

PREDICTORS OF INTENT TO STAY FOR HOURLY EMPLOYEES IN THE
FAST FOOD INDUSTRY

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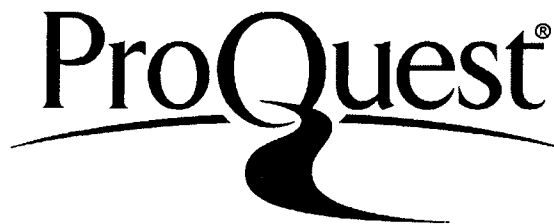
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FOOD INDUSTRY**

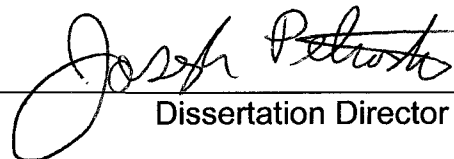
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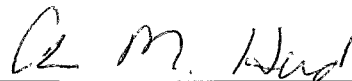
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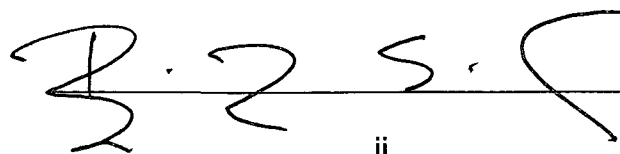
by the following Dissertation Committee:


Dissertation Director









DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved husband Donnie

for his endless love, patience, and belief in me.

Thank you for being my very best friend.

I thank God for you every day.

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The first person to which I owe a huge amount of debt and gratitude is my major professor, Dr. Joe Petrosko, for his constant support and guidance through this entire process and believing in my work. Many students have had the opportunity to work with Dr. Petrosko and would concur that there is no one better to guide you through this last step, particularly the statistical effort. I would also like to thank the other members of my committee, Dr. Carrie Donald, Dr. Rod Githens, Dr. Ann Herd, and Dr. Brad Shuck for their advice, guidance, and encouragement, and efforts to make my study stronger. There have been a few other professors along the way who have added terrific value to my academic endeavors and those include Dr. Tim Hatcher, Dr. Mike Boyle, and Dr. Tom Reio.

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I would like to extend a special thank you to all the restaurant operators and hourly team members who took the time to participate in this study. You made it possible for my dream to become a reality. My wish is that this information will help all of you in the future and strengthen your intention to stay with your restaurant company.

ABSTRACT

PREDICTORS OF INTENT TO STAY FOR HOURLY EMPLOYEES IN THE FAST FOOD INDUSTRY

Kathleen E. Gosser

March 29, 2011

This study ($N = 935$) examined the relationships of demographic characteristics, organizational justice (including the three areas: distributive, procedural, and interactional), and organizational socialization with the dependent variable of intent to stay. Intent to stay has been identified as a criterion variable that predicts actual turnover behavior. If a person responds positively that they intend to stay, they in fact do so.

A paper survey, both in English and Spanish, was sent to 100 fast food restaurants for hourly employees to complete anonymously and individually. Multiple regression analysis and hierarchical regression analysis were conducted to determine the strength of the relationships, at the individual response level and the aggregated restaurant location level. This study was unique in that it surveyed hourly employees in the fast food industry whereas the majority of studies have focused on managerial employees.

The multiple regression analysis showed that age, primary wage earner status, distributive justice, interactional justice, and organizational socialization were all significantly related to an employee's intent to stay at the individual level.

At the aggregated location level, distributive justice and organizational socialization were significantly related.

Hierarchical regression analysis, controlling for the demographic variables, showed that age, primary wage earner status, and distributive justice were significantly related at the individual level. At the aggregated restaurant level, distributive justice and organizational socialization were related.

This study supports the literature (with managerial respondents) showing that relationships exist with organizational justice and organizational socialization and either intent to stay or intent to leave. This study further supports the practical relevance for HRD leaders in fast food companies to understand the relationships and leverage the information to create practices that will increase employees' intention to stay, which will then translate to longer tenure.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ABSTRACT.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiv
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background to the Study.....	4
Statement of the Problem.....	6
Purpose of the Study.....	6
Research Questions.....	7
Theoretical Framework.....	7
Significance of the Study.....	14
Assumptions of the Study.....	15
Limitations of the Study.....	16
Definition of Terms.....	16
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	18
Introduction.....	18
Sociology of Work.....	19
Introduction.....	19
The History of Work in America – Management.....	20
Workplace Behaviors – The Nature of Work.....	23
The Fast Food Restaurant Industry.....	30

The Industry Demographics.....	30
Environment of Fast Food Restaurants.....	33
Theories of Motivation.....	41
Historical Theories.....	41
Employee Intentions.....	47
Turnover Research.....	49
Organizational Justice.....	54
Distributive Justice.....	54
Procedural Justice.....	55
Interactional Justice.....	57
Organizational Socialization.....	59
Orientation.....	59
Relationships at Work.....	63
Other Variables.....	64
Work Environment.....	65
Fun.....	65
Pay and Benefits.....	68
Select Demographic Variables.....	69
Age.....	69
Full-time or Part-Time Employment.....	70
Other Demographic Variables.....	72
Cost of Turnover to Business and Industry.....	72
Summary of Literature Review.....	73

METHODOLOGY.....	75
Research Advancement.....	76
Participants and Setting.....	76
Method and Data Analysis.....	79
Independent Variables.....	80
Dependent Variable.....	81
Instrumentation.....	82
Pilot Study.....	83
Statistical Analysis.....	84
Data Collection.....	85
Study Limitations.....	86
RESULTS.....	87
Pilot Study Results.....	86
Instrument Reliability.....	90
Content Validity.....	92
Participants and Data Collection.....	92
Summary of Reliability Coefficients for Each Scale.....	93
Descriptive Statistics for Restaurant Locations.....	93
Descriptive Statistics for Respondents.....	95
Data Analyses at the Individual Level.....	104
Data Analysis at the Location Level.....	114
Other Analysis.....	124
Summary.....	126

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Statement of the Problem.....	129
Review of the Methodology.....	130
Summary of the Results.....	131
Discussion of the Results.....	132
Research Question 1: Findings and Implications.....	136
Research Question 2: Findings and Implications.....	131
Research Question 3: Findings and Implications.....	140
Research Question 4: Findings and Implications.....	142
Implications to Theory.....	149
Recommendations.....	151
Study Limitations.....	154
Suggestions for Additional Research.....	155
Summary.....	156
REFERENCES.....	159
APPENDICES.....	169
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	200

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Percentage of Workers Employed by Age of Worker.....	33
2. Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Final Study Data.....	95
3. Location of Restaurants.....	96
4. Distribution of Respondents by Gender.....	97
5. Distribution of Respondents by Age.....	98
6. Distribution of Respondents by Ethnicity.....	99
7. Distribution of Respondents by Time with Company.....	100
8. Distribution of Respondents by Position Worked.....	101
9. Distribution of Respondents by Number of Hours Worked.....	102
10. Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education.....	103
11. Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Five Demographic Variables.....	106
12. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Justice.....	108
13. Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Three Organizational Justice Variables.....	109
14. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Socialization.....	110
15. Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Organizational Socialization Variable.....	111
16. Incremental Variance in Intent to Stay for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice Variables, and Organizational Socialization Variables.....	113

17. Regression coefficients for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice Variables, and Organizational Socialization Predicting Intent to Stay: All Cases.....	114
18. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Aggregated Data: All Variables.....	116
19. Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by Five Demographic Variables at the Aggregated Location Level.....	117
20. Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Three Organizational Justice Variables at the Aggregated Location Level.....	119
21. Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Organizational Socialization Variable at the Aggregate Location Level.....	120
22. Incremental Variance in Restaurant Average of Intent to Stay for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice Variables, and Organizational Socialization Variables.....	122
23. Regression Coefficients for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice, and Organizational Socialization Predicting Intent to stay: Aggregated of all Cases.....	123
24. General Summary of Analysis Results: Significant Predictors of Intent to Stay.....	127

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. The proposed conceptual model for employees' intent to stay with a fast food company.....	13
2. Motivation model for ABC Foods.....	44
3. Results of multiple regression analyses on the three sets of independent variables – demographic characteristics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization – at the individual response level.....	146
4. Results of hierarchical regression analysis at the individual results level.....	147
5. Results of multiple regression analyses on the three sets of independent variables – demographic characteristics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization – at the aggregated summary level.....	148
6. Results of hierarchical regression analysis at the aggregated summary results level.....	149

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The fast food industry has experienced explosive growth over the last few decades and is projected to increase employment opportunities 15% during the decade starting in 2008 and ending in 2018, compared with 10% for all industries (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). This growth has created and will create many employment opportunities, both in entry-level positions as well as management positions. With this growth the industry has been plagued by performance issues compounded by problems such as frequent employee turnover. Turnover is expensive and detrimental to productivity (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006). By focusing on employee retention, restaurant owners may have the opportunity to increase restaurant profit margins (Hinkin et al., 2000; Kacmar et al., 2006).

This research investigated employees' intent to stay, a variable related to employee turnover, which has been established in the literature to affect business outcomes such as profitability and customer satisfaction. One of the highest costs of turnover is training new staff; the Foodservice industry spends about \$4.3 billion annually on new employee training (Zuber, 2001). Even though many companies know intuitively that retention is a major cost to their

organization, only 16% of U.S. companies track turnover costs (Corporate Executive Board, 1998).

This study investigated employees' intent to stay with an organization because understanding the factors that keep employees with an organization may assist with the development of programs and interventions that enable employers to retain more of their current employees. In contrast to the majority of existing research that deals with intent to leave, this study addressed employee intent to stay with an organization (Somers, 1996). The perspective supported a more positive approach to the management of turnover and retention (Flowers & Hughes, 1973). Flowers and Hughes contended that many companies invest in determining why employees terminate employment, which only looks at the negative perspective. The authors further maintained:

If a company wants to keep its employees, then it should also study the reasons for retention and continuation, and work to reinforce these. From the view point of a company's policies on employment and turnover, the reasons why people *stay* in their jobs are just as important as the reasons why they leave them (p. 49).

Some studies have focused predominately on demographic variables and job satisfaction as predictors of employees' intentions (March & Simon, 1958; Martin, 1979). This research study examined other possible antecedents of intention to stay with an organization. Organizational socialization theory, focusing on the social climate at work and the employee adaptation process, was found to be one useful lens to study intention to stay (Saks, 1996; Schein, 1998). Other relevant theory included the investigation of organizational justice, which,

focuses on how employees are treated by peer employees, policies, and management (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

The research proposed may be of practical relevance to the fast food industry due to the high costs of turnover (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). The costs of turnover prior to an employee's departure could include many elements resulting in unnecessary expenditures. Exit interviews, which are designed to examine why people voluntarily quit (Mercer, 1998), include the cost of the human resource professional's time as well as the hourly rate of the person leaving. Other costs to organizations that have been found to be related to the individual leaving include accrued vacation and continued benefits, which may have to be paid to the individual leaving (based upon company policies).

Other costs resulting from the person leaving are numerous, starting with the costs associated with the position being vacant; there may be a need for the other employees to work overtime (the latter pay is at least 50% higher). To recruit and select a new candidate requires costly advertising, the human resource professional's time for selecting candidates to interview, possible pre-testing time, application processing, and costs of reference checks (Corporate Leadership Council, 1998). Once the new candidate is hired, the costs continue to escalate, including orientation (acclimating the new hire to the environment), uniforms, and specific training. Lastly, the productivity of the new hire usually does not match the productivity of the tenured person who has left the organization; thus, there are costs associated with other employees attempting to

make up for the productivity shortfall of the new hire (Corporate Leadership Council, 1998).

The yearly turnover rate for hourly employees at US fast food restaurants has been declining from a high of 140% in 1995, but was still 123% in 1999 (Zuber, 2001) and was last reported at 120% at the organization studied. The percentages prove that most hourly employees at US fast food restaurants stay with a company less than one year. Hourly employees were the focus of this study. Studying hourly employees also helps to fill a gap in the existing literature, since most employee turnover studies are conducted with managerial employees (Hoisch, 2001).

Background to the Study

The overall economic impact of the restaurant industry is approximated at 1.3 trillion dollars in the US economy, including all related industries (Nation's Restaurant News, 2007). The actual sales of all restaurants were estimated to be \$537 billion in 2007, which is a 5% increase over 2006. The restaurant industry represents 4% of the U.S. Gross Domestic Product (Nation's Restaurant News, 2007). The industry employs 12.8 million people, making it the second largest employer, with government being first. Through 2017, the industry is expected to add two million more employees (Nation's Restaurant News, 2007). Nearly half of all adults have worked in a restaurant and 32% cite it as their first job (Nation's Restaurant News, 2007).

Because the restaurant industry has such an important role in the US economy and the labor force in general, it is important for scholars to study this

field more extensively. There are two types of employees in the industry: hourly employees and salaried. The hourly employee has the most contact with the customer in a fast food restaurant. While much research has been conducted on the professional or salaried employee, there is a gap in the literature regarding hourly employees (Hoisch, 2001). Hourly employees comprise the largest percentage of employment within the restaurant and have a large impact on the guest experience; for this reason, this study focused on this group of individuals. There are over ten million hourly employees either serving or cooking in restaurants in the US (BLS, 2011).

A number of variables have been studied regarding their relationship to employee intent to stay or turnover. This study examined two attitudinal variables and select demographic variables. A focus of this study was on organizational justice and organizational socialization as predictors of intent to stay.

Organizational justice has been referred to as “work-place justice” or fairness. There are three types of organizational justice defined in the literature: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Carrell, 1978; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Organizational socialization has been defined as the process of “learning the ropes,” being indoctrinated and trained, and being taught what is important in an organization. The speed of socialization has an effect on employee loyalty, commitment, productivity and turnover (Schein, 1998). Given the unstable social structure of an industry with over 100% turnover, socialization becomes a germane foundation for this particular research study. Another research

consideration points to the notion that the restaurant industry overall has created and reinforced a culture of turnover, where it is believed (by both the hourly employee as well as management) upon entering the workplace that the position may not be long term, placing the question of intent to stay in an employee's mind before even being hired (Iverson & Deery, 1997).

As guided by the literature, demographic variables were studied including age, gender, ethnicity, type of position, part- or full-time employment, location of restaurant, level of education, and tenure of the employee. The demographic variables were used to examine individual differences in who has the highest intent to stay.

Statement of the Problem

The problem to be researched was determining what factors contribute to an hourly employee's decision to remain (intent to stay) with a fast food company. The research examined the impact of organizational justice and socialization variables and how they affected employees' decisions to remain with a fast food company.

Purpose of the Study

This study investigated possible factors related to employee intention to stay employed at fast food restaurants. It also examined possible differences among those individual employees as well as looking at the aggregate data by restaurant. Early turnover research hypothesized that turnover is caused by a lack of job satisfaction and perception of internal and external opportunities (March & Simon, 1958). Later theories contended that job dissatisfaction may not

directly cause turnover, but it is one of the drivers of “intent to leave” (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 153). Theories have continued to evolve that include either reasons why employees are not retained such as organizational justice, organizational socialization, and demographic factors (Steers & Mowday, 1981). Rather than studying those employees who have already left the organization, this research studied employees who have remained employed with the fast food company studied. Thus, this is a study of employees’ intention to stay, resulting in retention versus turnover.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. Which demographic variables significantly predict intent to stay by hourly employees at fast food restaurants?
2. To what extent does organizational justice predict intent to stay by hourly employees?
3. To what extent does organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?
4. After controlling for the select demographic variables, to what extent do the organizational justice and organizational socialization variables predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework used for this research study started with the socialization of work theories, which provided a platform for understanding work in America. This is relevant in that the early researchers developed theories

regarding work that were very pertinent to the fast food restaurant industry. Then the theories of motivation were reviewed, which provided a basis for employees' intrinsic motivation to work. The two major theories that were researched thoroughly and used in this study were organizational justice and organizational socialization.

Sociology of Work

The socialization of work was initiated in the 19th century when work was created and managed through control (Edwards, 1979). Karl Marx then studied work in the context of the dehumanization of the worker (Wharton, 1998). The assembly line approach to work in general then was introduced to America. Bryant and Perkins (1982) believed the assembly line approach to work dehumanized and devalued workers. Later researchers focused on what motivates workers and Hodson (1991) developed a typology of what motivates workers, which is aligned with the motivation theories.

The sociology of work was relevant to this study due to changing work flows and the lasting impact that is still prevalent in the fast food industry (Schlosser, 2001). The fast food industry itself was studied and discussed in Chapter 2 because it was the subject of the entire study. The fast food industry is the second largest employer (next to the US Government) in the US (BLS, 2011).

Motivation Theories

As socialization of work theories and practices emerged, theories of motivation evolved with well-known researchers such as Maslow, Herzberg, and

Vroom. These researchers were reviewed focusing on their theories of what motivates people to work, in general. Maslow (1943) defined a hierarchy of needs beginning with the most basic of human needs and ending with the highest form of motivation, self-actualization. Maslow's theory is germane to hourly employees because many of them are existing within the first tier of his hierarchy, the basic needs category (Maslow, 1943).

Herzberg (1966) defined "hygiene" factors that may not be motivators inherently but could be dissatisfiers thus encouraging employees to leave a company. Hygiene factors are those things such as receiving a paycheck on time, the weekly schedule posted on time, and receiving a uniform to wear on the job, which in later research were defined in terms of distributive justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). The environment of the fast food restaurant contains many characteristics that are included in the preceding examples.

Vroom (1964) defined the expectancy theory whereby employees are motivated to perform to the level expected of them by their supervisors. This theory too is very relevant within the restaurant environment. If a manager (supervisor) only expects a fast food employee to conduct specific tasks within the employee job description, this may be all the employee will do versus going above and beyond his or her job responsibilities. Hackman and Oldham (1975) explored the concept of task variety and its impact, so this type of question was included in this study. Another basic finding of Vroom's research was that workers who are highly attracted to their jobs manifest that attraction with increased tenure.

Organizational Justice

While the theories of socialization of work and motivation were the subject of early research, scholars have embarked on new avenues of research in the workplace, including a body of research focused on organizational justice. The theory of organizational justice was a foundation of this dissertation as well because it is focused on the elements of fairness, which are very relevant in the fast food environment. Organizational justice is comprised of four types: distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, and a relatively newly defined type, informational justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, Ng, 2001).

