables and should not exceed 10 (Myers, 1990). VIF values did not exceed 2.0 for the equation suggesting that multicollinearity was not a problem. In addition, the assumptions of residuals were tested by examining the independence of the residuals (Durbin Watson =1.91 meaning that assumption of independence is not violated), normal distribution, and testing residual statistics. No assumption was violated.

When testing a variable in the hierarchical multiple regression analysis (Table 4.33), the other two variables were entered into equation first and the test variable was entered into equation second. This procedure was conducted for all chains. R^2 change for the second variable was observed and its significance was detected.

Chain		Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4
Chain A	1. Meaning (Dimension 1)	5.58	1.21	-			
	2. Competence (Dimension 2)	6.39	.72	.28	-		
	3. Influence (Dimension 3)	5.27	1.17	.56	.27	-	
	4. Job Satisfaction	3.71	.61	.60	.24	.68	-
Chain B	1. Meaning (Dimension 1)	5.68	1.24	-			
	2. Competence (Dimension 2)	6.30	.73	.31	-		
	3. Influence (Dimension 3)	5.64	.99	.59	.43	-	
	4. Job Satisfaction	3.93	.58	.60	.30	.66	-
Chain C	1. Meaning (Dimension 1)	6.22	.92	-			
	2. Competence (Dimension 2)	6.41	.74	.51	-		
	3. Influence (Dimension 3)	5.32	1.37	.50	.20	-	
	4. Job Satisfaction	3.73	.65	.51	.01	.73	-

Correlations above .19 are significant at the .01 probability level.

Meaning, Competence, and Influence are measured on 7 Point Likert scales. Job Satisfaction is measured on 5 point Likert scales.

Table 4.32: Descriptive statistics and correlations for job satisfaction and dimensions of psychological empowerment for the three restaurant chains

Meaning dimension was positively related to job satisfaction in the three chains. ($\beta = .31, p \leq .01$ for Chain A; $\beta = .31, p \leq .01$ for Chain B; $\beta = .36, p \leq .01$ for Chain C). Meaning dimension was also created a significant change in explaining job satisfaction beyond the other two dimensions in the three chains (R^2 change = .06, $p \leq .01$ for Chain A; R^2 change = .07, $p \leq .01$ for Chain B; R^2 change = .08, $p \leq .01$ for Chain C). These results, also supported by Hackman and Suttle (1977), suggest that job satisfaction increases when an employee considers his or her job meaningful. High levels of meaning caused high levels of job satisfaction in the chains.

Competence dimension was negatively related to job satisfaction in Chain C ($\beta = -.30, p \leq .01$ for Chain C). In addition, competence dimension was created a significant change in explaining job satisfaction beyond the other two dimensions only in Chain C (R^2 change = .00, n.s. for Chain A; R^2 change = .00, n.s. for Chain B; R^2 change = .07, $p \leq .01$ for Chain C).

Similarly, Hartline and Ferrell (1996) study about customer contact service employees revealed that highly competent employees tend to be less satisfied with their jobs. Gist and Mitchell (1992) defined competence, or self-efficacy as a belief in one's capability to perform work activities with skill. The more Chain C employees feel that they are satisfied with their jobs, the less they feel they perform work activities with skill in Chain C. The reason that competence dimension was negatively related to job satisfaction may be due to nature of service business (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996) and the certain demographic characteristics working for the Chain C. According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), there is a positive association between one's job satisfaction and his or

her belief about the personal significance of the job. They suggest that as the goals and self-efficacy increase, it is likely that the job's personal significance decreases and this relationship causes less satisfaction with the job.

There was no relationship between competence dimension and job satisfaction in Chains A and B ($\beta = .01$, n.s. for Chain A; $\beta = .00$, n.s. for Chain B). Spreitzer et al. (1997) found similar results in their study of empowerment. They found that there was no association between competence and work satisfaction in the primary sample.

Influence dimension was positively related to job satisfaction in the three chains. ($\beta = .50$, $p \leq .01$ for Chain A; $\beta = .48$, $p \leq .01$ for Chain B; $\beta = .61$, $p \leq .01$ for Chain C). Influence dimension was also produced a significant change in explaining job satisfaction beyond the other two dimensions in the three chains (R^2 change = .17, $p \leq .01$ for Chain A; R^2 change = .14, $p \leq .01$ for Chain B; R^2 change = .29, $p \leq .01$ for Chain C).

The results of the analysis suggest that the strongest predictor of job satisfaction was the influence dimension in each chain. However, in Spreitzer et al. (1997) study, the meaning dimension and work satisfaction was the most powerfully associated variables. This outcome may be due to the nature of service business. Hospitality workers who are satisfied with their jobs might consider that having the skills and abilities to make an influence in their jobs are more related to their job satisfaction than having a sense of meaning in their jobs.

Influence explained considerable significant variance beyond the other two other dimensions of empowerment when predicting job satisfaction. Second predictor was meaning dimension for all chains. Meaning dimension also explained significant variance beyond other two dimensions when predicting job satisfaction. However, the

competence dimension was negatively related to job satisfaction and significant only in Chain C (Table 4.33). The relationship between competence and job satisfaction was not detected in the other two chains.

	Variables	R²	R² Change	β*	t	Sig
Chain A	Step 1	.47	.47			
	Competence			.05**	2.0	.04
	Influence			.67*	24.4	.00
	Step 2	.53	.06			
	Meaning			.31*	10.3	.00
	Step 1	.53	.53			
	Meaning			.31*	10.5	.00
	Influence			.50*	16.8	.00
	Step 2	.53	.00			
	Competence			.01	.42	.66
Chain B	Step 1	.36	.36			
	Meaning			.58*	19.4	.00
	Competence			.07*	2.4	.01
	Step 2	.53	.17			
	Influence			.50*	16.6	.00
	Step 1	.44	.44			
	Competence			.01	.18	.85
	Influence			.66*	6.6	.00
	Step 2	.51	.07			
	Meaning			.31*	2.9	.00
Chain C	Step 1	.51	.51			
	Meaning			.31*	2.9	.00
	Influence			.48*	4.5	.00
	Step 2	.51	.00			
	Competence			.00	-.01	.98
	Step 1	.37	.37			
	Meaning			.56*	5.5	.00
	Competence			.13	1.2	.20
	Step 2	.51	.14			
	Influence			.48*	4.2	.00

Table 4.33: Hierarchical multiple regression analysis for dimensions of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction

Table Continues

Table 4.33 (Continued)

Chain C	Step 1	.56	.56			
	Competence			-.15	-1.4	.15
	Influence			.76*	7.3	.00
	Step 2	.64	.08			
	Meaning			.36*	2.9	.00
	Step 1	.57	.57			
	Meaning			.19	1.6	.10
	Influence			.64*	5.4	.00
	Step 2	.64	.07			
	Competence			-.30*	-2.7	.00
Step 1	.35	.35				
Meaning			.69*	4.8	.00	
Competence			-.35**	-2.4	.02	
Step 2	.64	.29				
Influence			.61*	5.6	.00	

R² change at .06 and above is significant.