Distributive justice is defined as ensuring there is a sense of fairness in how people are treated. One way to determine this is to evaluate the fairness of the outcomes that each person receives. There are several methods to determine this equity component, though the researchers agree that attempts to measure distributive justice are subjective (Colquitt et al., 2001). Niehoff and Moorman (1993) developed questions to test the construct; these questions were included in this study. The questions focused on employees' perceptions of how fair they believe their pay, work schedule, work load, job responsibilities, and rewards are at their current job.

Procedural justice is defined as the level of equity in how procedures are applied across employees. This would be very relevant in the fast food service environment regarding the adherence of consequences of tardiness or absenteeism, evaluation of performance, and awarding of raises, and special bonuses (list not all inclusive).

Interactional justice refers to the way in which people perceive they are being treated, or the respect they are given (Colquitt et al., 2001). Niehoff and Moorman (1993) developed questions to test this form of justice. The questions focus on items such as applying all job decisions consistently across all employees and the general manager making job decisions in an unbiased manner.

The most recent organizational factor is interactional justice, which focuses on the quality and value of the interpersonal relationships between the employee and his or her supervisor (Colquitt et al, 2001). There are two types of interactional justice: interpersonal and informational. Interpersonal justice refers to kindness and respect and was studied in this research using Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) questions. This last form of organizational justice, informational justice, will not be explored fully in this research because it is a fairly new concept.

Organizational Socialization

Another body of research focused on the workplace and employees, which is relevant to this study and was investigated in this study, is organizational socialization. Organizational socialization is the process whereby new employees learn the work environment and how they can or cannot adapt to the environment (Schein, 1998). It includes the learning of the social norms, values, and behavior patterns that are necessary to learn for the position. If the new employee has a full understanding of the social environment of the place he is entering, then there should be no surprises and the orientation simply a reaffirmation of what he

has expected (Schein, 1998). However, the opposite is true as well: if the social values, norms, and behavior patterns are different from what is expected, it could result in employee dissatisfaction or escalating a decision to leave the organization. It is also relevant to note that if the employee's norms, values, and behavior patterns are misaligned with the organization, acclimating to a different work environment also will cause disharmony (Schein, 1998). Given the many different work environments within the fast food restaurants themselves, this field of theory did provide some key new insights for the existing literature. Organizational socialization also refers to relationships at work and if the employee has a friend at work. Questions from Chao et al (1994) were used to measure both training and friendships at work.

Model for Measuring Intent to Stay

The Price and Mueller (1981) conceptual model of intent to stay provided a linkage between independent variables and the dependent variable of intent to stay. Price and Mueller (1981) used the variables of opportunity, routinization, participation, instrumental communication, integration, pay, distributive justice, promotional opportunity, professionalism, general training, and kinship responsibility. Price and Mueller contended that any of these variables had an impact on job satisfaction, which then influenced the outcome variable intent to stay.

Adapting this model, Figure 1 was the conceptual model that this study tested. The relationships were hypothetical, based upon the theoretical foundations currently existing in the literature. The model suggested that if

demographic characteristics were controlled, organizational justice and organizational socialization would predict the intent to stay variable.

Figure 1

The Proposed Conceptual Model for Employees' Intent to Stay with a Fast Food Company



Adapted from Price & Mueller (1981, p. 547).

Significance of the Study

There are many studies detailing why employees leave an organization (Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978); there are few which provide the indicators as to why employees stay with an organization, except those that are anecdotally versus empirically supported (Horn & Griffeth, 1995). Examining the possible contribution of variables that might predict better why hourly employees would stay with an organization will provide vital new information for fast food restaurant employers to allow them to understand better how to retain their current workforce.

Focusing on the theories of organizational justice and organizational socialization provided useful lenses to examine employees' intent to stay. The connection between these two theories and employees' intent to stay is under studied in the existing literature, thus this study could suggest another perspective to retaining valuable employees.

This study has practical significance in that it is much more productive and less costly to retain the current workforce than to recruit, select, train, and onboard new employees (Corporate Executive Board, 1998). With the advent of an additional two million employees with an existing labor force of 12.8 million (Nation's Restaurant News, 2007), coupled with the turnover rate of over 100 percent (Zuber, 2001), the complexity of adding 14.8 million new employees to the restaurant industry each year is staggering.

This study will add to the HRD literature due to its focus on the HRD subjects of retention, work environment, and socialization, which includes

training. The following definition of HRD confirmed that the variables in this study were related to the field of HRD (McLean & McLean, 2001, p. 322):

Human resource development is any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge expertise, productivity, and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation, or ultimately, the whole of humanity.

The researchers further included employee retention, training, organizational development and community building. While variation in what is included with HRD theory is questioned, this research study adopted a broader definition of HRD as suggested by Kuchinke (2003) to explore the relationship between HRD categories such as training and culture with business outcomes, specifically employee retention.

Assumptions of the Study

The research design and statistical procedures employed for this study were based on the following assumptions:

1. The subject matter experts regarding tenure in the fast food industry are indeed experts and their information is correct. It is also assumed they were willing participants.
2. The participants in the study would respond without pressure and honestly.
3. This study was conducted in English and Spanish only; it is assumed this will reflect the majority of hourly employees in the fast food restaurants investigated in this study.

Limitations of the Study

Inherent limitations existed for this study:

1. This study focused solely on one industry, which is the fast food restaurant industry. It has been suggested that this industry does not replicate the overall demographics of the US in that it is skewed to younger age groups (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2001).
2. This study focused on two discrete variables of organizational behavior: justice and socialization. There could be many other variables that predict intent to stay that were not included in this study.
3. This study focused on one company only, ABC Foods. While it may be representative of the industry given its multiple locations, it may not be generalizable to restaurants outside of this study.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions will be used.

Back of the house: the food preparation area in a fast food restaurant.

Typically, it is the area behind the front counter.

Customer Service Team Member (CSTM): an hourly employee working at a fast food restaurant focused on customer service or front of the house activities.

Fast Food Restaurant or Industry: refers to restaurants whereby food is quickly prepared for either dine-in or carry-out. It is synonymous with "quick service restaurant or industry" in the literature. For this study, "fast food" will be utilized.

Food Service Team Member (FSTM): an hourly employee working at a fast food restaurant focused on food service preparation or back of the house activities.

Front of the house: the customer service area in a fast food restaurant. It is the area including the service counter and the area where customers stand.

Onboarding: the process of orienting (socializing) a new employee to the organization.

Team Member: an hourly employee working at a fast food restaurant.

Turnover: the ratio of the number of workers that had to be replaced in a given time period to the average number of workers (Princeton University, 2007).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore why hourly employees intend to stay with a company. The content of Chapter 2 provided the foundation for this study by examining empirical research focused on the proposed theoretical foundations. There is little scholarly research examining why hourly employees stay loyal and remain employed at one particular company.

The review of the literature begins with the sociology of work in America, which provides a history of how work itself has evolved through the years. Studying the sociology of work is critical because many of the early theories are still prevalent in the fast food industry today; understanding how the theories evolved supported the discussion. Transitioning from general work in America, the next section provides an overview of the fast food industry as well as its employees; this includes information documenting the work environment and life of a fast food employee. Further, theoretical studies of motivation will then be discussed to gain an understanding of the basic theories hypothesizing what motivates or encourages employees' intent to stay at work. Following the theories of motivation, the two theories forming the integral premise of this

dissertation are reviewed: organizational justice and organizational socialization. Also included is research on basic demographic factors that could have an impact on an employee's decision to stay. The literature review concludes with examining the current research on why employees stay, including the financial implications of excessive turnover to an organization.

Sociology of Work

Introduction

Work in America continues to evolve over time. The face of the American worker and the nature of the American job have both changed over the last century. Fast food restaurants, particularly, have grown to be one of the fastest growing industries with growth rates of 20% in the 1970s, 10% in the 1980s, single digits in the 1990s, and the latest statistics cited over 15% total growth projected through 2018 (BLS, 2011). This growth has driven an explosive rate of employment opportunities within the industry.

The study of work is central to the field of Human Resource Development because the field includes critical elements of work such as training and retention (McLean & McLean, 2001). Understanding the history of work helps the understanding of the current work environment.

This section briefly explores the overall history of work in America and how it has changed in the past century. This includes a discussion on the transformation of the American corporation and the nature of work including workplace behaviors and the sociological implications. Lastly, the fast food

industry is explored and discussed in detail including statistics of growth and the sociological aspects of the work itself, focusing on the routinization of the work.

The History of Work in America - Management

Defining what is meant by “work” is the first key to understanding the history of work in America. Wharton (1998) quotes a definition by Randy Hodson and Teresa Sullivan, “Work is the creation of material goods or services, which may be directly consumed by the worker or sold to someone else” (p. 6). This broad definition of work includes everything from a corporate executive to working at home for the individual family.

During the 19th century, business and industry were very different from their 20th century successors in that corporations were smaller in scope creating a different way of managing and controlling work and employees. Work was more industrialized with little service work even conceived or warranted by the masses. Edwards (1979) maintains that the systems of control in organizations evolved during this time. He defines three methods of control: simple, technological, and bureaucratic. According to Edwards, in the 19th century, simple control was prevalent in business and industry (many people were farmers). This was feasible with smaller companies, as defined by the number of people employed and annual revenues. It involves the owner of the company delivering all tasks to employees and conducting the follow-up personally. Edwards (1979) discussed the roles of family members in the 19th century organizations; many organizations used family members for the majority of the required labor, which allowed simple control to be effective.

As companies grew in size, simple control became impossible to exercise, as greater size did not allow simple control as a feasible option for business owners. In the beginning of the 20th century, companies grew to need more formalized controls and developed technical and bureaucratic types of hierarchical control (Edwards, 1979).

Technical control began with what is known as the assembly line, or the birth of the concept of division of labor. The actual machinery and steps in a job dictated the control. During this time Frederick Taylor introduced his theory on division of labor. The division of labor concept was not new since Adam Smith had introduced this theory in his 1776 publication (Shafritz & Ott, 2001). This theory postulates that by dividing work into small components, workers would be more efficient and the end result would benefit the company. Braverman argued that division of labor is not always the best response (1974). He maintained, "in a society based upon the purchase and sale of labor power, dividing the craft cheapens its individual parts" (p. 80). He concluded that division of labor can at times cost the company more in the manufacturing process because "labor power has become a commodity" (p.82) through this division of labor.

Technical control is still in existence today in manufacturing plants; however, the majority of control in America today is bureaucratic. Edwards (1979) defined this as "hierarchical control" and explained that it "rests on the principle of embedding control in the social structure or the social relations of the workplace," (p. 21). This type of control focuses on strict titles and levels in an

organization. "Moving ahead" refers to promotions that move a person up the corporate ladder into positions of more power, responsibility, and compensation.

Bureaucratic power is an appropriate response for companies without any type of manufacturing; however, with manufacturing, technical power can still be effective. A combination of bureaucratic and technical power is also a possibility with manufacturing plants today depending upon the cultures within the organizations. Size also dictates the type of power utilized. Small entrepreneurial firms can still depend on simple power; the larger an organization becomes often times dictates the type of power warranted to ensure the organization's goals are reached.

There are different types of work that also dictate the type of organization that is needed. Wharton defined three types of work in America (1998): industrial work, personal service work, and professional and managerial work. Industrial work refers to the manufacturing jobs commonly considered "blue collar" positions. Personal service work is what has evolved through the years, as America has become more of a service society. Wharton shared a definition for personal service work (from Macdonald and Sirianni): "face-to-face or voice-to-voice interaction is a fundamental element of the work" (p. 251). The fast food industry is a component of this type of work. Braverman (1974) considered service occupations as including "the giant mass of workers who are relatively homogeneous as to lack of developed skill, low pay, and interchangeability of person and function" (p. 359). Braverman (1974) provided examples of the types

of service workers: maids, restaurant workers, laundry workers, workers in automobile repair shops, and any type of repair worker.

The last type of work, professional and managerial work, focused on what Wharton (1998) called “the most privileged sector of the labor force,” (p. 252). Professional and managerial workers typically have higher financial incomes and enjoy intrinsic rewards from their work besides the higher extrinsic rewards.

Combining the theories of control and the types of work, it can be postulated that the three types of control can be effective in industrial work. However, the efficacy of exerting technical control with personal service work and professional and managerial work is improbable. In the latter two types of work, simple control may work in very small organizations. The most likely type of control would be bureaucratic where an organization exists within the confines of a hierarchical structure with very formal lines of supervision. However, in the fast food industry, both technical and bureaucratic control exists. The equipment that ensures consistency in products is a form of technical control; the overall management of the restaurant is bureaucratic control.

Workplace Behaviors – The Nature of Work

With the transformation of work moving from more industrialized to more service focused, the behaviors in the workplace also have evolved. Karl Marx wrote a great deal about the dehumanization of the worker with assembly line work and the division of labor. Workplace behaviors have also been transformed with the introduction of females and minorities into the labor pool. This will be explored in this section.

In the late 1800s Karl Marx was one of the first sociologists to explore the impact upon the labor force of the introduction of machinery. He conceived the philosophy of “alienating labour” (Wharton, 1998). He believed that machinery caused work to be mundane and unenjoyable by stating, “The lightening of the labour, even, becomes a sort of torture, since the machine does not free the labourer from work, but deprives the work of all interest” (Tucker, 1977, p. 297). Marx believed that by employing more machinery, it distanced (alienated) the worker from the work itself and actually caused a decline in worker motivation and overall job satisfaction.

Marx was a critic of capitalism as he maintained it caused workers to lose their special skills and all become homogeneous. He stated, “The special skill of each individual insignificant factory operative vanishes as an infinitesimal quantity before the science, the gigantic physical forces, and the mass of labour that are embodied in the factory mechanism and, together with that mechanism, constitute the power of the master” (Tucker, 1977 p. 297).

During a research study in a beef plant, sociologist William Thompson confirmed the arguments Marx defined regarding capitalism (1983). Thompson spent a summer in a beef processing plant to experience the life of an assembly line worker. Thompson did not notify the plant workers or supervisors that he was conducting a research study; he just told them that he was a university professor. He discussed one of the main difficulties as “coping with three aspects of the work: monotony, danger, and dehumanization” (p. 226). The monotony of the job existed due to the singular focus each person had in terms of work definition and

the fact that they had to conduct the same job over and over for an 8-hour shift. Danger occurred due to the nature of the work in the beef plant – knives were used by a majority of the workers.

Thompson (1983) also discussed the dehumanization of the assembly line work. He states, “Workers on the assembly line are seen as interchangeable as the parts of the product on the line itself” (p. 229). He provided an example in which he asked a fellow worker what would happen if an employee died on the line and here is the response he received: “They drag off the body, take the hard hat and boots and check ‘em out to some other poor sucker and throw him in the guy’s place” (p. 229).

Thompson (1983) discussed the tactic of sabotage that exists in the assembly line, which is what Marx was implicating when he defined alienation. Sabotage at the plant would often be subtle in nature such as violating a policy against placing meat that had fallen on the floor to be placed in the inedible bucket. The workers would first see if an inspector noticed; if not, the piece of meat that landed on the floor would be placed with the rest of the edible meat.

Thompson (1983) concluded that the primary reason that workers stay in a dehumanizing, dangerous, monotonous job is for financial gain. Workers in an assembly line are often compensated highly for their work, which motivates workers to stay. According to Thompson (1983), workers find ways to cope to make the job bearable. Thompson inferred through his discussion that the workers do not like the work itself or take pride in it; it is merely a means to a financial end.

Conversely, Bryant and Perkins (1982) indicated that workers could become satisfied in assembly line work, with their study of a poultry-processing worker. Bryant and Perkins conducted observations and probing interviews during their research, which was announced and very overt (unlike Thompson). While the work in the poultry plants is very comparable to the work in a beef plant, Bryant and Perkins did not talk about the monotony or dehumanization of the work. They focused on the social interaction of employees working with each other to make the job not only bearable, but also satisfying.

Bryant and Perkins (1982) were able to draw conclusions regarding the positive aspects of working on an assembly line, although they do describe the actual conditions of the plant as unpleasant. According to their interviews and surveys (1982), 60% of the workers responding "said they were either 'generally satisfied' or 'completely satisfied' with their job; 63% reported that they would choose the same job again; and, when comparing their job to the worst and best of all possible jobs they could think of, 81% gave a rank of 5 or better on a scale of 0 to 10 (with 10 symbolic of the 'ideal' job" (p.161). It is important to note that when Bryant and Perkins probed the employees on what they liked about the job, "40 percent of all the respondents listed 'people' or 'co-worker relations' as the thing they liked most about the job," (1982, p. 161). They concluded that the actual adverse working conditions (such as odors and dampness) were only "minimally disaffective."

Bryant and Perkins did mention the "sexual division of labor," (1982). This refers to the fact that some jobs in the plant take a higher degree of physical

strength, so mostly males perform those jobs. They further stated that males dominated the foreman and supervisory positions.

Hodson (1989) studied the difference in job satisfaction between men and women. This research focused on the differences between men and women including home life and the complexity of the work. Overall, Hodson found that women are more satisfied in general. He believed this is because women compare themselves to other women in similar positions rather than comparing themselves to men in superior positions (1989). Hodson claimed that many women compare their lives to those of non-working women as well. The irony is that Hodson claimed, "Women hold jobs that are, on average, inferior in many respects to those held by men" (1989, p. 385). Hodson believed this difference in job satisfaction between women and men is still an area not understood and requiring further research.

Bryant & Perkins, and Thompson discussed work on an assembly line where the division of labor occurs and the work is clearly defined and structured. Hodson explored workplace behavior in all fields in his research. Hodson's research is more recent and refers to behaviors in the workplace overall, not just the work but how it is divided and what it comprises.

In another study, Hodson evaluated worker behaviors to understand the workplace and what motivates workers to excel (1991). In this research, he interviewed clerical workers, paraprofessionals, semiprofessionals, service, and manual workers. His goal was "to understand the nature of effort at the workplace and the ways it is elicited and stymied," (1991, p. 50). He also visited

the workplaces and constantly compared his results as a way of determining significant factors to report. With this study, Hodson was able to categorize workers into eight “spheres of behavior,” (1991, p. 52).

The worker controls these eight spheres of behavior, contrary to the Marxian theory that the work controls the behavior of the workers. The spheres included are as follows (Hodson, 1991, p. 271-290).

1. *Enthusiastic Compliance:* Pride in work is the key here; workers are excited about work and willing to take the initiative to do great work. The only two spheres that overlap with enthusiastic compliance are “brown nosing” and “making out.”
2. *Conditional Effort:* This sphere is where most employees are struggling to be motivated and do good work. All the other spheres overlap with this one at some point.
3. *Making Out:* This refers to the workers satisfying the needs of the organization, yet finding ways to meet their own needs.
4. *Brown nosing:* In this sphere, the workers are “ingratiating toward one’s supervisors and receiving favors or privileges in return,” (p. 57).
5. *Foot-dragging:* This is a variation of a worker “playing dumb.” The worker claims he/she cannot perform the task in order to get out of completing the task.
6. *Withdrawal:* The worker in this sphere totally withdraws from work, either through absenteeism or fabricating illnesses or injuries to avoid work.
7. *Sabotage:* As discussed earlier, this refers to deliberately destroying something needed to complete work whether a piece of machinery, a process, or even teamwork.
8. *Gossip and Infighting:* This is considered a sphere due to the damage it can cause within an organization. It causes ongoing interruptions in workplace activity, morale, and motivation.

Hodson's typology defines the majority of workplace behaviors and defines how different people are motivated to work. It illustrates how the struggle for control between management and labor actually exists in the workplace. Hodson concluded that many workers need autonomy and some control within their everyday workplace behaviors to be effective (1991). According to Hodson, "Workers are active, creative human beings. No industrial regime can completely deny them this and survive," (1991, p. 72).

Hodson followed up with another article on the same topic. In a study of job satisfaction, he defined workers using three labels: good soldiers, smooth operators, and saboteurs (1991). He defined good soldiers as those trying to achieve all organizational goals and make these goals their own. Smooth operators advance their own goals first, then the organization's goals; they still achieve organizational goals, but look for ways to satisfy their personal goals first. Saboteurs seek to "get even," not meet organizational goals or even focus on their own goals.

Hodson's research and findings apply not only to industrial manufacturing work, but also into service and personal work. Employees at any type of organization can easily be categorized into Hodson's defined categories. His work on job satisfaction also carries over into all types of business. His theory regarding job satisfaction and comparison among similar people when individuals rate job satisfaction is also a part of his theory of "dual markets," (Hodson & Sullivan, 1995).

In their textbook, Hodson and Sullivan (1995) defined a dual labor market, which refers to women and minorities being in a group of lower-paying jobs and white males being selected for the higher-paying jobs. It is sometimes referred to as segregating the jobs into categories of “preferred” and “unpreferred” workers (Hodson & Sullivan, 1995). It is believed that service work is considered a low-paying job and therefore, unpreferred. According to Hodson and Sullivan (1995), it is unknown if the relative number of unpreferred jobs is increasing. The concern with increasing unpreferred jobs is that the lower class of our economy may increase significantly causing the middle class to shrink. Many of these jobs are in the service industry including the fast food service industry. The industry demographics for the fast food industry do support this supposition as highlighted in the following section.

The Fast Food Restaurant Industry

The industry demographics

The food industry overall would be an industry defined as full of the unpreferred jobs that Hodson and Sullivan refer to in their text (1995). The opportunities are typically minimum-wage jobs in less than desirable conditions with seemingly limited opportunities for growth. Even with these assumptions, the industry has grown and with this growth, acquired more employees. In 1970, there were 2.9 million people employed in food service (Braverman, 1974). In 2006, there were 9.4 million people employed in eating and drinking places, making the food industry one of the nation’s leading employers (BLS, 2007). There were over 13 million people, which is 9% of the U.S. workforce, employed

in the restaurant industry in 2009, making it one of the largest private sector employers in the United States (National Restaurant Association, 2010).

The fast food industry overall has been named one of the fastest growing industries in the United States (Van Giezen, 1994). The National Restaurant Association (NRA) (2007) projected there would be 12.8 million employees in the industry by the end of 2007, making it the second largest employer outside the U.S. government. The NRA further projected that another 1.8 million jobs will be added by 2019. In contrast, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) estimates are lower than the National Restaurant Association's statistics, estimating 6.7 million workers in the fast food industry; but this still provides a growth message (BLS 2009). Below is a list of facts regarding the industry (National Restaurant Association, 2007, 2011):

The typical employee in a Foodservice occupation is:

- Female (55 percent)
- Under 30 years of age (53 percent)
- Single (66 percent)
- Working part-time and averaging 25 hours a week
- Living in a household with two or more wage earners (79%)
- The overall economic impact of the restaurant industry will be \$1.7 trillion in 2011, including sales in related industries such as agriculture, transportation and manufacturing.
- Every dollar spent by consumers in restaurants generates an additional \$2.34 spent in other industries allied with the restaurant industry.
- Every additional \$1 million in restaurant sales generates an additional 37 jobs for the nation's economy.
- Average unit sales in 2004 were \$795,000 at full service restaurants and \$671,000 at limited-service restaurants.
- The average household expenditure for food away from home in 2005 was \$2,634, or \$1,054 per person.
- Two out of five fast food operators will increase the proportion of their budget allocated to training in 2007.

- Nearly half of all adults have worked in the restaurant industry at some point during their lives, and 32% of adults got their first job experience in a restaurant.

Twenty-one percent of fast food employees are between the age of 16 and 19, with the industry providing many first jobs for new entrants into the workforce (BLS, 2009). One critic of the fast food industry believes that hiring so many teenagers is unnecessary. “Unlike Olympic gymnastics – an activity in which teenagers consistently perform at a higher level than adults – there’s nothing about the work in a fast food kitchen that requires young employees,” (Schlosser, 2001, p.68). Schlosser contended that the fast food industry seeks out teenagers so that they can pay lower wages. A table from the Bureau of Labor Statistics website (2009) shows the percentage distribution of employment in eating and drinking establishments versus all industries.

Table 1

Percentage of Workers Employed by Age of Worker

Age Group	Eating and Drinking Places	All Industries
16-19	21.1	4.3
20-24	22.1	9.6
25-34	22.7	21.5
35-44	15.8	23.9
45-54	11.9	23.6
55-64	4.7	13.4
65 and older	1.8	3.7

The table confirms Schlosser's assertion that a higher percentage of younger people work in fast food restaurants; however, his suggestion that it is due to lower wages being paid is unsubstantiated in the literature.

Environment of fast food restaurants

The work of a fast food employee is physically challenging because workers are on their feet the majority of their shift and under pressure to serve customers quickly (BLS, 2009). Many times the hours are late and long; however, that also provides flexibility of to the employees. The median pay scale in 2008 was \$7.90 per hour, which was only slightly higher than the minimum wage of \$7.25 (BLS 2009).

The fast food industry has implemented the principles of scientific management in the way that food is prepared. Small assembly lines are present in many of the restaurants to encourage faster speed of service for the customers. This process is referred to as improving the throughput of the service line, in other words, getting products to consumers quicker. According to Schlosser (2001), "the ethos of the assembly line remains at its core. The fast food industry's obsession with throughput has altered the way millions of Americans work, turned commercial kitchens into small factories, and changed familiar Foods into commodities that are manufactured" (p. 69)

These small assembly lines that have been developed in the fast food restaurants may also be considered a method to routinize the work. "Employers routinize work both to assure a uniform outcome and to make the organization less dependent on the skills of individual workers" (Leidner, 1993, p. 24). The more routine the work is, the less skilled an employee the company has to hire, thus resulting in less pay required for the employee. This all benefits the company in the end.

Routinizing work places the control on the side of the organization as well. "When management determines exactly how every task is to be done, it loses much of its dependence on the cooperation and good faith of workers and can impose its own rules about pace, output, quality and technique" (Leidner, 1993, p. 3). The more routine the job function, the more control that exists for the company versus the employee. Routinization of jobs makes employees much

more replaceable and the employees less valuable. It also helps the customer experience become more consistent and have better quality (Schlosser, 2001).

The cooking of the food can be routinized because it is predictable and a job that is performed continually the same way. New technology is being developed to make jobs even more consistent and routine. Many fast food companies are involved in redesigning kitchen equipment so that less money is needed to be spent training workers (Schlosser, 2001). At a conference on Foodservice equipment, one engineer stated, "We can develop equipment that only works one way...there are many different ways today that employees can abuse our product, mess up the flow...If the equipment only allows one process, there's very little to train" (Schlosser, 2001, p. 71). This philosophy indicates that the fast food industry is looking for ways to make employees even more easily replaceable than they are today. With equipment that ensures the process is followed and less training is required, employees doing this work today may be more expendable.

Machinery has been developed to move beyond cooking products and into the service encounter. At ABC Foods (pseudonym of restaurant company), there is new technology for the drive-through service transaction to make it more consistent. A product called a "message repeater" has been installed at many ABC Foods restaurants with a drive-through. It is a recorder whereby an employee of the restaurant records a greeting followed by the rules of placing an order as well as offering the advertised special. Every time a car arrives at the menuboard, this greeting starts playing for the customer. It sounds like a live

person, but by being recorded, it allows several things to occur: the greeting is consistently friendly and correct, the customer is able to take his/her time ordering, and the team member actually working the drive-through has a few seconds to get prepared to take the order. The only peculiarity about the process occurs when one person records the message and another one takes the order. For example, if John records the message, then Mary is the actual order taker, it may be awkward for the customer on the other side of the menu board. Conversely, this technology has allowed the greeting to become a routine and allows consistency in the message (ABC Foods).

Routinizing service interactions is more difficult than routinizing food preparation using equipment and procedures. Asking two people to perform exactly alike is not feasible, so typically, an overall process is defined and the employee uses the outline, also infusing their own personality into the process.

At ABC Foods, there is a standardized approach to taking orders of a walk-in customer. First, the team member is to greet the customer with a 2-part greeting (e.g., "Hi, how are you?"). The next step is determining if the order is dine-in or carryout. Then, the order is taken (a series of questions can follow during the transaction such as side orders). The order is to be repeated back to the customer to verify accuracy, then the money exchanged, the order packed, and an appreciative closing is given (e.g., "thank you."). Although this is a routine, there is individuality involved with the type of greeting and closing given to the customer; the team member can personalize their words and attitudes (ABC Foods). According to Leidner (1993), "Some employers routinize service

delivery through rigid scripting, but leave the management of the emotional texture of the interactions to the workers” (p. 27).

The lack of predictability can limit the amount of routinization that can be applied to a fast food service transaction. The working conditions change and that requires flexibility on the part of the worker. There are times where customers do not appreciate the uniformity in a service transaction. “Successful routinization can establish a floor, a minimum standard, of civility and helpfulness in an organization’s service interactions” (Leidner, 1993, p. 29). Routinizing service transactions may make the worker appear mechanical and unfriendly; the phrase “Have a nice day,” now seems insincere at times (Leidner, 1993, p. 29). Another example of a routinized phrase that appears insincere is “thank you for shopping at K-Mart.” Driving routinization too far can have adverse effects. “Human interactions that are mass-produced may strike consumers as dehumanizing if the routinization is obvious or manipulative if it is not” (Leidner, 1993, p. 30).

Leidner (1993) conducted research in McDonald’s by actually working in the restaurant and attending the corporation’s training programs. She described the impact of McDonald’s use of routinization: “ McDonald’s had routinized the work of its crews so thoroughly that decision making had practically been eliminated from the jobs” (p. 72). During her research, Leidner found that workers were not expected to solve problems or think – they called for a manager when there were unusual issues. She noted that even the machinery did the work for the employees; for example, the cash registers automatically ring up the correct

price when an item is entered, the tax is figured, and the change calculated as well. Drink machines automatically fill up a drink to the exact right portion as the customer ordered. These types of activities result in consistency of the customer experience as well as consistency of profitability and control on the part of McDonald's.

Leidner also described the "Six Steps of Window Service" that McDonald's uses for service (1993, p. 73). These steps are designed to allow flexibility in personality, but Leidner found that "although workers had some latitude to go beyond the script, the short, highly schematic routine obviously did not allow much room for genuine self-expression" (1993, p. 73). Leidner maintained that although the work is highly routinized, it is demanding. She provided examples in which the work becomes very stressful and demanding such as when the establishment is full of customers waiting to be served.

Leidner (1993) probed into why fast food workers work so hard even with receiving low wages and having limited concern for the overall success of the business. She found that workers consider their work a team effort and did not want to let down the team – they almost all wanted to do their part for the team. Managers could motivate the team through positive incentives and acknowledging workers' efforts. Leidner (1993) reported that consistent, competent managers were very important to motivating the crew.

While it could be argued that the routinization of the fast food industry has led to more consistent results that are warranted with companies operating thousands of restaurants (such as McDonald's), Marxist theory would claim that

this routinization has adversely affected workers' personalities and self-worth. Braverman (1974) described how technology has been used not to create new skills, but to fragment and deskill jobs. This could be applied to the fast food industry. It could be argued that the jobs are mundane, without thought or creativity, and dehumanizing. It could also be argued that these jobs allow entrée into the job market and have the ability to teach young workers skills and values for future work.

One researcher conducted qualitative research, an ethnography, to probe the preceding concept. Katherine Newman (1999) is an anthropologist at Harvard who conducted a two-year research study in a fast food hamburger restaurant (remained anonymous) in Harlem. Newman found that while the work can be degrading and hard, overall it can be a very good job enabling many young people employment and the opportunity to learn skills and values. She spoke of the employees being the "working poor," but also included their successes and the fact that most of the employees do enjoy their work.

Katherine Newman's experience was recently replicated by Jerry Newman (no relationship), a Professor at the State University of New York at Buffalo (Newman, 2007). Newman also conducted ethnography in fast food restaurants, working in seven different restaurants at hourly positions. He supported the routinization argument while providing the insight that each restaurant's manager determined the climate of the work environment and the overall success of the restaurant operations.

To further consider the nature of the fast food restaurant as “manufacturing,” the annual Economic Report of the President recently suggested that fast food restaurant work may be considered manufacturing (Economic Report of the President, 2004). In a discussion focused on the definition of manufacturing, The Census Bureau defined manufacturing as “work involving employees who are engaged in the mechanical, physical, or chemical transformation of materials, substances, or components into new products” (Economic Report of the President, 2004, p. 78). Critics cite this discussion as part of the presidential campaign and a way to provide contrived positive growth in the manufacturing sector, which has been declining. However, it does demonstrate that discussions regarding the actual work of those in the fast food service sector is being scrutinized and evaluated, realizing it is a manufacturing type of work in many instances.

The philosophies of the past are still relevant today and can be applied to the fast food restaurant industry. Frederick Taylor’s scientific management concept is alive and well in organizations today and Karl Marx’s theories on worker alienation may still be applied.

To test these theories, the questionnaire used in this research will include questions from Hackman & Oldman’s Job Diagnostic Survey (1975). This survey was developed to examine current jobs to determine if and how they could be redesigned to improve employee motivation and productivity. The questions to be used in the survey focus on the constructs of skill variety and task significance as defined by the literature (Hackman & Oldman, 1975). The instrument was

written both to examine jobs prior to redesign and look at the effects of redesigned jobs. The researchers developed a model that defined a “Motivating Potential Score (MPS)” in an equation:

$$\text{(Skill Variety + Task Identity + Task Significance) x (Autonomy) x (Feedback) = MPS (Hackman \& Oldfield, 1975, p. 160).}$$

The two constructs relevant to this study and identified by Hackman & Oldfield (1975) include skill variety and task significance. Skill variety is defined as “the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employee” (p. 160). Task significance is defined as “the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people – whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment,” (p. 160). These constructs also carry over into the theories of motivation that follow.

Theories of motivation

Understanding the fast food industry itself is germane to this study, as is garnering an understanding of what motivates workers overall. This section describes the historical theories in the literature as well as the “intent to stay” variable. Research conducted at ABC Foods (a pseudonym) will be included for further insights.

Historical theories

Motivational theories are subdivided into four major categories: needs theories, equity theory, expectancy theory, and the job design model (Ramlall,

2004). This section briefly describes the major designers of the research and each theory's relevance to the fast food restaurant environment and the hourly employee.

Needs Theories: Maslow's Hierarchy

Motivational theories traditionally begin with Maslow's Need Hierarchy, which includes a hierarchy of needs important to individuals. Though not empirically founded, Maslow's hierarchy has been accepted as a defining work in the field of motivation theory (Ramlall, 2004). Maslow contends that needs begin with the basics and move toward self-actualization. The needs in order are physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. He posits that people are motivated according to their location on the needs hierarchy (Maslow, 1943) and though they ultimately are motivated by the desire to achieve. The needs hierarchy is relevant to the fast food service industry in that many employees may be at different levels at any given moment. For example, in times of extreme stress, a physiological need would be the need to have a break during the workday. Safety could come into effect if a restaurant is at risk of robbery, or the restaurant is located in a high-crime area. Love would equate to friendships in the workplace; esteem and self-actualization could also occur at some level based on various levels of performance.

ABC Foods has adopted the framework of Maslow's hierarchy as a means to define team member (hourly employees) needs (ABC Foods, 2004). The bottom level represents the fundamental needs of basic safety, sufficient employee training, maintaining a clean restaurant, and having enough uniforms.

The next level, performance management, includes knowledge of the rules and expectations by team members, employees receiving feedback on performance, employee recognition for good work, and employees having personal goals. The third level regarding equity includes the manager treating everyone fairly and with respect, equitable rules applied, employee schedules assigned fairly, and raises of team members based on fair performance ratings. The fourth level of teamwork focuses on how well the team members know each other on their shift and other shifts, the evidence that the restaurant team has goals, that everyone feels a sense of belonging to the group, that the team works well together, and that new employees are welcomed into the team. The final level, engagement, proposes that people on the team care about what happens in the restaurant, that the team members are interested in the goals for the restaurant and the company, that the people feel a sense of belonging in their restaurant, and that they demonstrate a sense of empowerment and ownership when interacting with customers. Figure I is the graphic depicting the motivation model for ABC Foods (ABC Foods, 2004).