Beta coefficients are reported

*significant at $p \leq .01$

** significant at $p \leq .05$

Research Question 8

What are the effects of the organizational factors on psychological empowerment when they are considered as predictors of psychological empowerment at the selected restaurants?

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the best predictors of psychological empowerment using organizational factors as predictors. Demographic variables were also included in the analysis. An examination of the “Tolerance” statistics was employed and multicollinearity was not detected among variables. The analysis of residuals was employed to see if any assumption was violated. This analysis recommended that the assumptions were not violated. Thirteen dummy variables were created for the regression analysis in addition to nine continuous variables (Table 4.34). These variables are gender (1 dummy), education (4 dummy), ethnicity (3 dummy), job status (1 dummy), job type (3 dummy), language (1 dummy), age in years, current job experience, industry experience, communication openness, leader member exchange, trust, training, and information accuracy. Unavailable data were replaced with the mean score of all cases. To eliminate variables with low or insignificant correlations (correlations with $r < .15$ were excluded from the analysis), intercorrelations among variables (Table 4.35) were examined and the regression analysis was performed with the following variables: age in years, industry experience, information accuracy, communication openness, training, trust and leader member exchange quality. Psychological empowerment score was the dependent variable in the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Age and industry experience were entered into equation at the first step. The R^2 of .06 was obtained from the first step. At the second step information accuracy and communication openness were entered and R^2 of .28 were captured. Another independent variable, leader member exchange, was entered into equation at the third step. This resulted in .14 change in R^2 resulting in $R^2=.42$. Trust was entered at the fourth step and .02 increase in R^2 was obtained. Introducing training into the equation was the last step in the analysis. Only .01 change in R^2 was achieved and overall R^2 was .45 at the end of fifth step. R^2 equals to .45 indicate that a linear combination of the variables explains 45% of the variance in the dependent variable, psychological empowerment. The full model was significant at $p \leq .01$ as well (Table 4.36).

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Gender*	.38	.49
2. Education- Some High**	.05	.24
3. Education- High S. Grad**	.23	.42
4. Education- Some College**	.53	.50
5. Education- College Grad**	.16	.37
6. Ethnicity- White**	.88	.32
7. Ethnicity- Black**	.06	.25
8. Ethnicity- Hispanic**	.02	.15
9. Job Status- Part or Full time***	.34	.47
10. Job Type- Waiter**	.72	.45
11. Job Type- Cook**	.14	.34
12. Job Type- Bartender**	.04	.21
13. Language**	.98	.13
14. Age in years	26.43	8.26
15. Years in the current job	2.37	3.07
16. Years in the industry	7.03	6.69
17. Communication Openness	5.35	1.10
18. Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	4.02	.62
19. Trust	5.14	1.08
20. Training	6.30	.87
21. Information Accuracy	4.38	1.29
22. Psychological Empowerment****	5.65	.87

* Dummy coded 0=Female, 1= Male

** Dummy coded 0=Not membership in the group, 1= membership

*** Dummy coded 0= Full time, 1=Part time

**** Dependent Variable

Table 4.34: Descriptive statistics for the regression analysis

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
1- Gender (Dummy G)	1.00																						
2- Education (Dummy SHS)	.01	1.00																					
3- Education (Dummy HS)	-.00	-.13*	1.00																				
4- Education (Dummy SC)	-.04	-.26*	-.58*	1.00																			
5- Education (Dummy CG)	.01	-.10*	-.23*	-.46*	1.00																		
6- Ethnicity (Dummy W)	-.18*	-.07*	-.07*	.06	.03	1.00																	
7- Ethnicity (Dummy B)	.16*	-.00	.08*	-.01	-.05	-.73*	1.00																
8- Ethnicity (Dummy H)	.08*	.08*	.05*	-.07*	-.00	-.42*	-.04	1.00															
9- Job Status (Dummy S)	-.14*	.10*	-.09*	.00	.04	.05	-.05	-.04	1.00														
10- Job Type (Dummy Wait)	-.27*	.00	-.14*	.07*	.06*	.19*	-.20*	-.10*	.28*	1.00													
11- Job Type (Dummy Cook)	.31*	.03	.09*	-.04	-.08*	-.21*	.17*	.15*	-.24	-.64*	1.00												
12- Job Type (Dummy Bart)	.00	-.03	-.02	-.00	.04	.03	-.05	.00	-.01	-.36*	-.08*	1.00											
13- Language (Dummy L)	-.10*	-.11*	-.05	.08*	.00	.33*	.03	-.78*	.07*	.15*	-.20*	-.01	1.00										
14- Age in Years	.00	-.07*	.06	-.11*	.10*	-.00	.07*	-.04	-.24*	-.35*	.11*	.15*	.02	1.00									
15- Current Job Experience	.04	-.05	.04	-.06	.05	.00	.03	-.01	-.14*	-.30*	.11*	.28*	.00	.45	1.00								
16- Industry Experience	.02	-.03	.08*	-.10*	.06	.07*	-.01	-.05	-.25*	-.28*	.13*	.16*	.04	.67*	.51*	1.00							
17- Communication Openness	-.09*	.02	-.06	.03	-.00	.05	-.01	-.04	.05	.17*	-.18*	.00	.03	-.06	-.15*	-.10*	1.00						
18- LMX	-.06*	-.04	.00	.00	.01	.01	-.02	-.01	-.00	.00	-.05	.03	.04	.18*	.03	.12*	.45*	1.00					
19- Trust	-.15*	.04	-.00	-.00	-.02	.02	-.00	-.03	.13*	.14*	-.12*	-.03	.03	.00	-.14*	-.07*	.70*	.61*	1.00				
20- Training	-.02	-.03	-.01	-.00	.02	.08*	-.01	-.12*	-.06	.01	.01	.01	.11*	.09*	.09*	.11*	.10*	.13*	.06*	1.00			
21- Information Accuracy	-.18*	-.01	-.01	-.00	.00	.07*	-.07*	-.01	.15*	.16*	-.18*	-.00	.02	.02	-.12*	-.05	.46*	.44*	.61*	.12*	1.00		
22- Psychological Emp.	-.07*	-.05	.02	.00	.00	-.02	.05	-.04	-.10*	-.08*	-.01	.06	.06*	.25*	.12*	.22*	.44*	.58*	.52*	.16*	.28*	1.00	