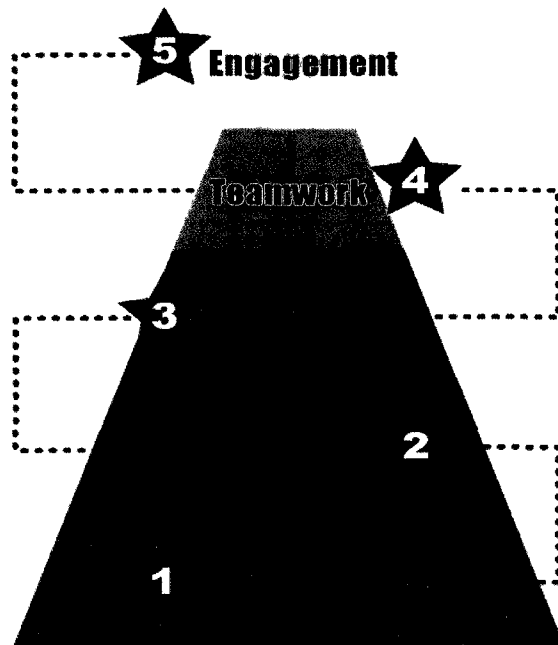


Figure 2. Motivation Model for ABC Foods

Needs Theories: McClelland

The next researcher proposing a motivation theory relevant to the fast food restaurant business is McClelland (1961). He proposed that three human needs are fundamental: achievement, power, and affiliation. Achievement is defined as the drive to excel regarding a set of standards. Power is defined as the need to make others behave or perform in a way that they would not have without the person's intervention. Affiliation is defined as the desire to have close and personal relationships (McClelland, 1961). All three needs could pertain to hourly employees in the fast food restaurants. Each hourly employee does have the ability to achieve at varying degrees within the restaurant and, in fact, the levels of achievement do vary significantly. The desire for affiliation also varies among hourly employees, but it is appropriate to consider this need with hourly employees in a restaurant environment because they are required to work as a

team on a constant basis. Lastly, power could exist through many mechanisms: length of time in position, personality traits, or demographic factors causing a power differential among team members.

Equity Theory

Equity theory focuses on three main assumptions according to Carrell and Dittrich (1978). First, it is assumed that people develop their own perceptions of what is a fair and equitable return to them in exchange for the work they perform. The second component of the theory assumes that people will compare the exchange they receive for the work. The third tenet is that when people believe the treatment or compensation they are receiving is inequitable in terms of what they are providing the organization, they will take measures that they deem appropriate to ensure equity. This is congruent with earlier findings by Adams (1965) that individual expectations about equity are learned during socialization and that early in their development individuals are comparing their own situation with others around them.

The effects of hourly employees comparing their situation with others, perceiving inequity, and taking action to make the situation equitable could be devastating in the fast food industry. For example, if an hourly employee feels he/she is not being paid fairly, he/she could rationalize behaviors including theft, giving products to friends or family, or even reducing his/her productivity. It depends on what the reference group is regarding the perception of inequity; if comparing with other fast food workers, there may not be a perceived inequity.

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was first defined as people's behaviors being the result of choices they have made among alternatives (Vroom, 1964). There are three factors that direct behavior: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (Vroom, 1964). Valence refers to the value that the person places on the outcome, generally referred to as affective orientation or emotional orientation. Instrumentality is linked to a belief that a performance behavior will indeed lead to a particular outcome. The expectancy component of Vroom's theory (1964) measures the strength of an individual's belief that the actual outcome is possible.

Other researchers have expanded upon Vroom's model to draw conclusions regarding the perceived effort-reward probability (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Pinder, 1984, Porter & Lawler, 1968). The findings support the hypothesis that employees will work harder when they believe the outcome of a greater initiative is worthwhile and realistic; in other words, the task itself is a key to employee motivation.

Job Design Model Theory

The early researcher of the job design model theory of employee motivation was Frederick Herzberg (1966) with his study of accountants and engineers. He found that there are factors that enhance motivation (motivators), but other factors that are present, could actually cause dissatisfaction (hygiene factors). In other words, eliminating the cause of employee dissatisfaction would not necessarily be defined as motivating to employees, but simply resulting in a

neutral state (Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg's research was later supported with the finding that motivation can be increased by providing growth in an employee's job, or focusing on job enrichment (Steers & Porter, 1983).

Ramlall (2004) summarized the theories of motivation by identifying critical factors for employees to consider when deciding whether to remain with an employer: needs of the employee, work environment, responsibilities, supervision, fairness and equity, effort, employees' development, and feedback (2004).

Employee intentions

Turnover can be predicted by measuring an employee's intent to remain with an organization. One study finds that turnover for those stating that they intended to remain was 9% versus 30% of those who were less committed (Kraut, 1975).

Buckingham and Coffman (2000) worked with the Gallup organization to perform a research study involving in-depth interviews of over 80,000 managers in over 400 companies. The authors sought to determine what attributes distinguish a high performing company in all industries, including sports and service industries. In studying employee satisfaction, the researchers developed a 12-question survey. Buckingham and Coffman found that positive answers to each of the 12 questions correlated with business outcomes and employee tenure. A few key questions included the following:

1. Do I know what is expected of me at work?
2. In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?
3. Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?

4. Is there someone at work who encourages my development?
5. At work, do my opinions seem to count?
6. Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?
7. Do I have a best friend at work? (p. 28)

These questions can be defined as predictors of employees' intent to stay with an organization.

Intent to leave has been another approach at determining the likelihood of turnover of employees. Martin (1979) stated that previous studies focused on demographics and job satisfaction as predictors of employees' intentions and ignored the other salient factors that he researched. His study examined 250 members of a service business and focused on factors that may cause an employee to leave an organization. He found that the factors most influencing an employee's decision to leave included upward mobility, distributive justice, communication, routinization, opportunity, job satisfaction and the demographic variables of occupation, age, education, and gender (Martin, 1979). Key factors are described as follows.

Upward mobility is the movement between different status levels in an organization, usually reflected by promotion.

Distributive justice is the extent to which conformity to the norms of the organization leads to positive sanctions or actions by the organization.

Communication refers to the effectiveness of information being transmitted to the organizational members in an effective manner.

Routinization is the extent to which a job task is repetitive.

Opportunity refers to the roles available in the organization.

Job satisfaction is the extent to which employees have a positive affective orientation toward the organization and their position. (Martin, 1979, p. 314-316).

Martin researched other factors, which were found to have insignificant impact on an employee's decision to leave an organization. Those factors include pay (money given for services), centralization (participation in decision making), community participation (social life at work), and work commitment (work being a central interest of the individual).

The intent to stay or leave research is not entirely aligned among researchers and their studies. For example, the Gallup study found that having a best friend at work was of the utmost importance whereas Martin found that community participation (similar to having a friend at work in that it is social community) was insignificantly correlated to intent to leave. The studies involve non-homogenous groups of employees (including industry and job position), so that may explain the differences. The turnover research is explored in the next section.

Turnover research

There is a plethora of research conducted regarding turnover in business and industry. The first major study appeared in the middle of the 20th century (Rice, Hill & Trist, 1950) with the finding that employee turnover is a psychological process that can be influenced by a number of factors. The researchers identified three phases of an employee's tenure with an organization: the induction crisis, the period of differential transit, and the period

of settled connection. The first phase, the induction crisis, is the beginning of an employee's time in position. It is characterized with much learning and socialization as well as a high level of turnover (more on this in the socialization of employees section following).

The second phase, differential transit, is where employees begin to build a stable commitment and understanding of the work. The reasons for employees to leave during this phase include internal (pay issues) and external factors (need to relocate for family reasons).

The period of settled connection refers to those employees who have chosen to remain with the organization after knowing, understanding, and appreciating the organizations norms and values. The reason that employees leave in this phase is primarily external such as layoffs.

Rice, et al., provided other details of their theory that turnover is a psychological process. First, they maintained that every employee plays two roles, which includes an entry and an exit role. The entry role is prevalent at the beginning of a person's employment and is focused on learning new behaviors. After a person has been employed for a period of time, the exit role begins to prevail, though that was not fully explained in the study. The last component of the model is the supposition of outside factors influencing turnover such as unemployment rates, type of work contract, and changing social and governmental regulatory factors.

March and Simon continued the research on voluntary turnover several years later (1958). They contended that the ease of leaving one's job plays a

large role in determining turnover. Another factor is the actual desirability of leaving a job.

While many behavioral research studies have produced a consistent correlation between job dissatisfaction and turnover, it has been a weak correlation, accounting for less than 16% of the variance in turnover (Locke, 1976, Porter & Steers, 1973). Predictive studies emerged focusing on the ability to predetermine turnover rates; however, many of the studies were inconclusive as it was found that there were too many organizational and individual variables to determine accurately a model to predict turnover (Dunnette, Arvey, & Banas, 1973; Faris, 1971).

In the late 1970s the focus of research turned from replicating the studies to defining the correlates of turnover for developing conceptual models of the turnover process. The research focus prior to the late 1970s focused on a group of individuals when investigating turnover; the new studies placed the focus of the research on the individual, which makes it possible to establish the relationship between an individual's attitude and his or her later behavior (Kraut, 1975).

Kraut (1975) conducted a study to focus on predicting turnover from individual employees by measuring job attitudes. He conducted a survey among 911 salesmen asking Likert-type questions with the intent to understand and gain knowledge of employee feelings about various subjects such as the work itself, the company, advancement, and pay. The one question with the highest correlation to turnover was focused on intention to remain with the company. The

actual question was, “If you have your own way, will you be working for (this company) 5 years from now?” (Kraut, p. 237). The selections for response ranged from 1 – Certainly to 5 – Certainly not.

Kraut followed up 18 months later to determine the validity of the responses of the employees. Did the employees’ responses to the intent-to-remain question correlate with their actions? Kraut found that turnover for the men who stated that they intended to remain was 9% compared to 30% for those who expressed less commitment. Expressed commitment was found to be the best predictor of actual turnover (Kraut, 1975).

Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) also confirmed that the concept of intention to quit was significantly correlated to actual turnover. The researchers found general support proving that intention to quit directly influenced turnover. Their stated purpose was “to test the proposition that the influence of job satisfaction on turnover is indirect, through thinking or quitting, search and evaluation of alternatives, and intention to quit – and that intention to quit is the immediate precursor or actual attrition” (p. 409).

Bannister and Griffeth (1986) reexamined the Mobley, et al. model and found that support did exist for the model of intention-to-quit being correlated to turnover statistics. Bannister and Griffeth (1986) posited that the research conducted by Mobley, et al. had several weaknesses, one being that the previous researchers used a standardized composite of age and tenure in order to avoid possible multicollinearity issues. Bannister and Griffeth believed that age and tenure may have a significant influence on intention-to-quit, and, therefore on

turnover. The research they conducted using path analysis allowed them to examine the two factors of age and tenure separately. Using path analysis, the researchers confirmed intention to quit as a predictor of turnover, but also found that age and tenure also were precursors to leaving a position.

Porter and Steers (1973) confirmed that tenure was positively correlated to turnover and describe it as being a result of the employee's personal investment in the organization; in other words, they maintained that tenure drives investment meaning the longer that an employee has been with an organization, the more invested they are and that they are less likely to leave. Conversely, the newer employee is a greater risk to an organization because they have not yet vested time with the organization.

The most cited model of voluntary turnover was developed by Price and Mueller (Price & Mueller, 1981). The development of the model was conducted in five stages (Price, 2004), initiated in 1972, with the fifth stage being conducted in 1990. Prior models were dominated by economics, hypothesizing that turnover was directly correlated to monetary incentives. In other words, the more money paid to an employee, the less likely that the employee would leave (Price, 2004). Price was a sociology graduate student at the inception of his modeling and desired to develop a model including sociological factors versus simply economic factors.

Price and Mueller conducted their research with health care professionals, spanning several states. The model has been criticized for the many variables included, half of which were deemed insignificant. Price defended his model

stating that the variables are all important to understand (Price 2004). This dissertation will study two of the variables identified by Price: distributive justice and social support.

Two researchers tested the turnover theories of Price and Mueller, but focused on the hospitality industry and the turnover culture present (Iverson & Deery, 1997). They asserted that the hospitality industry has indeed created and reinforced a turnover culture where turnover is the accepted norm and there is a lack of career growth and development available. The following sections discuss the items used as independent variables.

Organizational Justice

There are other variables which could affect intent to stay with an organization. Organizational justice and organizational socialization were the main variables studied in this dissertation, which were included in the survey used. Organizational justice evolved from the equity theories, so it is an evolution of motivational theories (Greenberg, 1990). Below is an explanation of the types of organizational justice defined in the literature.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of outcomes such as pay selection or promotion decisions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). It is based on the premise that if an outcome is perceived to be fair, it affects a person's emotions and subsequent behaviors. Prior to 1975, the study of justice was primarily focused on distributive justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001). These researchers (Colquitt et al.) described distributive justice as

employees believing that their inducements of pay and rewards are aligned with their work outcomes. In other words, their incentives are enough to justify the work they provide to the organization.

Distributive justice is associated with the equity theories of the earlier motivational theorists that claim that people compare the output (or what is given to them) of their work with the amount of effort exerted by them (Greenberg, 1990). If they believe they are overpaid, there are feelings of guilt; conversely, being underpaid elicits anger. Greenberg focused on distributive justice as being reactive and in stating “that people will respond to unfair relationships by displaying certain negative emotions, which they will be motivated to escape by acting so as to redress the experienced inequity” (Greenberg, 1987, p. 11). While equity theory focused primarily on pay and was reactive in nature, later researchers investigated the processes in terms of equality, thus being perceived as proactive (Greenberg, 1990).

Niehoff and Moorman (1993) investigated the theory of distributive justice and developed a construct of five questions that was proven to accurately predict an employee's intention to leave an organization. That construct was used in this study and included questions rating the level of fairness regarding pay, scheduling, work load, rewards, and job responsibilities.

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice contrasts with distributive justice (the actual fairness of the outcomes) by focusing on the process by which allocations are made (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In other words, the perceived fairness of the

process by which outcomes are achieved is just as important as the actual outcome itself. Thibaut and Walker (1975) were the first to define procedural justice, influenced by their research on legal procedures. They conducted a research study to investigate reactions to different types of dispute resolution solutions. Other researchers used this same theory to measure reactions such as encounters with police officers, politicians, and teachers (Greenberg, 1987).

Research on procedural justice that is germane to the fast food industry was conducted by Greenberg (1986) regarding the performance appraisal process. Managers at the restaurants of ABC Foods conduct performance appraisals a minimum of once a year (ABC Foods). Greenberg found that the relevant issues with the performance appraisal process for managers to consider applying consistency among employees included the following: (a) soliciting input from the employees prior to the performance appraisal being written, (b) ensuring two-way communication is a part of the process during the communication of the performance appraisal, (c) providing an opportunity to challenge the review, and (d) assuring that the manager was familiar with the employee's overall performance (1986).

Leventhal (1980) defined six rules which, when followed, result in procedures that are fair. These also could apply to the performance appraisal process in the quick service restaurant industry. The rules are these.

1. The consistency rule: allocation procedures should be consistent across persons and over time.
2. The bias suppression rule: personal self-interests of decision-makers should be prevented from operating during the allocation process.

3. The accuracy rule: the goodness of the information used in the allocation process.
4. The correctability rule: the existence of opportunities to change an unfair decision.
5. The representativeness rule: the needs, values, and outlooks of all the parties affected by the allocation process should be represented.
6. The ethicality rule: the allocation process must be compatible with fundamental moral and ethical values of the perceiver. (p. 27-55).

It was also reported (Loi et al., 2006) that both procedural and distributive justice were significantly related and predictive of employees' intentions to leave. The researchers conducted a study to examine the variables of procedural and distributive justice and reported a positive predictive capability of both.

Niehoff and Moorman (1994) included this construct in their study and found it to be correlated to employees' intention to leave. They developed five questions for this construct including job decisions being made in an unbiased manner. These questions are outlined in Chapter 3 and were used in this study.

Interactional Justice

Interactional justice refers to the relationship between the supervisor and employee; it relates to the aspects of the communication process (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Interactional justice is one of the most recent types of justice that has stimulated research; it focuses on the quality and value of interpersonal relationships between supervisors and employees (Colquitt et al, 2001). It is also considered an extension of procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

More specifically, there are two types of interactional justice: interpersonal justice and informational justice. Interpersonal justice refers to the degree that people are treated with politeness, respect, and dignity by those of a higher authority. Informational justice is defined as the “explanations provided to people that convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain fashion” (Colquitt et al. 2001, p. 427).

Early researchers of procedural justice discovered the beginnings of interactional justice, but did not describe it as such (Greenberg, 1990). Greenberg reported that one researcher (Bies, 1986) asked MBA students to create the criteria they would use to determine if the procedures used by corporate recruiting were fair (Greenberg, 1990). The researcher repeated the study and found that the following elements of interpersonal treatment were reported: honesty, courtesy, timely feedback, and respect for rights. These could also apply to the fast food industry.

The literature supports the impact of organizational justice on employee turnover, specifically “intent to leave.” (Bibby, 2008, Kwon, 2006). Procedural and interactional justice were two of the key variables in predicting employees’ intentions to leave an organization (Bibby, 2008). Other researchers found that distributive and procedural justice had a significant impact on an employee’s decision to leave an organization (Loi et al, 2006).

Niehoff and Moorman (1993) further tested interactional justice to determine if this theory did have an impact on business outcomes when

directly monitored. The questions created focused on how the employee was treated and were used in this study. The following section describes the other main independent variable, organizational socialization.

Organizational Socialization

Orientation

Organizational socialization has implications for employee turnover. “Organizational socialization is the process of learning the ropes, the process of being indoctrinated and trained, the process of being taught what is important in an organization or some subunit thereof” (Schein, 1988, p. 54). It occurs each time an individual leaves a familiar environment and enters a new organization, whether another part of the company, or another company altogether. The concept of organizational socialization “focuses clearly on the interaction between a stable social system and the new members who enter it. The concept refers to the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group which he is entering,” (Schein, 1988, p. 54).

According to Schein (1988), there are two paths to socialization: the one in which the novice is aware of the norms and values and ready to assimilate, and the path where the values and behavior patterns of the individual are incongruent with the organization. With the fast food service industry, the latter is most likely to be prevalent, given that for many of the new employees it is their first job and first experience with a work environment. With this scenario, there are two factors predicting the success of socialization: the initial motivation of the new entrant

and the degree to which the organization can hold the new member captive during the period of socialization (Schein, 1988).

When either nonconformity or overconformity occurs, failure is the end result in initial socialization (Schein, 1988). There are three predictable responses to socialization efforts: rebellion, creative individualism, and conformity. It is rare, according to Schein (1988) for creative individualism to occur and the norm for the extremes to be the result of socialization efforts, both of which produce suboptimal end results. Maintaining individualism while simultaneously integrating a novice into the culture of the organization is the challenging aspect of socialization.

Schein (1988) offered suggestions for companies on how best to socialize new employees. First, he recommended that the organizations “make a genuine effort to become aware of and understand their own organizational socialization patterns” (p.62) especially at the bottom of the organization. Secondly, companies must come to appreciate the delicate problems between a first-time employee and his/her first boss, including training for all those who manage individuals during their first experience with work or the organization. This has implications for the fast food industry, implying that one intervention to assist in the orientation of new employees is to provide the hiring managers with training on how to best orient the new employee.

Schein (1988) added a retrospective opinion to his original research written in 1968. He concluded that the indoctrination approach is dependent upon the position for which the individual is being hired. For example, if the person is

being hired to create new products and processes, then he/she should not be exposed to a culture that embraces strong conformity. Conversely, if the individual is in a position that requires procedures and processes to be followed with little deviation, then a culture of conformity is most appropriate. The fast food service industry at the individual restaurant level would be represented by the latter, in which a culture of conformity, including building pride and loyalty with the company, is most effective.

Other theorists have researched the concept of socialization of new employees (Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Goldstein, 1989; Lester, 1987, Saks & Ashforth, 1997). One theory, uncertainty reduction theory, refers to newcomers experiencing high levels of uncertainty during the organizational entry process (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Researchers in the hospitality industry (including hotels) tested this theory by using anxiety as the predictor of whether an employee remains with an organization (Kennedy & Berger, 1994). Kennedy and Berger (1994) proposed that reducing anxiety, appealing to the emotional aspect of early socialization, was the most important element of an orientation program. Anxiety reduction is more important than giving new employees a download of company information. Based upon their knowledge from the New York State Employment Service that over one-third of new employees left their positions after 30 days, Kennedy and Berger evaluated the content of six orientation programs of major hotels. They found that only one orientation program appealed to reducing anxiety; all others focused on the business. While Kennedy and Berger (1994) acknowledge that the company information is essential, they

believed the emotional element of reducing anxiety is paramount to the retention of a new employee.

Kennedy and Berger (1994) provided an outline of how an orientation program could be written versus how most are constructed. Most of the orientation programs they analyzed were outlined as follows.

- Welcome;
- This is our company philosophy;
- This is what we expect of you;
- These are our rules, policies, and procedures; and
- This is a great place to work (p. 69).

Kennedy and Berger (1994) suggested the following format to focus on the emotional component:

- Welcome;
- We were expecting you;
- We like you; that's why we hired you;
- We know you're nervous; it's only natural;
- We expect you to ask us a lot of questions;
- We're here to answer those questions ;
- We're going to teach you coping and stress-management techniques;
- We're going to help you build a support network so you can learn how things are done here; and
- We're going to do everything we can to help you be comfortable and successful (p. 69).

Kennedy and Berger believed that including the emotional element, demonstrating care and empathy, will drive retention. They contended that stress for a new employee is at its highest during the first few days; and alleviating that stress will make an employee more productive and more likely to stay with an organization.

Another theory of socialization assumes that it is now accomplished through initial training versus a separate activity focused solely on acclimating

the new employee to their new environment (Goldstein, 1989). This theory has been supported: Training is the main process of socialization for many newcomers to organizations (Saks, 1996). Saks studied the amount of training received as well as how helpful the training was to a sample of entry-level professors. Saks found that both the amount of training and the helpfulness of the training received were significantly correlated to job satisfaction, commitment, and intention to quit (1996).

Relationships at Work

Organizational socialization also refers to the relationships that employees have at work and how those relationships affect the employees. The definition of “learning the ropes” has evolved to a more detailed definition of “a process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member” (Chao et al., 1994). This definition expanded the role of organizational socialization from learning the actual job to understanding the extent to which the individual is socialized within the organization. Chao et al. (1994) conducted research with 594 professionals to determine the effect of socialization. The researchers found that socialization changes were related to changes in career outcomes. The questions focused on relationships on the job as well as learning the requirements of the job. This work added to the HRD field by expanding on the traditional definition of socialization of how newcomers learn to the more expanded role of what socialization means to established employees (Chao et al., 1994, p. 742).

This research has been supported by later research. The variable of a best friend at work was found to be the most important element in an employee's decision to stay with an organization according to Gallup research documented by Buckingham and Coffman (1999). The question, "I have a best friend at work" was the highest correlated variable with the decision to stay with an organization. Hymowitz (2007) cited the Gallup research: "If someone's best friend is leaving, he or she is more likely to leave too" (p. B1).

One business unit of ABC Foods has capitalized on this finding by ensuring friendships begin immediately upon a new employee hire (ABC Foods). Each new hire is assigned to a "family," which is comprised of 8-10 employees who work together to learn and compete against the other families. The families are determined randomly, but the friendships that are created and continue have led to higher results with business measures such as sales, and reduced turnover. The family members ensure that all new hires are properly trained and indoctrinated into the culture of the restaurant (ABC Foods).

Other Variables

The previous two sections defined the two relevant independent variables of organizational justice and organizational socialization. There were other variables correlated to employee turnover cited in the literature, which will be discussed in this section. The following includes other concepts relevant to the fast food environment and that could explain why some people in the fast food environment choose to stay and others choose to leave. Those these concepts

were not fully tested in this research study, there is evidence that suggests they could be relevant, so the concepts are included.

Work Environment

Part of the turnover problem is caused by hiring the wrong individuals (Wishna, 2000). Wishna contended that, initially, happy employees are often turned off by the conditions of the industry – not just the strain and pace, or low wages and lack of benefits, but the employer’s low standards for the overall operation of the restaurant and lack of respect for employees. According to Wishna’s interviews, the basic issues focus on the amount of respect and appreciation received in the industry. He maintained that in addition to pay and benefits, employees said that it’s the day-to-day things that count, from more flexible scheduling to treating workers with respect to recognizing them in every way possible. Wishna’s interviews (2000) further identified the manager as the key to making employees happy with their work; one interviewee responded that “People work for people, they don’t really work for companies” (p.71). Another interviewee, noting the long and erratic hours required in the restaurant industry, stated “Let’s face it, this is not going to be the industry of choice; furthermore, it never will be, unless you make it Monday to Friday, nine to five. What it is, is an industry of opportunity (Wishna, 2000, p. 73).

Fun

One school of thought exists that contends people stay in positions because they are “fun” or leave because they are not. Leibow (2010) reported that people who have fun on the job are more productive and loyal. The

researcher backed that assertion up with facts. It was found that 93% of employees in the Fortune 100 companies say they “experience a friendly workplace (Leibow, 2010, p. 54). She recommended that employers take fun seriously, even considering the implementation of a fun committee.

One company has taken the concept of fun to the highest level. Herb Kelleher, the former CEO of Southwest Airlines placed a high emphasis on fun at work and it has driven higher levels of employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction (Frieberg & Frieberg, 1996). Southwest has a turnover percentage of 4.5 percent, which is the lowest in the industry and their compensation package is the least competitive. So, why do people stay at Southwest Airlines? They stay because the work is fun, they are encouraged to be themselves, and they are appreciated (Frieberg & Frieberg, 1996). Herb Kelleher’s leadership style is what shaped the attitude and organizational culture at Southwest Airlines. As the prior research has noted, the supervisor is key in determining employee retention performance.

Another company focused on fun in the workplace is the Pike Place Fish market in Seattle, Washington. The employees at this very successful market have fun by throwing fish and engaging the customers in familiar, yet unobtrusive bantering (Lundin, Paul, & Christensen, 2000). The premise is that the employees can enjoy their work and “make someone else’s day.” The book detailing this experience has become a best-selling business volume on motivating employees and creating an environment that fosters fun, teamwork, and customer excitement (Lundin, Paul & Christensen, 2000).

Furthermore, fun at work has been correlated with business outcomes. Humorist C.W. Metcalf (1993) found that nine months after he conducted a workshop at Digital Equipment Corporation, 20 middle managers increased their productivity by 15% and reduced their sick days use by half. Another study from Colorado Health Sciences Center in Denver with employees who participated in fun workshops and viewed training tapes demonstrated a 25% decrease in downtime and a 60% increase in job satisfaction (Metcalf, 1993).

Branham (2001) listed “fun” as a retention practice. The author provided examples of how different companies have incorporated the concept of fun in their organizations. She expressed the belief that if a work environment is very stressful, then the concept and action of fun is even more important. “The humor and motivational consultant Barbara Glanz says that the most productive workplaces have at least ten minutes of laughter every hour (Branham, 2001, p. 249).” It has also been found that having fun at work increases creativity, productivity, job satisfaction, and retention of talented individuals (Berg, 1998).

One other benefit of humor at work is that it has been found to be an effective means for socializing new workers (Newstrom, 2002). A sense of humor has been found to help people learn more, learn it faster, and recall it easily (Miller, 1997), all important elements of the assimilation of new employees in the workplace.

Authors have written entire books devoted to best-demonstrated practices for having fun at work. Some of the ideas include initiating a “Frisbee Memo Day” during which memos and messages are delivered throughout the office attached

to Frisbees (Hemsath, Yerkes, 1997). M. Weinstein, "Emperor of Playfair," has a company devoted to assisting other companies with implementing "fun" as a part of their culture (1997). He created principles that he maintains are instrumental if considering development of a culture of fun. Those principles include thinking about the specific people involved, leading by example, and understanding that change takes time (Weinstein, 1997).

Pay and benefits

While many studies contend that money is not the top motivator of employees, money does play an important role in a fast food employee's decision to stay with a company. Also important are benefits. With the influx of part-time workers in the industry, many companies do not provide pay or benefits to this group equal to that of full-time employees. Well over 50% of the workforce is part-time in most fast food companies (Inman & Enz, 1995). Providing pay and benefits commensurate with the actual work versus full-time or part-time status is one intervention that may have a positive effect upon turnover. According to one study, the top three benefits desired by part-time employees include cash bonuses, medical insurance, and sick leave (Inman & Enz, 1995).

A case study of the employment practices at a hotel at Disney World revealed that one method to decrease turnover was to offer benefits that met employees' real needs. For example, management discovered that the employees had an issue finding cost-effective, reliable childcare. As a result, the hotel coordinated a child-care program for a nominal fee (Stolz, 1993). This practice has helped the hotel enjoy one of the lowest turnover rates in the

industry. While the topics discussed in this section have shown relevance in the literature, they will not be included in this study. There are demographic variables that could affect intent to stay and those are discussed in the next section.

Select Demographic Variables

Demographic variables can influence an employee's intent to stay. Therefore, demographic variables were measured in this study including age, gender, ethnicity, time with company, type of position, education level, hours worked weekly (part-time or full-time status), and primary wage earner status.

Age

The literature has shown that age is related to both turnover intentions and actions (Ma et al., 2007, Price, 1977, Price & Mueller, 1981). Price & Mueller (1981) contended that though age is related to turnover in that younger employees to turnover at higher rates than those who are older, the literature does not indicate what causes this finding. The researchers (Price & Mueller, 1981) chose to focus on other antecedents to turnover described in previous research.

There is a body of research on teen employees, which is very relevant to the fast food restaurant industry. Martels and Pennell (2000) studied what motivates teen employees to remain in positions. The sample for their study included 352 teen workers from three high schools, all employed in the retail industry (including restaurants). A survey was administered to determine the factors that most influenced teen workers to stay with a particular organization

versus leaving. The major reasons that teens were dissatisfied included the following: poor management practices, boring work, scheduling problems, lack of fairness, problems with coworkers, and work that was not fun. The number one factor impacting teen worker retention was “being treated with respect,” followed closely by “being treated fairly.”

Overall, the major message was that motivating teen workers and gaining their commitment requires a level of leadership from the supervisors (Martels & Pennell, 2000). While many may surmise that money is the number one reason that teens leave a position and go to another, this study found that money as an influencer of commitment and motivation was less important than simple, human relationship variables such as respect, equity, and flexibility.

Full-time or part-time employment

Another phenomenon regarding employment in the fast food industry worth studying is the percentage of part-time employees versus full-time employees in the industry. The estimated proportion of part-time workers in the United States is 17.5% (Sightler & Adams, 1999). Approximately two-thirds of the food service industry is part time (Inman & Enz, 1995) while the proportion of part-time workers at corporate ABC Foods restaurants hovers at 50% (ABC Foods). Part-time workers present challenges to employers, especially regarding turnover, because a part-time worker may not have the same allegiance to a company that a full-time worker possesses. However, it has been maintained that even though many workers do prefer part-time work opportunities, a growing

number of those working part-time actually would prefer full-time employment (Sightler & Adams, 1999).

Sightler and Adams also stated that some research has indicated that higher turnover rates are found with part-time workers; however, there are demographic and attitudinal dimensions to consider that may have an impact as well. The variables to be considered include age, gender, pay level, length of employment, management status, marital status, race, and number of dependents. The authors contended that workers who are younger, lower paid, unmarried without dependents and with shorter job tenure experience greater turnover. There is also some evidence that race may be a factor (though this would require more research to make a statistical correlation), with one study stating that African American workers are more likely to be part-time, which may, in turn, shorten their job tenure (Sightler & Adams, 1999). Other research reported a relationship with hours worked and intent to leave (Ma et al., 2009). Ma et al found that nurses working fewer hours did have higher turnover rates. This variable was studied in the demographic characteristics of this dissertation.

Due to the nature of the fast food industry, part-time workers are an essential component of the labor pool because they allow fewer shift hours, which accommodates the fluctuating customer demand of the restaurant business. (Inman & Enz, 1995). The researchers concluded that the high turnover rates experienced in the fast food industry are a result of the belief by many managers that part-time workers are not as hardworking and dedicated as full-time employees; therefore, managers do not spend adequate time training

and acclimating them to the restaurant environment. This results in dissatisfaction among the part-time workers, which motivates them to move on to what they perceive as a better opportunity elsewhere (Inman & Enz, 1995).

Other Demographic Variables

There are other demographic variables that have been studied in the literature including ethnicity, education level, gender, and time in location, which is restaurant for this study (Schmidt & Svorny, 1998). Of significance is that women's tenure has increased according to Schmidt & Svorny (1998). The findings regarding demographic factors in general is not consistent and were included in this study to determine the impact with the hourly workers at fast food restaurants. One last element to be discussed in the literature review is the business case for reducing voluntary turnover and that is the actual cost.

Cost of turnover to business and industry

The financial impact of turnover has been considered to be unappreciated by most organizations because some of the costs of turnover are hidden (Corporate Leadership Council, 1998). According to the literature, the elements of turnover include many other factors than simply recruitment and training. Those costs may include lost productivity of the incumbent, lost productivity of other employees (sensing the dissatisfaction of the incumbent), lost productivity of the vacant position when the incumbent leaves, recruitment costs, selection and hiring costs, orientation (learning curve of the new hire), training, and then the lost productivity of other employees during this time of training and orientation.

While the preceding costs may incur direct impact on the bottom-line, there is also the issue of turnover contributing to limiting strategic direction (Corporate Leadership Council, 1998). In other words, if the labor supply is limited, it may directly affect the growth capability of a company in the throes of rapid expansion. The Corporate Leadership Council (1998) suggested that one way to address the increasing employee retention problem is to invest in a new department focused on retention measures. This would include activities such as determining the risks of turnover prevalent in the organization, identifying interventions to prevent turnover, and sharing best practices through the development of a “retention toolkit” or a “best-practices collection point.” There are departments within organizations focused on staffing; however, the presence of a retention department is a unique approach to a costly quandary.

One study reported that while most managers interviewed regarding turnover considered it a costly issue, few had strategies in place to address the turnover because they believed that they could not determine the impact to the bottom line (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000).

Summary of literature review

The review of the existing literature started with the formation of work in the United States. This is relevant because the early theories discovered still exist in the fast food industry today. A thorough review of the fast food industry was also critical to explore to understand fully the work force and the environment.

The research reported that organizational justice and organizational socialization do have an impact on an employee's decision to stay with an organization and have shown a relationship when managerial employees are surveyed. The early work of motivational theorists served as the foundation for the organizational justice construct; therefore, it was cited starting with Maslow, evolving to equity theories, culminating in the justice theories. Demographic characteristics have varying results reported in the literature regarding their relationship with employee intentions to stay and were discussed.

This chapter summarized the literature in the areas to be explored in the research study among fast food employees. All questions to be considered on the questionnaire have been discussed in this chapter.

The research conducted will add to this body of research on why employees stay with a fast food organization, specifically adding to the body of research on justice and socialization theories and how those affect the hourly employee. Very little research exists on the fast food hourly employee yet they are a significant portion of the US labor pool. With the current macroeconomic environment of today (2010 recession), this study gains even more importance in understanding if the theories of justice and socialization differ during a recessionary time period.

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

This study investigated the reasons why an hourly employee makes the decision to stay with a fast food company. This is a new perspective, varying from the numerous studies that research why employees leave a company (Somers, 1986). Research regarding intent to stay has been conducted on managerial employees; however, the literature is thin in terms of hourly employees and there is a need for further research (Hoisch, 2001). This study responded to the need for understanding why hourly employees actually stay with a fast food company. It will provide managers with critical information to retain hourly employees.

The theoretical framework for this study was directed by the research conducted in organizational justice and organizational socialization defined in Chapter 2. The premise was that organizational justice and organizational socialization do have an effect on an hourly employee's decision to stay with an organization.