* Correlation Significant at p≤.05
N=924

Table 4.35: Intercorrelations among variables

	Variables	R²	R² Change	B	β	t	Sig.
Step 1		.06	.06				
	Age in years			.02*	.20	4.72	.00
	Years in the industry			.00	.07	1.88	.07
Step 2		.28	.22				
	Age in years			.02*	.19	5.05	.00
	Years in the industry			.00*	.13	3.50	.00
	Communication openness			.33*	.42	13.52	.00
	Information accuracy			.05*	.08	2.51	.01
Step 3		.42	.14				
	Age in years			.01*	.12	3.57	.00
	Years in the industry			.00*	.10	3.06	.00
	Communication openness			.22*	.28	9.23	.00
	Information accuracy			-.03	-.04	-1.51	.13
	Leader member exchange			.61*	.43	14.40	.00
Step 4		.44	.02				
	Age in years			.01*	.12	3.58	.00
	Years in the industry			.00*	.11	3.50	.00
	Communication openness			.13*	.16	4.74	.00
	Information accuracy			-.08*	-.12	-3.81	.00
	Leader member exchange			.50*	.35	11.06	.00
	Trust			.21*	.26	6.29	.00
Step 5		.45	.01				
	Age in years			.01*	.12	3.56	.00
	Years in the industry			.00*	.11	3.29	.00
	Communication openness			.12*	.15	4.31	.00
	Information accuracy			-.08*	-.12	-4.05	.00
	Leader member exchange			.49*	.35	10.87	.00
	Trust			.22*	.28	6.58	.00
	Training			.06*	.06	2.62	.00
	(Constant)			1.38*			

Standard error = 7.77

Adjusted R² = .45

* Significant at p≤.01

** Significant at p≤.05

For the full model: F= 92.98; p≤.01

Table 4.36: Results of hierarchical multiple regression for predicting psychological empowerment

Research Question 9

What is the relationship between scores on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the restaurant employees? How do scores on psychological empowerment affect this relationship? Is there any mediating effect of psychological empowerment between job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

To examine the relationship between scores on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the employees working for each restaurant chain, Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were computed (Table 4.37). The computed correlations of $r=.68$, $r=.62$, and $r=.63$ for the three chains suggest that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were significantly and positively related. In addition, the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment was substantial. The results show that the greater the employees indicate that they are satisfied with their jobs, the greater the tendency for the employees to report that they are committed to their organizations.

Chain			Organizational Commitment
Restaurant Chain A	Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.68**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
		N	762
Restaurant Chain B	Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.62**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
		N	72
Restaurant Chain C	Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.63**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
		N	45

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.37: Correlation Matrix- Relationship of job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the three restaurant chains

To examine if there is a mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, Baron and Kenny's (1986) and Judd and Kenny's (1981) procedures were followed.

First, job satisfaction scores were regressed on organizational commitment scores. For Chain A, job satisfaction scores accounted for 47.5% of variance in organizational commitment scores, $R=.68$, $p \leq .01$. For Chain B, job satisfaction scores accounted for 39% of variance in organizational commitment scores, $R=.62$, $p \leq .01$ and for Chain C, job satisfaction scores accounted for 40.4% of variance in organizational commitment scores, $R=.63$, $p \leq .01$. The total effect of the job satisfaction scores on the organizational commitment scores was significant for each chain. The first requirement was met for the chains.

Second, job satisfaction scores were regressed on psychological empowerment scores. For Chain A, job satisfaction scores accounted for 52.3% of variance in psychological empowerment scores, $R=.72$, $p \leq .01$. For Chain B, job satisfaction scores accounted for 48.1% of variance in psychological empowerment scores, $R=.69$, $p \leq .01$ and for Chain C, job satisfaction scores accounted for 47.4% of variance in psychological empowerment scores, $R=.69$, $p \leq .01$. The total effect of the job satisfaction scores on the psychological empowerment scores was significant for each chain. The second requirement was met for the chains as well.

Third, psychological empowerment scores were regressed on organizational commitment scores. For Chain A, psychological empowerment scores accounted for 36.9% of variance in organizational commitment scores, $R=.60$, $p \leq .01$. For Chain B, psychological empowerment scores accounted for 29.7% of variance in organizational commitment scores, $R=.54$, $p \leq .01$ and for Chain C, psychological empowerment scores accounted for 33.1% of variance in organizational commitment scores, $R=.57$, $p \leq .01$. The total effect of the psychological empowerment scores on the organizational commitment scores was significant for each chain. The third requirement was also met for the chains.

To establish that psychological empowerment completely mediates the job satisfaction and organizational commitment relationship, the effect on job satisfaction on organizational commitment controlling for psychological empowerment was investigated. Psychological empowerment scores were entered into the equation first and then job satisfaction scores were entered into the equation. For Chain A, job satisfaction scores accounted for 50.2% of variance in organizational commitment scores when

psychological empowerment scores were controlled in the equation, $R=.51$, $p\leq .01$. For Chain B, job satisfaction scores accounted for 40.9% of variance in organizational commitment scores when psychological empowerment scores were controlled in the equation, $R=.47$, $p\leq .01$ and for Chain C, job satisfaction scores accounted for 44% of variance in organizational commitment scores when psychological empowerment scores were controlled in the equation, $R=.45$, $p\leq .01$.

Even though the first three requirements were met in the investigation, the fourth requirement was not met. The fourth requirement was about testing if the independent variable (job satisfaction) no longer has any effect on the dependent variable (organizational commitment) when the mediator (psychological empowerment) has been controlled. This requirement was violated because job satisfaction still affected organizational commitment while controlling psychological empowerment.

In conclusion, the examination of the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment indicates that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The following chapter will include a summary of the study, discussion of the findings and conclusion drawn from the results. Implications of the research results will also be discussed and suggestions for future research will be proposed.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of restaurant workers in combination have been explored in few studies. This study sought to extend previous findings about psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of hospitality industry employees. Better understanding of psychological empowerment and job satisfaction may help hospitality organizations improve their operational strategies in their favor. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of restaurant employees. A second purpose was to explore the relationship between psychological empowerment and the selected organizational variables affecting psychological empowerment. Furthermore, organizational commitment as a result of job satisfaction and the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment while considering the mediating effect of psychological empowerment was examined in the study.