The research questions were as follows:

1. Which demographic variables significantly predict intent to stay by hourly employees at fast food restaurants?

2. To what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional) predict intent to stay by hourly employees?
3. To what extent does organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?
4. After controlling for the select demographic variables, to what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice and organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Research Advancement

The study of turnover of hourly employees in the fast food industry is important due to the rate at which the industry is growing (NRA, 2007). The impact of these hourly employees on the fast food industry is critical (BLS, 2009) due to the sheer numbers as well as the cost of replacing these workers (Corporate Leadership Council, 1998).

This study was conducted in a fast food restaurant environment, providing the critical elements of what will keep hourly employees working in the same restaurant for more time. This information will advance the research as well as have applicability to those in positions of hiring and maintaining an hourly work force in fast food organizations.

Participants and Setting

The participants in this study were hourly employees who work for ABC Foods, which is a national fast food restaurant company in the US and with an international presence. The restaurants were selected using a stratified random

sampling process to ensure that a shared ownership and geographically dispersed sample would be attained. The restaurants were identified as franchise and company first with 50 restaurants from each group selected. The company restaurants were geographically stratified, then the restaurants within the geographies were selected using a systematic random sampling methodology by using a table of uniform random numbers for the sample for company restaurants (Howell, 1999). Franchise restaurants were chosen by stratifying the franchisees geographically, then allowing the franchisees to choose their restaurants without any guidance from the researcher. Therefore, the stratified random sample was taken at the restaurant level, not the hourly employee level.

Once the restaurants were selected, packets were sent to each restaurant with a questionnaire for every hourly employee. All hourly employees at the chosen restaurants had the opportunity to participate in the survey, with the only requirement being that they were an hourly employee. The researcher had no direct contact with the respondents at anytime during the process.

The sample size required was derived using a standard table developed by Dillman (2009) that provides the number of sample needed taking into account the population size, the proportion of the population expected to choose the response categories, the margin of error, and the confidence level Z-score. At ABC Foods, it is estimated that there are 90,000 employees in the United States. Using the Dillman table, which provides a conservative assumption regarding variance (2009, p. 57), the sample required at the 95 percent

confidence level with a + or – 5 percentage point accuracy is 383 respondents. The average number of employees per restaurant is 18 (ABC Foods); it was estimated that 50% would voluntarily reply to the survey. The survey was sent to 100 restaurants with an estimation that 50 would participate providing 500+ respondents.

The surveys were distributed during late January. An e-mail from the researcher was sent in advance of the surveys explaining the relevance of the survey along with directions on completion (Appendix A). The surveys were mailed following the e-mail; 20 surveys were sent in English and 10 in Spanish. A larger than needed amount of surveys was sent to ensure the restaurants would have enough. A return envelope (UPS) was included for the survey collection. An information sheet with instructions to the manager was also included in the packet mailed to the restaurants (Appendix B).

It was estimated that survey would take no more than 10 minutes. The survey was provided in English and Spanish. (The current outside vendor who translates all of ABC Foods' training materials was used to translate the survey into Spanish, which added validity to the translation.) It was stated that the survey was voluntary and confidentiality was assured. The survey results were linked to restaurant identification numbers only in order to correlate the information to restaurant business information. The individual hourly employees responding were not identified nor was the data analyzed by individual person.

A survey was used for this research for several compelling reasons. First, it is a simpler, more consistent approach to capturing a large volume of data. Survey

data can be analyzed thoroughly using statistical techniques. This methodology has been used for more than 75 years and has the capability to estimate characteristics of large populations by taking a much smaller sample (Dillman, 2009). By including the restaurant identification number on the surveys, there could be the ability to correlate the information with the restaurant's business outcomes such as customer satisfaction scores, sales, and even profits for future research. For this research, it was used to describe the sample used in the study to provide context and ensure representation.

Method and Data Analysis

There were several methods used for this study so that the relationship between and among the independent variables could be fully explored with the one dependent variable. These methodologies included correlation, regression, and multiple regression analysis. All three evaluate the strength of the relationships or predictive qualities of the independent variables upon the dependent variable. The independent variables to be investigated included demographic variables such as age, gender, race, type of position, and part-time or full-time employment. Organizational variables such as the location of the restaurant, and the type of restaurant were also explored. The location of the restaurant refers to where the restaurant physically resides: inner city, urban, rural, super rural, or suburban. Type of restaurant refers to the restaurant being one brand only or having a 2nd brand or a buffet in the restaurant. Other independent variables included tenure of the responding employee, distributive justice, interactional justice, procedural justice, organizational socialization, and

the role of being the primary wage earner. The dependent variable will be the employee's intention to stay with the fast food company.

Correlation analysis provided the strength of the relationship of each independent variable upon the dependent variable; this was tested using the most common correlation coefficient, the Pearson product moment correlations coefficient (Howell, 1999).

Regression analysis took the research one step further in allowing a predictive quality. Increasing or decreasing the effect of each independent variable upon the dependent variable (Howell, 1999) providing insight into which levers will make the most difference in determining an employee's decision to stay with an organization. Multiple regression was used to allow the testing of whether a dependent variable was related to more than one independent variable simultaneously (Howell, 1999). In other words, the combination of independent variables was measured as to their combined impact upon the dependent variable of intent to stay. Hierarchical regression was the final statistical analysis used to determine if the independent variables had a relationship with the dependent, after controlling for the demographic variables.

Independent Variables

The independent variables in this study were demographic characteristics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization. For demographic characteristics, questions included age, gender, ethnicity, type of position, hours worked, tenure of employee, educational level, primary wage earner status,

location of the restaurant, and type of restaurant. The latter two variables were not asked outright, but obtained through the database available at ABC Foods.

The justice and socialization variables were asked through a series of questions that applied the theories versus using the theoretical language. Distributive justice questions included schedule fairness, salary equity, work load fairness, reward, and job responsibilities. Procedural justice questions focused on the performance management process including job decisions made by the general manager. Interactional justice questions explored the respect, honesty, and courtesy received from the supervisors. Informational justice is a relatively new concept and was not included in this study. Organizational socialization questions examined the work environment, relationships with co-workers and whether the respondent knew the duties of his/her job and felt they were proficient.

A 5-point Likert scale was used for all questions (except demographic characteristics). This was utilized to limit confusion to the respondents and allow consistent responses. The scale was anchored according to the questions being asked. For example, if the question was one asking agreement, it was anchored with a "1" meaning strongly disagree to a "5" meaning strongly agree.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was the employee's intention to stay with the fast food company. The questions used were an adaptation from the question used by Kraut (1975) as well as several questions from a similar dissertation but focused on management (Hoisch, 2001). One question asked a respondent to

state his or her intentions of working for the same company five years from now; this was adapted to one year from now due to the nature of the fast food restaurant business where the majority of employees stay less than one year (Zuber, 2001 Van Giezen, 1994). The others ask the same intent though worded differently (Price & Mueller, 1986).

Instrumentation

The survey instrument used in this study included questions adapted from five different studies in the literature. The constructs measured included organization justice including distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, organizational socialization, intent to stay, skill variety, and task significance. The questions regarding organizational justice were taken from the study by Niehoff and Moorman regarding organizational justice in the workplace (1993). The questions regarding organizational socialization were taken from a study of organizational socialization (Chao et al, 1994). Intent to stay questions were taken from Kraut's only question (1975) and Price & Mueller's research (1986). Both skill variety and task significance were adapted from Hackfield and Oldham's study into job characteristics and how they motivate employees (1975). These questions were added to ensure they were not more relevant than the constructs of organizational justice and organizational socialization and are not part of the research questions. A list of the variables and the specific items used to measure each variable are detailed in Appendix C.

A pilot study was conducted, and qualified individuals, not included in the study, reviewed the survey instrument to determine the feasibility of use in the restaurants.

The adapted survey instrument is provided in Appendix D. Appendix E details the full scales from the adapted surveys with the questions used highlighted.

Pilot Study

Prior to the survey being distributed, permission was sought and received from the University of Louisville's Human Studies Protection Program. The plan was to conduct a pilot study in two restaurants reaching a minimum of 30 employees with characteristics similar to those in the full study. The pilot work was executed as the full study with a letter to the restaurant general manager describing the study, ensuring full confidentiality, and assuring the participants that the study is voluntary and anyone can choose not to participate.

The pilot study was conducted to ensure the questionnaire was valid and reliable. In addition to this pilot study, the questionnaire was reviewed by subject matter experts at the organization, including Human Resource personnel and senior level employees in operations. Subject matter experts were utilized to determine if the questionnaire was relevant in this particular restaurant company and the industry as a whole. These experts reviewed the survey to ensure readability and relevance.

The analysis conducted for the pilot study included reliability testing via SPSS statistical programming, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient to determine usability of the constructs. Descriptive statistics were also reviewed.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis to address the four research questions was conducted using regression analysis.

In the first set of analyses, individual employees were the unit of analysis.

1. Which demographic variables significantly predict intent to stay by hourly employees at fast food restaurants?

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed with intent to stay as the dependent variable and demographic variables (e.g., age, gender) as predictor variables.

2. To what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional,) predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed with intent to stay as the dependent variable and the three dimensions of organizational justice as predictor variables.

3. To what extent does organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed with intent to stay as the dependent variable and organizational socialization as the predictor variable.

4. After controlling for the select demographic variables, to what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice and organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed with intent to stay as the dependent variable. Sets of predictor variables were entered into the regression equation in blocks:

(a) first, demographic variables (b) second, three dimensions of organizational justice, and (c) third, organizational socialization.

In the second set of analyses, data were then aggregated at the level of the restaurant. Average values were calculated for each variable (e.g. average age of employees, average organizational socialization score). The same regression analyses as described above for the individual level analysis was repeated. The only difference in variables occurred for the demographic/informational variables. For the restaurant-level analyses two additional variables were used: (a) location of restaurant, and (b) type of restaurant.

Data Collection

The data were collected across the United States within ABC Foods restaurants. A letter from the researcher was included in each survey packet. This letter ensured confidentiality as well as confirmed that this is a voluntary survey being conducted for research only. The IRB informed consent form (including a Spanish translation for the Spanish surveys) was also attached to every individual survey for the respondent to read and keep (Appendix F). The

questionnaires were included with 20 in English and 10 in Spanish. A self-addressed return postage paid envelope was included to send in the responses.

Paper surveys were used to ensure coverage because not all restaurants at ABC Foods have computer access available for all of their hourly employees (ABC Foods). While paper surveys do have higher costs associated, they are still widely used (Dillman, 2009). The researcher selected paper coverage versus a mixed mode to avoid any of the issues that could occur with a mixed methodology of collecting data.

The ideal setting would have been a team meeting; however, any time that the restaurant general manager deemed appropriate was used. The time period to complete the surveys was two weeks. The compressed time period was due to the fact that in the restaurant industry, compressed timelines provide stronger action and results (ABC Foods).

Study Limitations

This study did have limitations by the very nature of the industry and the fact that the survey was conducted in one fast food restaurant chain, though the organization is nationwide with over 5000 locations. It is possible that individuals at other restaurant chains may respond differently.

This study did focus on people's attitudes and those could be biased. There is also the chance that the employees could have responded according to how they believe they should respond versus how they truly believe. This is referred to as social desirability, which is the term used to describe the tendency in respondents to respond to questions in a way that they think will have them

perceived favorably by others because they will be responding according to normal behavior. There is less risk of this in self-administered surveys (Krueter, et al, 2008).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter details the results of the data analyses that were performed to address the research questions outlined in previous chapters. This chapter will first describe the results of the pilot study and adjustments made to the survey instrument prior to full implementation of the research. Following that discussion is a description of the participant sample, both describing the restaurants in the sample as well as the actual respondents using descriptive statistics. Finally, there are separate sections to address each of the four research questions. The four research questions that guided this study were as follows.

1. Which demographic variables significantly predict intent to stay by hourly employees at fast food restaurants?
2. To what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional,) predict intent to stay by hourly employees?
3. To what extent does organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

4. After controlling for the select demographic variables, to what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice and organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Results for both the pilot study and full study results are provided in this chapter. Reliability statistics are provided for the constructs used in the study. Descriptive statistics are included for both the restaurant locations as well as the participant sample. Discussion and implication of the results including alignment or contradiction of the existing literature are presented in Chapter 5.

Pilot Study Results

Upon approval of the research by the IRB of the University of Louisville, the pilot study was conducted. The original survey instrument used in the pilot study was comprised of 30 questions focused on the independent variables of organizational justice, organizational socialization, skill variety, task significance, and intent to stay; there were nine additional questions for demographic purposes including age, gender, time at ABC Foods, ethnicity, position worked, hours worked each week, education level, and whether the respondent was the primary wage earner in his/her household. Three of the questions regarding organizational socialization were asked in the “negative” because that is how they were provided in the literature (Chao et al, 1994):

16. I do not consider any of my co-workers as my friends.
23. My job is not very important to the company’s survival.
24. I have not yet learned “the ropes” of my job.

For the pilot study, the survey (including the IRB informed consent form attached to each one) was distributed to five local ABC Foods restaurants, representative of the national workforce. The instructions given to the manager included asking all team members to take the survey, but ensuring it was known that this was voluntary. The researcher asked three questions of the managers: how long on average did the survey take, were there any questions that could not be understood, and were there any other questions. The completed surveys were placed in an envelope in the office at the restaurant and the researcher picked them up within one week.

Instrument Reliability

A total of 55 respondents completed the survey with respondents representing all five restaurants. (These restaurants were not selected for the general research.) The data were analyzed for reliability using SPSS to determine the Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the constructs of organizational distributive justice, organizational procedural justice, organizational interactional justice, organizational socialization, skill variety, task significance, and intent to stay. Cronbach's alpha is used to measure the internal consistency or reliability of scores with a value of 0.70 or higher needed to ensure the reliability of the instrument to measure the construct (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

There were five questions representing the construct of organizational distributive justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.823. The scale of organizational procedural justice was comprised of 5 questions (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) and yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.866. The five

questions used for organizational interactional justice (Niehoff & Moorman) yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.949. All three of these constructs of organizational justice met the criteria of reliability based upon their Cronbach's alpha scores. The seven questions used for organizational socialization (Chao et al, 1994) provided a valid reliability test with a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.696, which was on the cusp, but deemed worthy of proceeding.

The constructs of skill variety, task significance, and intent to stay did not provide high Cronbach's alpha scores. The two questions for skill variety provided a Cronbach's alpha of 0.500; the two questions for task significance had a Cronbach's alpha of -1.087 (suggests a negative average covariance among the items); the four items for intent to remain had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.504. The decision was made to proceed with the study and use the questions by themselves versus as constructs if needed.

Based on the data, the questions that were written in the negative were changed to the positive because it appeared there was confusion with having questions asked in the reverse. The data suggested this and it was discussed by those taking the survey. Lastly, the one question on survey related to intent to stay, "I plan to stay at ABC Foods until I stop working" was removed due to the young ages of those taking the survey. It was determined by the researcher that this question could provide biased results due to the age of the respondents in the sample and the type of work that is done by the respondents. Another contributing factor was that when this item is removed, Cronbach's alpha increased to 0.515. The survey was revised and is included as Appendix D.

One last step included the researcher discussing the survey itself with the managers who distributed the survey. The three questions were asked: length of the survey, any questions not understood, and any other questions. The survey time was between 7 and 10 minutes, which was what researcher had estimated. Pilot study participants did not have concerns regarding the method of the survey or items on the instrument. All five managers replied that the survey was simple for the employees to complete.

Content Validity

To determine content validity, a panel of subject matter experts at ABC Foods was asked to review the survey for any questions that could be misconstrued or were irrelevant. Five senior associates reviewed the document with no issues cited.

Participants and Data Collection

The survey was sent to 100 restaurants at ABC Foods with enough surveys in both English and Spanish to more than cover the number of hourly team members at each location. There are approximately 18 hourly team members at each location (ABC Foods) and 30 surveys, 20 in English and 10 in Spanish, were sent to each restaurant. A total of 76 restaurants returned their packets representing 935 respondents. This is a response rate of 76 percent at the restaurant level or if examined at an estimated individual level, 52 percent of the approximately 1800 total hourly team members available completed the survey. The sample size exceeded the necessary minimum sample of 383

respondents. Though not every question was answered, each question exceeded 700 responses.

All participants received the informed consent form describing the research approved by the University of Louisville Institutional Review Board (IRB) for human subjects review, informing them of the voluntary nature of this survey. Those who wished to participate had the choice to take the survey in English or Spanish. The surveys were administered in the restaurant and then placed in the return envelope without review. A one-week turnaround time was provided to ensure the surveys would be completed. It is common in the restaurant industry to have tight timelines to ensure an initiative is completed (ABC Foods). The return envelopes were coded with a restaurant code for analysis. Follow-up e-mails were sent to those restaurants not meeting the timelines, which did appear to help with the return rate. The envelope was sent back to the researcher for entry into SPSS and subsequent analysis.

Summary of Reliability Coefficients for Each Scale

Internal reliability coefficients (using Cronbach's α coefficient) were calculated for the constructs of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, organizational socialization, skill variety, task significance, and intent to stay. Table 2 provides the actual coefficients for each construct. The constructs of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, and organizational socialization were reliable according to Cronbach's α coefficient because all four exceeded the minimum alpha of .70. However, the remaining

constructs of skill variety, task significance, and intent to remain were unreliable constructs and could not be used in the data analysis.

Skill variety and task significance were included in the questionnaire to ensure they were not items with more predictive utility than the constructs of organizational justice and organizational socialization. Because skill variety and task significance were not part of the original research questions and they had low reliability, the four questions were not used in any of the final data analysis.

The questions for intent to stay were sub-divided for analysis: the one question asking “If you have your way, will you be working for ABC Foods one year from now” was used separately because it has been established in the literature to accurately predict turnover (Kraut, 1975). Kraut (1975) contended that this question could be used to determine the factors affecting intent to stay with his statement, “Considering that an employee’s expressed intent to remain is an effective predictor of his later turnover, this commitment itself can be studied to shed light on what job attitudes influence an employee’s intent to remain” (p. 239-240).

The other two questions first used in the intent to stay construct (Price & Mueller, 1986), seemed to be asking questions not associated with intent to stay but rather with judgments on the condition of the overall economy, especially the question “It would be easy now to find a job that is better than the one I have now.” The question, “I have considered quitting ABC Foods without having another job” also could be interpreted as a measure of intent to stay or as an estimate of the economy. Given the uncertainty of reliability of these two

questions, the one question that has been shown to predict turnover and can be used to determine what factors drive turnover was the question used by Kraut (1975), “If you have your way, will you be working for ABC Foods one year from now?” For that reason, the intent to remain construct was measured by the single question by Kraut.

Table 2

Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Final Study Data (N = 935)

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Distributive Justice	5	.82
Procedural Justice	5	.87
Interactional Justice	5	.91
Organizational Socialization	7	.82
Skill Variety	2	.37
Task Significance	2	.49
Intent to Stay	3	.59

Descriptive Statistics for Restaurant Locations

Of the 935 participants, 52% were from company-owned locations and 48% were from franchised locations. Seventy-six restaurants participated with 37 being franchised and 29 company-owned. Seventy-seven percent of

respondents were from a single brand restaurant while 23% were from restaurants where there was more than one brand within the same restaurant or had a buffet. Regarding geographic location, the majority of respondents represented restaurants that were located in suburban/upscale areas. Restaurants were identified as to location according to internal demographic studies identified by ABC Foods. Table 3 provides the details for restaurant location.

Table 3

Location of Restaurants

Type	<i>n</i>	Valid %
Inner City	224	24.0
Suburban/Upscale	427	45.7
Urban	125	13.4
Super Rural	105	11.2
Rural	54	5.8
Total	935	100.0

Descriptive Statistics for Respondents

Nine demographic questions were asked to understand the sample as well as to determine if these factors were statistically predictive of the dependent variable of intent to stay. One demographic question that was not asked outright but captured was whether the respondent chose to take the survey in Spanish or English. There were 151 surveys received in Spanish and 784 in English, so 84% were taken in English and 16% in Spanish. The researcher chose to include both an English version and a Spanish version given the high level of Hispanic population existing in the hourly employee labor pool (ABC Foods).

Table 4 details the description of the sample by gender. Females comprised 55 percent of the sample with 45 percent being male, which is exactly what the ratio of males and females in fast food is nationwide (NRA, 2007).

Table 4

Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	<i>n</i>	Valid %
Female	484	54.9
Male	398	45.1
Missing	53	

Table 5 provides the characteristics of the sample by age. The respondents were asked their age in years. The distribution was determined using the BLS distribution of age for eating and drinking places (BLS, 2009). The mean age was 26 years of age with the median 22 years and the mode 18 years. This is aligned with the literature stating that a fast food restaurant position is the first job of many people in America and workers' ages are lower than many occupations (NRA, 2007). The respondents in this sample were relatively young, with 64 percent age 24 and younger. Table 5 provides the characteristics of the sample by age.

Table 5

Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age Group	<i>n</i>	Valid %
16-19	274	31.2
20-24	287	32.7
25-34	163	18.6
35-44	73	8.3
45-54	54	6.2
55-64	22	2.5
65 and older	5	0.6
Missing	57	

Table 6 provides the characteristics of the sample by ethnicity. Hispanics and African Americans represented the greatest number of respondents with 37 percent and 31 percent respectively.

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Ethnicity

Ethnicity	<i>n</i>	Valid %
Hispanic	340	37.1
African American	282	30.8
Caucasian	168	18.3
Other	78	8.5
Asian	48	5.2
Missing	19	

Table 7 lists the amount of time the respondents have worked at their particular restaurant. Due to the nature of the work, the distribution of time with the company starts with 4 weeks or less and goes to more than 25 years. Among the seven categories, those who stated they have been in their restaurant 1 to 5 years were the highest represented.

Table 7

Distribution of Respondents by Time with Company

Time with Company	<i>n</i>	Valid %
4 weeks or less	28	3.1
1 to 6 months	131	14.5
6 months to 1 year	185	20.5
1 to 5 years	385	42.6
5 to 15 years	151	16.7
15 to 25 years	21	2.3
More than 25 years	3	0.3
Missing	31	

Table 8 presents the distribution of the respondents by type of position worked. There are established positions in the restaurant and those were asked of the respondents. Among the eight categories available, cashier was the highest represented position (40%) followed by cook (23%).

Table 8

Distribution of Respondents by Position Worked

Position Worked	<i>n</i>	Valid %
Cashier	363	40.1
Order Packer	170	18.8
Prep Person	51	5.6
Hostess	10	1.1
Cook	211	23.3
Shift Leader	78	8.6
Sandwich Maker	7	0.8
Cleaning Leader	15	1.7
Missing	30	

The respondents were asked the number of hours they worked each week. Table 9 provides the characteristics of this variable. The highest represented distribution was 20 – 29 hours demonstrating that the part-time employee is most prevalent not only in the fast food industry, but in this sample of respondents. More surprising is that one of the lowest distributions of hours were those working 40 or more hours, which could be considered full-time by most jobs in America.

Table 9

Distribution of Respondents by Number of Hours Worked

Hours worked	<i>n</i>	Valid %
1 – 9 hours	31	3.6
10 – 19 hours	168	19.6
20 – 29 hours	311	36.3
30 – 39 hours	288	33.6
40 or more hours	58	6.8
Missing	79	

Level of education was asked with choices provided to the respondents. Table 10 presents the information regarding the characteristics of the respondents in regards to educational level. The distribution that was the most represented was having a high school diploma or GED (58%).

Table 10

Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education

Level of education	<i>n</i>	Valid %
No high school	216	24.1
High school diploma or GED	521	58.1
Technical Certificate	37	4.1
Associates Degree	56	6.3
Bachelor's Degree	13	1.5
Master's Degree	3	0.3
Other Education	50	5.6
Missing	39	

One last demographic question was asked to determine if the respondent was the primary wage earner in the household. Fifty-three percent were not leaving 47 percent of hourly wage earners being the primary wage earner in their

household. Primary wage earner was defined by the respondents, which would be based on their own perceptions.

Data Analyses at the Individual Level

Two sets of analyses were completed on each of the four research questions: one set at the individual level and a second set at the aggregate level of the restaurant. The latter provided analysis by the actual restaurant location whereas the former provided analysis of each question based on individual response. The first set of data to be provided is the individual data. Appendix G provides the means and standard deviations of all questions on the survey at the individual level.

Research Question One

The first research question examined the degree of the relationship of the demographic composition of the respondents to the dependent variable of intent to stay. The demographic variables of age, gender, time employed at the restaurant, educational background, and whether the employee was the primary wage earner were explored. Due to the large number of respondents who were part-time, that variable was not examined. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted using the variable of intent to stay as the dependent variable and the five demographic questions described above as the independent variables. The outcome produced a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay and the collective five demographic independent variables. Adhering to Cohen's (1988) effect size evaluation criterion, correlational

coefficients $< \pm .28$ are small effects; medium effects range from $\pm .28 - .49$; and large effects are greater than $\pm .49$.

The R^2 reported a significant positive .058 ($p < .01$) relationship between the five predictor variables and the dependent variable of intent to remain, meaning 5.8% of the variability could be explained by the demographic variables analyzed. Further analysis indicated that two of the predictor variables, age ($p < .01$) and primary wage earner ($p < .05$), were the two significantly predictive of intent to stay. These results suggest a small (8, 1998) and positive effect.

Table 11 provides the summary of the regression equation for intent to stay predicted by the five demographic variables. The data revealed that the older the team member was, the more likely he or she intended to stay with the restaurant. If a team member was the primary wage earner, he or she was also more likely to stay with the company. The variables of gender, time with company, and education had no significant predictive relationship to intent to stay.

Table 11

Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Five Demographic Variables

Variable	B	SE	β	t
(Constant)	3.441	.171		20.103
Age	.022	.005	.208	4.769*
Gender	.068	.083	.030	.818
Time with Company	-.066	.042	-.066	-1.580
Education Level	-.027	.049	-.021	-.552
Primary Wage Earner	.222	.089	.098	2.480**

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .05$

Though the relationship is significant, with 5.8 percent of the variability explained by the demographic factors of age and primary wage earner, it leaves 94.2% of

the variability unexplained. The data did demonstrate that the older a team member is and if he or she is a primary wage earner, they are more likely to stay with this organization.

Research Question Two

The second research question examined the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay and the independent variable of organizational justice, which was comprised of three types of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted using the variable of intent to stay as the dependent variable and the three organizational justice constructs as the independent variables. The outcome produced a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay with the organizational justice constructs. The R^2 reported a significant positive .156 ($p < .01$) relationship between the three organizational justice predictor variables and the dependent variable of intent to remain, meaning 15.6% of the variability could be explained by the organizational justice variables analyzed. This is considered to be a small effect (Cohen, 1988). Further analysis indicated that two of the predictor variables, distributive justice and interactional justice, were the only two significantly predictive of intent to stay.

The descriptive statistics for each type of organizational justice are displayed in Table 12. The lowest scoring type of justice in this sample was distributive justice though intent to stay demonstrated the most variability within the data.

Table 12

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Justice

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intent to Stay	3.822	1.137
Distributive Justice	3.657	0.804
Procedural Justice	3.759	0.828
Interactional Justice	4.033	0.820

N = 842

Collectively, the three types of justice had an R^2 of .156, which was significant ($p < .01$). Of the three types of justice, distributive and interactional were the two found to be significant ($p < .01$). Procedural justice was not found to have a significant relationship with intent to stay within this study.

Table 13 provides the summary of the regression equation for intent to stay predicted by the construct of organizational justice with the three predictor variables reported. The data revealed that distributive and interactional justice are important to a team member's decision to stay. The greater the score on distributive justice and interactional justice, the higher the rating on intent to stay occurred. Procedural justice had no significant relationship to intent to stay.

Table 13

Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Three Organizational Justice Variables

Variable	B	SE	β	t
Constant	1.471	.194		7.570
Distributive Justice	.327	0.63	.231	5.166*
Procedural Justice	.008	.075	.006	.105
Interactional Justice	.280	.070	.202	3.980*

* $p < .01$

Research Question Three

The third research question examined the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay and the independent variable of organizational socialization, which was a construct comprised of seven questions. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted using the

variable of intent to stay as the dependent variable and the organizational socialization construct as the independent variable. The outcome produced a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay with the organizational socialization construct. The R^2 reported a significant positive .041 ($p < .01$) relationship between the organizational socialization predictor variable and the dependent variable of intent to remain, meaning 4.1% of the variability could be explained by organizational socialization. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect. The descriptive statistics for organizational socialization are displayed in Table 14. Compared to the organizational justice variables, the organizational socialization variable had a relatively high average score on the 5-point Likert scale with less variability.

Table 14

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Socialization

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intent to Stay	3.822	1.137
Organizational Socialization	4.030	0.602

N = 841

Table 15 provides the summary of the regression equation for intent to stay predicted by the construct of organizational socialization showing that this variable was significant ($p < .01$).

Table 15

Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Organizational Socialization Variable

Variable	B	SE	β	t
Constant	2.257	.260		8.676
Organizational Socialization	.388	.064	.206	6.083*

* $p < .01$

Research Question Four

This question controlled for the select demographic variables to determine the relationship of organizational justice and organizational socialization to the dependent variable of intent to stay. For this analysis, hierarchical regression was conducted. The dependent variable was the intent to stay question. In the first step of the equation, five demographic predictor variables were entered into the regression equation: age, gender, time with company, educational level, and primary wage earner. In the second step of the equation, the constructs of organizational justice were entered. The purpose was to determine if organizational justice was a predictor of intent to stay after the demographic

variables were controlled. The third step was entering the organizational socialization data to determine if it had a significant relationship with intent to stay after the other two variables were controlled.

Tables 16 and 17 provide the results of the regression analysis. The demographic variables entered in step 1 had a significant relationship with the dependent variable, $F(5, 691) = 8.49, p < .01$ with an R^2 of .058, which is a small effect (Cohen, 1988). The organizational justice variables entered in step 2 had a significant predictive relationship with the dependent variable, $F(3, 688) = 50.41, p < .01$ increasing the R^2 to .228, which is considered a small effect (Cohen, 1988). In contrast to the analysis reported for Research Question 3, the organizational socialization variables entered in step 3 did not have a significant relationship with the dependent variable and did not affect the R^2 . The predictors in the final model accounted for 22.8% of the variability in the dependent question of intent to stay.

Table 16

Incremental Variance in Intent to Stay for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice Variables, and Organizational Socialization Variables

Step of Equation	Variables Entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
1	Demographic	.241	.058	.051
2	Organizational Justice	.477	.228	.219
3	Organizational Socialization	.477	.228	.218

Table 17 shows all variables that were entered in the final step. The significant predictors in order of importance were distributive justice ($\beta = .297$), interactional justice ($\beta = .201$), age ($\beta = .189$) and primary wage earner ($\beta = .113$). The higher the rating on distributive justice and interactional justice, the higher the age and having the status of being primary wage earner were all associated with a higher rating for intent to stay.

Table 17

Regression Coefficients for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice Variables, and Organizational Socialization Predicting Intent to Stay: All Cases (n = 697)

Variable	B	SE	β	t
Constant	.907	.315		2.883
Age	.020	.004	.189	4.738*
Gender	.098	.076	.044	1.288
Time with Company	-.046	.038	-.046	-1.203
Education Level	.003	.044	.002	.066
Primary Wage Earner	.256	.082	.113	3.140**
Distributive Justice	.425	.068	.297	6.275*
Procedural Justice	-.051	.083	-.036	-.617
Interactional Justice	.284	.077	.201	3.699*
Organizational Socialization	-.025	.073	-.013	-.337

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .05$

Data Analysis at the Location Level

The second set of data analysis occurred at the location level. The data were aggregated by restaurant location. Each variable was averaged within one location and the averages of each variable were entered into the statistical

process. Though 76 restaurants responded to this study, the researcher used 65 for this analysis. Only restaurants with more than seven surveys were included to assure representativeness of data of each restaurant. Table 18 provides the descriptive statistics of the variables aggregated. All variables are included: intent to stay, demographic, organizational justice, and organizational socialization.

Two additional variables, location of the restaurant and brand were added at the aggregate level. Location refers to the demographics in the area where the restaurant is located. This is included in the information for each restaurant within ABC Foods (ABC Foods). Within the sample used, this produced a dichotomous variable with suburban restaurants representing 45 percent of the restaurants and the rest grouped together. Brand refers to whether the restaurant has only one restaurant brand within the building or more than one. This produced a dichotomous variable where 75 percent of the restaurants were a single brand and 25% were more than one brand within the asset. The overall statistics are similar to those on the individual level.

Table 18Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Aggregated Data: All Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intent to Stay	3.81	0.51
Age	25.86	4.70
Gender (1=f, 0=M)	0.55	0.16
Time with Company	3.62	0.44
Education Level	1.96	0.34
Primary Wage Earner (1=Y, 0=N)	0.47	0.34
Distributive Justice	3.64	0.41
Procedural Justice	3.74	0.41
Interactional Justice	4.03	0.39
Organizational Socialization	4.02	0.24
Location (1 = Suburb)	.045	0.50
Brand (1 = single brand)	.75	0.43

N = 65

Research Question One

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted on the aggregated data set for the first research question, which was examining the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay with the independent demographic predictor variables of age, gender, time with company,

education level, whether the employee was the primary wage earner, location, and brand. The combination of the seven demographic predictor variables was not statistically significant with an R^2 value of .181. Table 19 provides the regression statistics for the demographic variables. No individual predictor was statistically significant.

Table 19

Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Five Demographic Variables at the Aggregated Location Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t
(Constant)	2.983	.611		4.885
Age	.022	.017	.200	1.306
Gender	-.020	-.386	-.006	-.053
Time with Company	.115	.152	.100	.754
Education Level	-.192	.182	-.129	-1.053
Primary Wage Earner	.517	.325	.224	1.593
Location (1=Suburb)	.025	.132	.025	.192
Brand (1 = single brand)	.136	.150	.117	.911

Research Question Two

The second research question examined the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay and the independent variable of

organizational justice, which was comprised of three types of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted using the variable of intent to stay as the dependent variable and the three organizational justice constructs as the independent variables with the aggregated variables. The outcome produced a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay with the organizational justice constructs. The R^2 reported a significant positive .291 ($p < .01$) relationship between the three organizational justice predictor variables and the dependent variable of intent to remain, meaning 29.1% of the variability in intent to stay at the location level could be explained by the organizational justice variables analyzed. According to Cohen (1988), this is a medium positive effect. Further analysis indicated that only one of the aggregated predictor variables, distributive justice was significantly predictive of intent to stay. Procedural and interactional justice did not have a significant relationship with intent to stay at the aggregated location level.

Table 20 provides the summary of the regression equation for intent to stay predicted by the construct of organizational justice with the three predictor variables reported. The data revealed that a restaurant's average distributive justice score was important in predicting the restaurant's average score on decision to stay. Procedural and interactional justice had no significant relationship at the aggregated location level to intent to stay.

Table 20

Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Three Organizational Justice Variables at the Aggregated Location Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t
Constant	1.236	.570		2.171
Distributive Justice	.538	.211	.442	2.552**
Procedural Justice	.036	.316	.029	.114
Interactional Justice	.119	.327	.092	.363

** $p < .05$

Research Question Three

The third research question examined the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay and the independent variable of organizational socialization, which was a construct comprised of seven questions. A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted using the

variable of intent to stay as the dependent variable and the organizational socialization construct as the independent variable, all at the aggregated data level. The outcome produced a multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) that represented the degree of the relationship between the dependent variable of intent to stay with the organizational socialization construct at the location level. The R^2 reported a significant positive .111 ($p < .01$) relationship between the organizational socialization predictor variable and the dependent variable of intent to remain, meaning 11.1% of the variability could be explained by the organizational socialization construct analyzed at the location level. This is considered to be a small effect (Cohen, 1988).

Table 21 provides the summary of the regression equation for intent to stay predicted by the construct of organizational socialization. The data revealed that a restaurant's average organizational socialization score was significantly predictive of the restaurant's average of its hourly employee's decision to stay.