With respect to these purposes, the issues addressed in the study were: 1) the factor structure of psychological empowerment; 2) the factor structure of job satisfaction; 3) the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment considering the mediating role of empowerment; and 4) the classification of psychological

empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In accordance to the purposes of this study, several research questions were proposed and these research questions were examined using various statistical techniques.

Methodology

This study targeted non-supervisory employees working in three restaurant chains. The restaurant chains in which the study was conducted employ 500 to 4000 non-supervisory workers. Total population in which the sample was drawn was 5,050 employees from the three chains. Forty percent of 5,050 employees were targeted for the study; therefore, 74 survey packages for 2,000 employees were sent a survey by mail. A total of 924 usable surveys were received representing a 46.2% final response rate.

The survey contained standardized and close-ended questions. Among the self-reported questions, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short-form, psychological empowerment questionnaire, organizational commitment questionnaire, questions about selected factors associated with psychological empowerment and demographics can be counted. A Likert-type scale with five and seven response categories was used in the survey.

To provide answers to the following research questions, descriptive and correlational statistics, including percentages, frequencies, means, standard deviations was used in addition to t-test, analysis of variance, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis were used.

1. What are the characteristics of the restaurant employees working for the selected restaurant chains? What are the descriptive statistics for the scales used in the study?
2. What are the scores of psychological empowerment and the scores of the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among the restaurant chains?
3. What is the factor structure of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire for the restaurant employees working for the restaurants?
4. What are the levels of overall job satisfaction scores for the employees working for the restaurants? Do the raw job satisfaction mean scores differ among restaurants? What are the restaurant employees' job satisfaction preferences?
5. What are the scores of organizational commitment for employees working in the selected restaurants? Do these scores differ among restaurants?
6. What is the relationship between scores on psychological empowerment and scores on job satisfaction of the employees working in the selected restaurants?
7. What is the variability of job satisfaction through the dimensions of psychological empowerment for the employees working in the selected restaurants? What is the contribution of each of the dimensions of psychological empowerment to the explanation of job satisfaction?
8. What are the effects of the organizational factors on psychological empowerment when they are considered as predictors of psychological empowerment at the selected restaurants?
9. What is the relationship between scores on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the restaurant employees? How do scores on psychological empowerment affect this relationship? Is there any mediating effect of psychological empowerment between job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

The following sections summarize the results described in the previous chapter with respect to each research question. The implications for theory and practice, the limitations and recommendations for future research will be presented at the end of this section as well.

Summary and Conclusions

The last part of the survey instrument was used for investigating the characteristics of the respondents. According to the results, most of the employees were female and between 20 to 25 years of age. The gender and the age of the respondents were very much similar to that of a typical employee working in the restaurants in the United States (Restaurant Employee Profile, 2000). Native language of the respondents was English and almost 86% of the respondents were white. The majority of the respondents worked in their current jobs less than five years. In addition, most of them had less than 10 years of total industry experience as a foodservice worker.

Nearly 76% of the respondents graduated from high school and some college or technical school. In terms of the type of job performed, being a server was the most prevalent selection. Other prevalent job types include cook, bartender, and prep person. Lastly, while one third of the respondents were working in part time status, the other two third were in full time status in the restaurants.

The employee profile found in the current study resembles to the typical employee profile suggested by the National Restaurant Association and Bureau of Labor Statistics. Therefore, generalization of the results of this study for the restaurant employees is strengthened. According to the Occupational Outlook Handbook (2000-2001), job openings in foodservice related jobs are expected to be abundant through 2008 resulting from increases in population, personal incomes, and leisure time. Because job openings will be increasing in this field, turnover rates will be expected to increase as well.

It appears, on the basis of the current study, that the outcomes of the “chain reaction” which starts with psychological empowerment headed for organizational commitment may help restaurant organizations better plan their short term and long term operating strategies.

In terms of the scales utilized in the study, internal consistency of the scales were examined by Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the scales and they were high except the competence scale ($r=.55$). The association between psychological empowerment scale and the other scales were significant. The association between job satisfaction and the other scales were significant except training scale. Many of the scale intercorrelations were significant at $p \leq .01$ and $p \leq .05$.

Before assessing the scores of psychological empowerment and the scores of the dimensions of psychological empowerment, a principal factor analysis with varimax rotation were utilized to examine the survey questions. Consistent with Fulford and Enz’s study (1995), a three-factor structure was obtained. The first factor, influence, which was consisted of six items, explained 41.9% of the total variance. The second factor meaning had three items and explained 12.1% of the total variance and the third factor self efficacy or competence had explained 10.4% of the total variance with three items. The three factors explained 64.4% of the total variance. The outcome of the factor analysis suggests that in order to feel empowered, employees consider influence as the most important factor. Finding meaning or being competent in the jobs does not give as much empowerment feelings as having influence over the job.

Following factor analysis, the scores of psychological empowerment and its subscales were computed. Adding up appropriate item scores provided a total mean

score for each scale and total psychological empowerment scale. The mean psychological empowerment score for Chains A, B and C were 67.5, 69.7, and 67.8 respectively.

Meaning score for Chains A, B and C were 16.7, 17, and 18.6; competence score for Chains A, B, and C were 19.1, 18.8, and 19.2; influence score for Chains A, B, and C were 31, 33.8, and 31.8 respectively.

The categories of low, average and high were found for psychological empowerment as well. Employees who were classified under low psychological empowerment for Chains A, B and C were 18%, 18.7% and 10.7% respectively. Employees who were classified under average psychological empowerment for Chains A, B and C were 48.4%, 41.5% and 44.9% respectively. Employees who were classified under high psychological empowerment for Chains A, B and C were 33.6%, 39.8% and 44.9% respectively. It appears that most of the employees in the three chains had feelings with high or average psychological empowerment.

The differences between the mean scores of psychological empowerment and its dimensions by the three chains were analyzed by performing a one-way analysis of variance. ANOVA revealed that the psychological empowerment scores for the three restaurant chains marginally differ. The dimensions, meaning and influence were also significantly differed among restaurant chains while competence score did not differ among restaurant chains.

To examine which restaurant chains were different in terms of their scores of psychological empowerment and the dimensions of psychological empowerment, pairwise comparisons using LSD technique was conducted. It was concluded that the total psychological empowerment score was different between Chain A and Chain B and

marginally different between Chain B and Chain C, whereas psychological empowerment score for Chain A and Chain C did not differ significantly.

Meaning score was different between Chain A and Chain C; Chain B and Chain C. Influence score was different between Chain A and Chain B and marginally different between Chain B and Chain C. In contrast, meaning score for Chain A and Chain B did not significantly differ. On the contrary, influence score for Chain A and Chain C did not differ significantly.

The MSQ items were introduced to a principal component analysis with varimax rotation. A four-factor structure was obtained as a result of the analysis. The first two factors were named extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction, the third factor named job satisfaction looming from the nature of the job and the fourth factor named autonomous job satisfaction. The four-factor structure was different from the two-factor structure obtained by Weiss et al., 1967. The uniqueness of the sample may be one of the reasons that a different factor structure was obtained. Restaurant employees were specifically different from any of the occupational groups that the MSQ was utilized. Different factor structures were obtained for the MSQ in different studies in literature as well. Moreover, Weiss et al. (1967) reported more complex factor structures for several occupational groups (e.g. social workers, office clerks, truck drivers, and warehousemen). The current study revealed evidence to support findings of several studies reporting different factor structures for different occupational groups. Therefore, users of MSQ short form should conduct a factor analysis to examine the factors for their samples.

Using total raw scores and then converting the raw scores to the percentile scores computed the levels of overall job satisfaction scores for each chain. This computation revealed most of the employees had average level of satisfaction with their jobs (Chain A 50.2%; Chain B 44.4%; Chain C 51.1%). Employees with high and low job satisfaction in Chains A and C were divided nearly by half (Chain A: 25.6% low job satisfaction and 24.2% high job satisfaction; Chain C: 24.4% low job satisfaction and 24.4% high job satisfaction). In Chain B, highly satisfied employees were 36.1%, whereas employees with low job satisfaction were 19.4%.

In addition, an ANOVA was conducted to examine which restaurants differ in terms of the raw job satisfaction scores. The analysis showed that the differences between the overall job satisfaction scores of the Chain A and B as well as Chain B and C were significant while the differences between the overall job satisfaction scores of the Chain A and C were not significant.

The rank ordered MSQ short form subscales revealed that security (the way my job provides for steady employment), social service (the chance to do things for other people), moral values (being able to do things that don't go against my conscience), and activity (being able to keep busy all the time) were the highest satisfiers for the restaurant employees. On the other hand, authority (the chance to tell other people what to do), social status (the chance to be "somebody" in the community), advancement (the chances for advancement on this job), and compensation (my pay and the amount of work I do) were the lowest satisfiers for the restaurant employees. On the basis of the current study, satisfaction with the job seems to come from internal aspects rather than from external job elements for the employees working for the restaurants. It is also possible that

restaurant employees have experienced high employment security since they felt that they would never lose their jobs unless they want to leave voluntarily. Low unemployment rates might influence employees' feelings of job security for the reason that they may find similar jobs immediately.

The mean organizational commitment scores for the Chains A, B and C were 20.59, 23.74, and 20.98 respectively. These scores were found by using a four-item organizational commitment scale. The response categories of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) were used in the scale. Summing up the scores of the four items provides a single organizational commitment score for each respondent.

A classification procedure was performed for the organizational commitment scores as well. The results of the classification show that most of the employees had either average organizational commitment or high organizational commitment.

The ANOVA for organizational commitment revealed that the scores of the Chain A and B as well as Chain B and C differed significantly, whereas the organizational commitment scores for the Chain A and C were not significantly different.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the mean psychological empowerment score and the mean MSQ raw score for general satisfaction were computed for each of the three chains. Psychological empowerment was found to be significantly and positively related to job satisfaction in all the chains. Schneider and Bowen (1993) suggested a relationship between how employees feel about their organization and how customers feel about the service they receive from the organization. Therefore, if empowered employees are more satisfied with their jobs, it is reasonable to expect that

customers' perceptions of service will be higher when they interact with empowered employees.

A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine the variability of job satisfaction and the three dimensions of psychological empowerment. To assess how much of job satisfaction can be explained by the dimensions of psychological empowerment, coefficient of determination (R^2) was computed. R^2 is the estimate of proportion of variance of the dependent variable explained by the linear combination of the independent variables. By adding each variable to the equation, R^2 change was computed and its significance was found.

Meaning dimension was positively related to job satisfaction in the three chains. Meaning dimension was also created a significant change in explaining job satisfaction beyond the other two dimensions in the three chains. In addition, competence dimension was negatively related to job satisfaction in Chain C. There was no relationship between competence dimension and job satisfaction in Chains A and B. Influence dimension was positively related to job satisfaction in the three chains. Influence dimension also produced a significant change in explaining job satisfaction beyond the other two dimensions in the three chains. The results of the analysis suggest that the strongest predictor of job satisfaction was the influence dimension in each chain. Influence explained considerable significant variance beyond the other two other dimensions of empowerment when predicting job satisfaction. Second predictor was meaning dimension for all chains.

To examine the effects of the organizational factors on psychological empowerment, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted using the organizational factors as the independent variables and psychological empowerment as the dependent variable. Demographics with high and significant correlations were also included in analysis. The regression analysis was performed with the following variables: age in years, current job experience, industry experience, information accuracy, communication openness, training, trust and leader member exchange quality. The independent variables were entered into the regression equation in five hierarchical steps. In step one, age, current job experience, and industry experience were entered into equation simultaneously. Nearly 6% of the variance was explained in the first step. Information accuracy and communication openness were entered into equation in the second step. A significant 22% increase was obtained. The total variance explained at the end of second step was 42%. Leader member exchange quality was entered into equation in the third step. This also resulted in an increase of 14% at R^2 and the total R^2 was 44% at the end of third step. Trust was introduced into the equation in the fourth step and training was introduced into the equation in the fifth step. While trust caused a 2% increase, training only caused a 1% increase in the R^2 . The final model was significant ($F=92.98, p \leq .01$). R^2 of 45% was obtained. The final model's R^2 , which is the proportion of variance in psychological empowerment explained by the linear combination of the independent variables of age in years, current job experience, industry experience, information accuracy, communication openness, training, trust and leader member exchange quality was 45%. All the independent variables except current job experience were statistically significant (contribute significantly to the full model).

Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was examined between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. A substantial positive association was found between the job satisfaction and organizational commitment in all restaurant chains (Chain A, $r=.68$; Chain B, $r=.62$, and Chain, C $r=.63$). The greater the employees are satisfied with their jobs, the greater the tendency for employees to commit their organizations.

The mediating effect of empowerment between job satisfaction and organizational commitment was examined by implementing Baron and Kenny's (1981) procedures. The first three requirements were met for all the chains indicating that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The last requirement, which was necessary for complete mediation, was not met.

Based on the test of mediating relationship, another conclusion of this study is that it is likely that psychological empowerment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Implications for Theory and Practice

The findings of this study have both theoretical and practical implications for hospitality management researchers, upper management and administrators of restaurant chains, general managers of restaurants, and managers who are in the supervisory positions. These theoretical and practical implications will be introduced in the following part.

1. MSQ subscale scores show that the most satisfying aspect of the work for restaurant employees was security. This finding suggest that restaurant employees consider their jobs secure and their job satisfaction comes mainly from the steady employment that they are getting from their employees. Other factors such as social service, moral values, activity and responsibility follow security. These factors were related to intrinsic aspects of job satisfaction. On the contrary, advancement and compensation are found to be the least satisfying factors for the restaurant employees. It appears, on the basis of the current study, that employees feel that their job provides a steady employment; however, opportunities for advancement are somewhat limited. In addition, the balance between the pay and the amount of work that is done was one of the least satisfier subscales of the MSQ for the restaurant workers. A lower level of satisfaction by the employees may indicate a concern for career development and compensation structure in the restaurants. Therefore, advancement opportunities and new compensation programs should be introduced to the employees.

2. A comprehensive review of the literature resulted in only a few studies of psychological empowerment among hospitality or service employees. The outcomes of this study extend the previous findings with respect to feelings of empowerment for restaurant workers. Further explorations related to psychological empowerment and job satisfaction for the hospitality employees could also provide valuable information leading to organizational planning, turnover, loyal employees as well as loyal customers.

3. Factor analysis confirmed that psychological empowerment is a multi-dimensional construct, which is consisted of meaning, competence and influence. The factor structure specified by Fulford and Enz (1995) was identical to the factor structure found in this study. On the other hand, while the Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the overall psychological empowerment scale, and two sub-dimensions were high, the Cronbach alpha reliability of the sub-dimension competence was relatively low ($r=.55$). Therefore, it appears, on the basis of the current study, that Fulford and Enz's modified version of Spreitzer's psychological empowerment scale can be used to measure psychological empowerment in service environments with being cautious of the competence scale.

4. Two demographic characteristics were significantly related to psychological empowerment. Age and the number of years employees were in foodservice industry were significantly and positively correlated with psychological empowerment. There appears to be an increase in the feelings of psychological empowerment as age and the number of years they have been working in the industry increase.

5. Organizational factors, which are information accuracy, communication openness, leader member exchange quality, trust, and training have played important roles in explaining psychological empowerment. Leader member exchange quality was found to be a strong predictor of psychological empowerment. This is not a surprising finding. Graen (1976) suggests that the quality of interpersonal relationship between leader and subordinate is crucial. When employees understand their jobs clearly and receive higher support from their managers, they will assume more responsibility, and feel more empowered. In addition, information accuracy and communication openness were also strong predictors of psychological empowerment. On the basis of current study, it is possible that restaurant employees will feel empowered if a manager communicate more openly with the employees with all the information that is necessary, implement training strategies with respect to empowerment, let employees use their discretion whenever necessary, trust them with their actions, and treat equally to the employees.

6. The mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been found. Limited studies examined the mediating effects in the management literature (Spreitzer, 1995a). This study extends the previous research findings with respect to mediating effects of psychological empowerment. Mediating effect of psychological empowerment may be one of the reasons for the employees who are committed to their organizations but still dissatisfied with their jobs.

7. It appears, on the basis of the current study, that psychologically empowered employees are tend to be more satisfied with their jobs.

Limitations and Recommendations

1. Reliance on the general managers to distribute the employee surveys might have caused a problematic sample. Although the managers were informed in the cover letters about how they should distribute the surveys, this might not have been followed completely. If the employees are contacted directly, this may increase the validity of the responses.

2. Although the sample size for the study was fairly high, the sample was obtained from the data collected from the three chains with 66 restaurants located in Ohio and several other states. The convenient sample might have caused bias. In addition, collecting data from managers and customers may help to find different outcomes about psychological empowerment and job satisfaction in hospitality industry.

3. The results of this study were limited to the time frame in which the data were gathered. Therefore, collecting data in different time frames may enhance the results of this type of research.

4. This research has concentrated on several factors affecting psychological empowerment. Studies should be conducted to examine other organizational variables that may affect psychological empowerment.

5. The internal consistency for the complete psychological empowerment scale was moderately high; however, Cronbach alpha coefficients for the competence subscale were low. This implies that significant results involving this scale have to be interpreted with caution. This should be considered when using the psychological empowerment scale in other studies.

6. A qualitative type of research about the feelings of empowerment and job satisfaction using techniques such as in-dept interviews and observation can help further understanding of the underlying constructs.

APPENDIX A
SURVEY INSTRUMENT



Empowerment & Satisfaction Survey



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Part 1-Job Satisfaction Questionnaire*

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

Very Sat. means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat. means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I cant decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat. means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat. means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The chance to work alone on the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The chance to do different things from time to time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The way my job provides for steady employment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The chance to do things for other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The chance to tell people what to do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The way company policies are put into practice.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. My pay and the amount of work I do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The chances for advancement on this job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. The freedom to use my own judgment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. The working conditions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The praise I get for doing a good job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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Part 2

Note: All the questions in this part will be answered on 7-point scales ranging from Low (1) to High (7).

Please read each statement carefully and circle the number that best represents your opinion.

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

- | | Strongly
Disagree | Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Neutral | Slightly
Agree | Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|---|----------------------|----------|----------------------|---------|-------------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1. My work is very important to me. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 2. I am confident about my ability to do my job. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 3. My opinion counts in work group decision-making. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 4. I have a chance to use personal initiative in my work. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 5. My job activities are meaningful to me. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 6. My job is well within my scope of my abilities. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 7. I decide on how to go about doing my work. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 8. I care about what I do on my job. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 9. I have a great deal of control over my job. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 10. I have mastered the skills to do my job. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 11. I have freedom in determining how to do my job. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |
| 12. I have influence over what happens in my work group. | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Slightly Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Slightly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
13. Management is sincere in its attempts to meet the workers' point of view.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
14. Our firm has a poor future unless it can attract better managers.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
15. If I got into difficulties at work, I know my workmates would try and help me out.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
16. Management can be trusted to make sensible decisions for the firm's future.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
17. I can trust my colleagues to lend me a hand when I need it.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
18. Management at work seems to do an efficient job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
19. I feel quite confident that the firm will always try to treat me fairly.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
20. Most of my colleagues can be relied upon to do as they say they will do.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
21. I have full confidence in the skills of my workmates.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
22. Most of my fellow workers would get on with their work even if supervisors were not around.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
23. I can rely on other workers not to make my job more difficult by their careless work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
24. Our management would be quite prepared to gain advantage by deceiving the workers.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
25. The information I receive is often inaccurate.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
26. The restaurant in which I work is the best of all possible places to work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
27. I am proud to tell others that I am part of the restaurant in which I work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
28. Communication in this group is very open.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
29. I can think of a number of times when I have received inaccurate information.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
30. I do not have enough training to do my job well.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
31. I find it enjoyable to talk to other members of this group.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
32. It is often necessary for me to go back and check the accuracy of information I received.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
33. I have all the skills I need to do my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
34. When people talk to each other in this group, there is a great deal of understanding.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
35. I sometimes feel that others don't understand the information they have received.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
36. It is easy to talk openly to all members of this group.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
37. The accuracy of information distributed could be improved.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
38. I have more than enough training skills to do my job well.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
39. It is easy to ask advice from any member of this group.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
40. I speak highly of the restaurant in which I work to my friends.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
41. I do not care about the fate of the restaurant in which I work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

Part 3- Please answer the questions

1- The way my supervisor sees it, the importance of my job to his/her performance is:

- | | | | | |
|---|----------|----------|-------|--|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Slightly to none
(it has little
effect on his/her
performance) | Somewhat | Moderate | Great | Very great
(it critically
affects his or her
performance) |

2- My supervisor would probably say that my work goals and his/hers are:

- | | | | | |
|----------|-----------|-----------|---------|----------|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Opposite | Different | Unrelated | Similar | The same |

3- On my present job, this is how I feel about the way my supervisor and I understand each other:

- | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------------|-------------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Very
dissatisfied | Dissatisfied | Undecided or
neutral | Satisfied | Very
satisfied |

4- The way my supervisor sees me, he/she would probably say that my ability to do my job well is:

- | | | | | |
|------|---------------|---------|----------------------|-------------|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Poor | Below average | Average | Good to very
good | Exceptional |

5- I feel that my work goals and those of my supervisor are:

- | | | | | |
|----------|-----------|-----------|---------|----------|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Opposite | Different | Unrelated | Similar | The same |

6- On my present job, this is how I feel about the way my boss provides help on hard problems:

- | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------------|-------------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Very
dissatisfied | Dissatisfied | Undecided or
neutral | Satisfied | Very
satisfied |

Part 4- Please tell about yourself

Please fill out the answer best represents you.

<p><u>1. Gender:</u></p> <p>① =Male ② =Female</p>	<p><u>2. Age:</u></p> <p>a) What is your age? _____ Years</p>	<p><u>3. Highest level of education completed:</u></p> <p>① = Elementary school ② = Some high school ③ = High school graduate ④ = Some college/ technical ⑤ = College graduate ⑥ = Graduate degree ⑦ = Other _____</p>
<p><u>4. Your experience:</u></p> <p>a) How long have you been working in your current job? _____ months/years</p> <p>b) How long have you been working in the restaurant industry? _____ months/years.</p>	<p><u>5. Ethnic Background:</u></p> <p>① = White ② = Black ③ = Hispanic ④ = Asian ⑤ = Native American ⑥ = Other, please specify _____</p>	<p><u>6. Your job:</u></p> <p>a) Are you working part time or full time? ① = Part time ② = Full time</p> <p>b) What is your duty? ① = Waiter/Waitress ② = Busser ③ = Cashier ④ = Dish & Pot worker ⑤ = Cook ⑥ = Prep person ⑦ = Bartender ⑧ = Other, please specify _____</p>
<p><u>7- Your Language:</u></p> <p>What is your native language?</p> <p>① = English ② = Spanish ③ = Other, please specify _____</p>		



Thank you for completing the survey.

If there is anything else you would like to tell us about this survey, please do so in the space provided below.

Restaurant Code _____

APPENDIX B
COPYRIGHT PERMISSION LETTERS

Copyright Permission Form

02.22.2000

Dr. Gretchen M. Spreitzer

Department of Management and Organization
Marshall School of Business
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, CA 90089-1421

Dear Dr. Spreitzer:

I am completing a doctoral dissertation at The Ohio State University. I would like your permission to reprint in my dissertation excerpts from the following:

Spreitzer, G.M. (1992). When Organizations Dare: The Dynamics of Individual Empowerment in the Workplace. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. University of Michigan.

The excerpts to be reproduced are: Empowerment Measurement Instrument

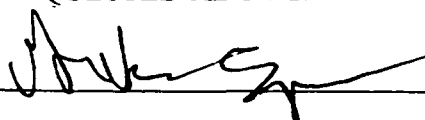
The requested permission extends to any future revisions and editions of my dissertation, including non-exclusive world rights in all languages, and to the prospective publication of my dissertation by UMI Company. These rights will in no way restrict republication of the material in any other form by you or by others authorized by you. Your signing of this letter will also confirm that you own the copyright to the above-described material.

If these arrangements meet with your approval, please sign this letter where indicated below and return it to me in the enclosed return envelope. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,


Murat Hancer

PERMISSION GRANTED FOR THE
USE REQUESTED ABOVE:



Department of Management and Organization
Marshall School of Business
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, CA 90089-1421

Date: 2/29/00

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

*Department of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts*

*Elliott Hall
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455-0344
612-625-2818
Fax: 612-626-2079*

May 22, 2000

Murat Hancer
Dept of Human Nutrition and Food Mgmt.
The Ohio State University
325 Campbell Hall
1787 Neil Ave
Columbus, OH 43210

Dear Murat Hancer:

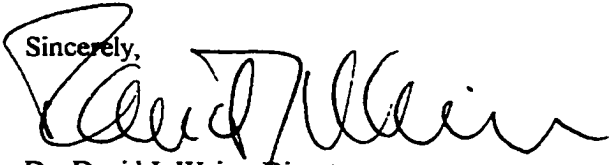
We are pleased to grant you permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form in your research. You have permission to use 2000 copies.

Please note that each copy that you make must include the following copyright statement:

Copyright 1977, Vocational Psychology Research
University of Minnesota. Reproduced by permission.

Vocational Psychology Research is currently in the process of revising the MSQ manual and it is very important that we receive copies of your research study results in order to construct new norm tables. Therefore, we would appreciate receiving a copy of your results including 1) Demographic data of respondents, including age, education level, occupation and job tenure; and 2) response statistics including, scale means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and standard errors of measurement.

Your providing this information will be an important and valuable contribution to the new MSQ manual. If you have any questions concerning this request, please feel free to call us at 612-625-1367.

Sincerely,

Dr. David J. Weiss, Director
Vocational Psychology Research

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTERS AND THE REMINDER CARD



Department of Human Nutrition
And Food Management

325 Campbell Hall
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, OH 43210-1295

Phone 614-292-4485
FAX 614-292-8880

May 24, 2000

Dear Restaurant Associate:

You have been selected to participate in this survey that focuses on employee empowerment and job satisfaction. This voluntary survey is part of a project conducted by Murat Hancer, a Doctoral Candidate in the Department of Human Nutrition and Food Management at the Ohio State University. This project has the full support and cooperation of your organization.

Your ideas and feelings are important! This is an opportunity to voice your opinions in a completely confidential manner. Your opinions will provide valuable insight into the feelings of empowerment and job satisfaction of restaurant employees. In addition, this survey will provide your organization with a better understanding of its employees' perceptions and attitudes toward empowerment and job satisfaction.

After you completely filled out the survey, please put it in the enclosed envelope and seal it for your confidentiality. Your manager will collect them and return them to us as a package. For the results of this project to be accurate, it is very important that your survey be returned. **Please complete and return the questionnaire to your manager by June 2, 2000.** Your cooperation and promptness in returning the survey are greatly appreciated.

If you have any questions or concerns, contact Murat Hancer at (614) 224-6156 or Tom George at (614) 292-6219.

Thank you very much again for your help and expressing your opinions.

Sincerely,

Murat Hancer, Ph.D. Candidate
Foodservice Management Program
Department of Human Nutrition
& Food Management
The Ohio State University

R. Thomas George, MBA, Ed.D.
Associate Professor



Department of Human Nutrition
And Food Management

325 Campbell Hall
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, OH 43210-1295

Phone 614-292-4485
FAX 614-292-8880

May 24, 2000

Dear Restaurant Manager:

I am currently a doctoral candidate at the Ohio State University. As my dissertation, I have chosen to study the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction of restaurant workers. I have already contacted your corporate office and explained the details of my research. In addition to this letter, you have received a survey package for your employees consisting of surveys with cover letters and envelopes. Please distribute the surveys to your employees and collect them in the sealed envelopes for ensuring confidentiality. **We wish to have a variety of opinions gathered; therefore, we ask that the surveys be distributed evenly among servers, cooks, prep persons, basically anyone working in your facility. Once all surveys have been collected, please place them into the provided postage-paid envelope and mail it to us.**

There is no doubt that the information obtained from this study will benefit you and your organization by better understanding the feelings of empowerment and job satisfaction among your employees. Effective empowerment practices help organizations to be more competitive and profitable as well as to survive and grow. Using this information, a number of decisions can be made to improve the effectiveness of your restaurant.

Your help is extremely needed in this project since you are the one who will distribute the survey and collect them. In order to have the best possible understanding of employee empowerment and job satisfaction, we tremendously need your cooperation. **Please collect all surveys and return them as a package by June 2, 2000.**

If you have any questions or concerns, contact Murat Hancer at 614-224-6156 or Tom George at 292-6219. We greatly appreciate for your help.

Thank you very much for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Murat Hancer, Ph.D. Candidate
Foodservice Management Program
Department of Human Nutrition
& Food Management
The Ohio State University

R. Thomas George, MBA, Ed.D.
Associate Professor



**Department of Human Nutrition
And Food Management**

325 Campbell Hall
1787 Neil Avenue
Columbus, OH 43210-1295

Phone 614-292-4485
FAX 614-292-8880

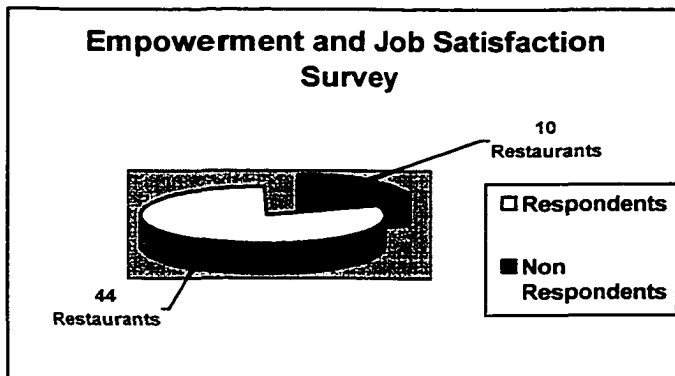
June 27, 2000

Restaurant Manager

General Manager
447 N. Milwaukee Ave.
Vernon Hills, IL 60061

Dear Manager:

Several weeks ago you were sent a survey package to distribute to your employees, which is a part of a project conducted by Murat Hancer, a Graduate Student in the Department of Human Nutrition and Food Management at OSU. Many of you have already collected the completed surveys from your employees and returned them; however, we have not received surveys from you. Since it is so important that all surveys are returned in order to have precise results, this reminder with 28 surveys is sent to you.




If you have already collected the surveys and returned them, please ignore this letter. If you did not have a chance to distribute the surveys and collect them, it would be excellent if you were able to hand out the surveys and collect them within the next week, and return it in the enclosed postage paid envelope to the OSU Department of Human Nutrition and Food Management, 325 Campbell Hall, 1787 Neil Avenue, Columbus, OH 43210.


Your help is extremely needed in this project since you are the one who distributes the survey and collect them. In order to have the best possible understanding of employee empowerment and job satisfaction, we tremendously need your cooperation. Please keep in mind that all responses will be kept confidential.





Please collect all surveys and return them as a package by July 3, 2000.


If you have any questions or concerns, contact Murat Hancer at 614-224-6156 or Tom George at 292-6219. We greatly appreciate for your help. Thank you very much.

Sincerely yours,


Murat Hancer, Ph.D. Candidate


R. Thomas George, M.B.A. Ed.D.
Academic Advisor

<p style="text-align: center;">Please check one</p> <p>▲ <i>I have not received a survey package at all, send me one.</i></p> <p>▲ <i>I lost the package so send me one.</i></p> <p>▲ <i>I have received the package and I am going to send it to you this week.</i></p>	<p>Date: 06/27/2000</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>The Ohio State University College of Human Ecology</i></p>	
		
		
	<p>Survey</p>	

<p style="text-align: center;">REMINDER</p> <p style="text-align: center;"></p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin: 0 auto;"> PLEASE PLACE STAMP HERE </div>
	<p>MURAT HANCER</p> <p>The Ohio State University College of Human Ecology 325 Campbell Hall 1787 Neil Avenue Columbus, OH 43210</p>

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