Table 21

Summary of Regression Statistics for Intent to Stay Predicted by the Organizational Socialization Variable at the Aggregate Location Level

Variable	B	SE	β	t
Constant	1.050	.989		1.062
Organizational Socialization	.687	.245	.333	2.799*

* $p < .01$

Research Question Four

This question controlled for the select demographic variables to determine the relationship of organizational justice and organizational socialization to the dependent variable of intent to stay; this analysis was with aggregated variables at the location level. For this analysis, hierarchical regression was conducted. The dependent variable was the intent to stay question. In the first step of the equation, seven demographic predictor variables were entered into the regression equation: age, gender, time with company, educational level, primary wage earner, location of the restaurant, and brand. In the second step of the equation, the constructs of organizational justice were entered. The purpose was to determine if organizational justice was a predictor of intent to stay after the demographic variables were controlled. The third step was entering the organizational socialization data to determine if it had a significant relationship with intent to stay after the other two variables were controlled.

Tables 22 and 23 provide the results of the regression analysis. The demographic variables entered in step 1 did not have a significant relationship with the dependent variable, $F(5, 57) = .80, p > .05$ with an R^2 of .181. The organizational justice variables entered in step 2 had a significant predictive relationship with the dependent variable, $F(3, 54) = 50.41, p < .01$ increasing the R^2 to .469, which is on the high end of what is considered to be a medium effect (Cohen, 1988). The organizational socialization variables entered in step 3 did not have a significant relationship with the dependent variable and increased the R^2 statistic to .472. The predictors in the final model accounted for approximately

47 percent of the between restaurant variability in the dependent question of intent to stay. The single statistically significant predictor variable was distributive justice ($\beta = .480$).

Table 22

Incremental Variance in Restaurant Average of Intent to Stay for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice Variables, and Organizational Socialization Variables

Step of Equation	Variables Entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
1	Demographic	.425	.181	.080
2	Organizational Justice	.685	.469	.371
3	Organizational Socialization	.687	.472	.363

Table 23

Regression Coefficients for Demographic Variables, Organizational Justice, and Organizational Socialization Predicting Intent to Stay: Aggregated of all Cases (n = 65)

Variable	B	SE	β	t
Constant	-.229	1.100		-.208
Age	.025	.014	.235	1.745
Gender	.350	.364	.109	.960
Time with Company	-.012	.142	-.010	-.083
Education Level	-.115	.156	-.077	-.737
Primary Wage Earner	.478	.292	.2077	1.640
Location (1 = Suburb)	-.149	.120	-.147	-1.240
Brand (1 = single brand)	.103	.128	.089	.802
Distributive Justice	.585	.222	.480	2.633**
Procedural Justice	.019	.330	.015	.057
Interactional Justice	.090	.369	.070	.243
Organizational Socialization	.165	.283	.080	.581

** $p < .05$

Other Analysis

With all the data analyzed at the individual level and the aggregated location level indicating that distributive justice and organizational justice were the common predictors of intent to stay, the researcher conducted further analysis on the individual questions for both construct. The corrected item-total correlation statistic showed how well each question within the evaluated construct correlated with a scale computed from the remainder of items. Distributive justice revealed that the question regarding work load had the highest correlation in the scale. The following questions are ranked from most correlated to least correlated (all over .3) according to the corrected item-total correlation statistic:

1. I consider my work load to be quite fair.
2. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.
3. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.
4. I think that my level of pay is fair.
5. My work schedule is fair.

Regarding organizational socialization, the analysis for corrected item-total correlation were aligned with the Buckingham and Coffman (1999) findings that having a friend at work was the most important element. The top three questions all focused on friendships at work. The following questions are ranked most correlated to least correlated (though all over .3):

1. I believe most of my co-workers like me.
2. I am pretty popular within this organization

3. Within my work group, I am considered “one of the gang.”
4. I have learned “the ropes” of my job.
5. I do consider my co-workers as my friends.
6. I understand what all the duties of my job entail.
7. I have mastered the required tasks of my job.

Interactional justice was significantly related at the individual level. Taking this analysis one step further into looking at the interactional justice corrected item-total correlations, it was found that the manager treating the employee with respect and kindness had the highest impact. Below are the questions prioritized by the corrected item-total correlation:

1. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with respect and dignity.
2. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with kindness and consideration.
3. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager deals with me in a truthful manner.
4. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager is sensitive to my personal needs.
5. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager offers explanations that make sense to me.

This analysis provides thought-provoking information for the organization studied. Chapter 5 provides more discussion regarding this information regarding the implications to HRD professionals.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the statistical tests conducted to answer the research questions. These results were reported in terms of reliability coefficients, descriptive statistics, and regression statistics. Data were reported at both the individual level with a sample size of 935 and the aggregated data at the restaurant location with a sample size of 65.

Initially, three questions were used to determine intent to stay. However, the reliability statistic of Cronbach's α coefficient did not allow this construct to be used as a reliable measure. Therefore, the researcher used the question already established in the literature to accurately predict an individual's intention to leave (Kraut, 1975). The other two questions were not used due to the lack of reliability.

The original study also proposed five independent variable constructs: demographic variables, organizational justice, organizational socialization, skill variety, and task significance. The constructs of organizational justice, including the three sub-constructs of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, as well as organizational socialization all had reliability α coefficients $> .70$, so could be used. The constructs of skill variety and task significance were not reliable, so they were not used; these two constructs were not included in the original research questions. They were included to see if they did have an impact. Since they were not reliable, they were excluded from this analysis.

Though it was found in the literature that all three types of organizational justice as well as organizational socialization had a predictive relationship with turnover intentions, this study did not support that finding. The one constant in all the analysis was that distributive justice was significantly related to intent to stay. Organizational socialization on its own was predictive, but when included in the hierarchical regression analysis, was found to be insignificantly predictive of intent to stay.

More of the data can be explained at the aggregated location level versus the individual level. Demographics and organizational justice explain 22.8% of the variability of intent to stay at the individual level; the percentage increased to 47.2 % at the aggregated location level. More discussion on this analysis occurs in Chapter 5. Table 24 provides an overall summary of the data analysis.

Table 24

General Summary of Analysis Results: Significant Predictors of Intent to Stay

Individual Level Analysis	Restaurant Level Analysis
Distributive Justice	Distributive Justice
Interactional Justice	Organizational Socialization
Organizational Socialization	
Age	
Primary Wage Earner	

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study, a discussion of the results, implications, and recommendations both from the study as well as for future research. Limitations of the study complete the chapter.

This study was guided by the quest to understand the predictors of why hourly employees in a fast food restaurant plan to stay in their job. The study focused on the relationship of the independent variables of demographic characteristics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization with the dependent variable of intent to stay. The relationships of each independent variable upon the dependent variable of intent to stay were examined at both the individual level and the restaurant level.

Chapter 5 is designed to provide interpretation of the findings and discuss recommendations and implications for future research. The interpretations include the results of the data as well as the researcher's experience in the fast food industry. There are implications specifically for HRD professionals in the fast food industry. This chapter summarizes the statement of the problem, methodology, the results including the implications, recommendations, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Statement of the Problem

The fast food industry is the second largest employer in the US, just behind the federal government, and employs 12.8 million people (Nation's Restaurant News, 2007). The industry is comprised of over 10 million hourly employees and is often the first job of many workers (Zuber, 2001). The turnover rate is over 100 percent, which is a costly issue for fast food restaurant companies (Corporate Leadership Council, 1998). Many studies have focused on the reasons that employees leave, but very few have focused on the reasons employees stay with their company (Somers, 1996). As suggested in the literature, this study took a positive approach of employees' intention to stay (Flowers & Hughes, 1973). Furthermore, it fills a gap in the literature by providing information on hourly employees versus managers (Hoisch, 2001).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the possible factors related to an hourly employees' intention to stay with the fast food restaurant where they are currently employed. The factors explored included the theories of organizational justice, organizational socialization, task significance, and skill variety, along with several demographic variables.

The four research questions explored were as follows:

1. Which demographic variables significantly predict intent to stay by hourly employees at fast food restaurants?
2. To what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional,) predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

3. To what extent does organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?
4. After controlling for the select demographic variables, to what extent do the three dimensions of organizational justice and organizational socialization predict intent to stay by hourly employees?

Review of the Methodology

The study focused on a national fast food company asking hourly team members at the company to complete a survey answering questions related to the variables. A paper survey was sent to 100 restaurants at ABC Foods across the United States. The survey was translated to Spanish and copies of both English and Spanish surveys sent to each restaurant. Included were instructions for the manager to distribute and collect the survey, with a return envelope.

The survey instrument was developed using questions found in the literature. The questions were pilot tested and the constructs of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and organizational socialization were all found to be reliable based on Cronbach's α coefficient (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Two other constructs, skill variety and task significance, were tested and included in the final survey, but did not meet the reliability hurdle for either; therefore, this data was not used in the final analysis. The dependent variable used was the one question found in the literature by Kraut (1975) to be reliable on its own; the two additional questions included (Price & Mueller, 1986) did not meet the requirement of .70 Cronbach's α requirement, so they were not used either. Demographic questions were included to understand the sample as well

as understand the relationship between the demographic variables and the intent to stay variable.

Each of the four research questions was explored at the individual level and the aggregated summary restaurant level. This was done using a paper survey that was distributed to 100 restaurants across the US.

Summary of the Results

Of the 100 restaurants receiving the surveys, 76 restaurants returned the completed surveys at the due date generating 935 completed surveys by individual employees.

The results suggested that the demographic variables of age and primary wage earner status are statistically related at the individual level only. The older a person is and if he or she is the primary wage earner, the higher their intent to stay response. This was not true of the aggregated summary restaurant demographic variables.

There were two independent variables that were significantly related to intent to stay at both the individual level and the aggregated summary restaurant level and those were distributive justice and organizational socialization. The more fairly employees believe they are treated with respect to distributive justice, the higher their response on intent to stay. The higher the response on organizational socialization, the respondents indicated a higher level of intent to stay.

The hierarchical regression analysis, which controlled for the demographic variables, showed an insignificant relationship for organizational socialization.

The hierarchical regression analysis demonstrated that age and primary wage earner status were significant at the individual respondent level only. For individual responses, the only other variable showing a significant predictive relationship was organizational justice, with distributive and interactional justice being relevant, mirroring the organization justice variables' performance in the multiple regression analysis. However, at the aggregated summary level, organizational justice (distributive justice) was shown to be significantly related to the dependent variable of intent to stay.

Discussion of the Results

This section discusses the results of each of the research questions, both at the individual and aggregated summary restaurant level. Connections to the existing literature, whether conflicting or in alignment, are discussed as well as what the results mean to the fast food industry. Lastly, implications of the results for the organization are provided with each question.

Research Question 1: Findings and Implications

The first research question explored the relationship of the demographic variables of age, gender, time in position, primary wage earner status, and educational level with intent to stay. Examining the data at the individual level of response, age and primary wage earner status were significantly related to intent to stay, and could explain 5.8 percent of the variability in the response to intent to stay. This can be interpreted as the older an individual hourly employee is and if he or she is the primary wage earner, the higher their intent to stay.

At the aggregated restaurant level, these five variables were examined along with the two additional variables of location of the restaurant as well as if the restaurant were a single brand or had multiple brands residing in the asset. None of the demographic variables was significantly related to the dependent variable of intent to stay at the aggregated restaurant level.

The relationship of age to intent to stay is similar to that found in previous studies, where the older a person is, the more likely he or she is to stay at their job (Mobley, et al., 1978, Bannister & Griffeth, 1986). Tenure in position has been established in the literature to be a predictor of turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973, Mobley, et al., 1978, Bannister & Griffeth, 1986) whereas this variable was unrelated to turnover intentions in this particular study (variable labeled *time with company*). The studies cited focused on managerial employees as this study used hourly employees for the respondents, which may be the reason for the conflict. Fast food hourly employees do not have long tenure on average (BLS, 2006). In this study, 81% of the respondents had worked at their restaurant five years or less, and in fact, 39% of respondents were in their position one year or less. This phenomenon in the actual respondent sample could explain the conflicting findings found in this study versus those found in previous literature.

Though the literature reported that 79% of fast food workers live in a family with two wage earners (National Restaurant Association, 2007), 47% of the respondents in this study reported themselves as the primary wage earner. This does not preclude a second wage earner in the family, so it could be consistent with the literature; this particular deviation of the question of wage

earner was not included in the survey. The variable of primary wage earner was not expressly found in the literature reviewed as a predictor of intention to stay or not stay with a company; however, this study found it to be true at the individual level.

There are implications to human resource development (HRD) practitioners with these findings. Regarding age, if older employees are more likely to stay with an organization and that organization has a goal to reduce turnover, adopting a hiring strategy focused on the older worker may boost retention. For example, HRD professionals could target senior living communities with brochures describing the opportunities at fast food restaurants. Given this research is focused on the hourly employee, there are consequences to elements affected by age such as health costs, which are typically higher for older people due to the increased frequency of illness that accompanies age. Those in talent management could define a strategy to be more inclusive of the older employee at the very least including ensuring older employees are included in the recruiting process. There are other issues to consider with the fast food environment including the physical nature of the work, which may not appeal to older people. The majority (66%) of fast food hourly employees are under the age of 35 (BLS, 2009) and in this study, 81% were under the age of 35. These data show that much opportunity to include older workers is present. Finding ways to make the fast food restaurant jobs more appealing, such as showcasing the flexibility of fast food restaurant jobs, to older workers is important too.

Given that 81% of the respondents in this study were under the age of 35, the strategy of focusing on older workers may not have as much leverage as the other findings in this study. The reality is that older workers do not gravitate to these types of positions. However, those in hiring positions should take a strong interest when older workers apply for positions, given their tendency to stay with organizations versus leave. While this finding regarding the relationship between age and intent to stay is interesting, it is not practical for HRD professionals to focus too much time on it given the low percentage of hourly employees over the age of 35. Retaining those under 35 would provide a greater return simply due to the number of people in that category versus the older employee.

Knowing that those who are primary wage earners are more likely to stay, HRD practitioners could consider efforts that would appeal to primary wage earners. For example, providing low cost health care could be relevant for those serving as the primary wage earner in their family. Flexible working hours could also be critical for this group, since many may have children or may work a second job.

Another benefit that could entice a primary wage earner to work at ABC Foods may be tuition reimbursement for college; with 82% of the sample in this study with a high school diploma or less, this could be an opportunity as an added benefit. Given the lower pay of fast food restaurant jobs, tuition reimbursement may be an incentive that attracts this group.

This demographic finding that intent to stay is higher among primary wage earners_ is important to those in the fast food industry and HRD positions. Given

that 47% of the respondents were the primary wage earner, taking efforts with this variable would have a large impact on the organization.

Research Question 2: Findings and Implications

The second research question examined the relationship between organizational justice and intent to stay. Three categories of organizational justice were evaluated separately: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Distributive justice focuses on whether items such as pay, rewards, amount of work, and scheduling are fair in the work environment (Colquitt et al., 2001). Another way of defining distributive justice is that people compare the output of what they receive with the amount of effort they exert (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice is a construct that involves the process by which allocations are made (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), which includes items such as performance appraisal processes and the consistency of job decisions are made by managers about employees. Interactional justice refers to the interaction or relationship between the supervisor and the employee with respect being the key focus (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

At the individual and the aggregated restaurant level, distributive justice was significantly related to intent to stay, explaining 15.6% of the variability at the individual level and 29.1% of the variability at the aggregated restaurant level. Procedural justice was not found to be significantly related to intent to stay with this study at either the individual level or the restaurant level. Interactional justice was found to be significant related to intent to stay only at the individual level, not the aggregated summary restaurant level. These findings conflict with the

literature where a relationship has been established with intent to leave and all three types of organizational justice (Bibby, 2006, Kwon, 2008, Loi et al 2006).

In this particular analysis, distributive justice was found to have a significant relationship at both the individual and aggregated restaurant level. Price and Mueller (1981) used distributive justice in their model of employee intent to stay and found it to be related, as did this research; the researchers did not include in their model the other two forms of organizational justice.

Further analysis into the five questions that comprised the construct of distributive justice provided interesting insight for this particular fast food restaurant company. The question that was shown to have the most importance as identified through the corrected item-total correlation statistic analysis was “I consider my work load to be quite fair.” The other questions most related to intent to stay, in order of most-related to least-related, pertained to fair rewards, fair job responsibilities, fair pay, and fair scheduling. Though the question with fair pay had the lowest mean score of any of the variables (3.2), it was not the variable with the highest correlation, which contradicts the thinking of most people in the industry. This finding is critical, meaning that for this particular restaurant company, the more fair these hourly employees believed their work load to be, the higher their intent to stay. This is of practical use in HRD since there are many thoughts that pay is a top motivator (Inman & Enz, 1995); however this research study showed that it was not the most important element in the construct distributive justice. Furthermore, in ABC Foods’ internal study prioritizing the needs of its employees through a Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

process, the concept of work load was not included (ABC Foods). This is an opportunity for ABC Foods and other fast food restaurants to consider, given it was shown to have a significant relationship with an employee's intent to stay.

The concept of work load not being fair may be a function of the current economic environment with unemployment rates almost 9% (BLS, 2011). Many companies are cutting back on labor and this may cause additional work for current employees, causing the issue with work load to be a key factor in this study. Fast food restaurant work is typically hard work, meaning physically demanding and complex with so many menu offering items, so the added pressure of fewer employees to complete the work would exacerbate an already unpleasant fact. The concern with hard work could also be a function of the complexity of working at a fast food restaurant and all that is expected. Being overworked is a common complaint among employees in this industry, but rarely addressed. HRD professionals could assist the operations leaders by assisting in the understanding of this issue and determine ways to lessen the load. Work load is a concept needing much more research and understanding. It would be relevant to understand the origin of the concern with work load – is it a result of being short-staffed or is the work itself too complex? Another issue to consider is the type of break policy or meal policy – does it meet the expectations of the hourly employees?

Interactional justice was related to intent to stay only at the individual level. Questions relating to interactional justice focused on how the general manager of the restaurant actually treated the individual when making decisions about their

job, including being sensitive, truthful, respectful, kind, and offering explanations for the decision (Chao et al., 1994). Since this is a very individual type of response (in that it is very personal), it is logical that this would appear at the individual level versus the aggregated summary restaurant level.

Further insight into interactional justice included evaluation of the corrected item-total correlation, which showed that the most important two questions focused on the general manager treating the employee with respect and kindness. Respect and kindness are words that could have different meanings for different people. While it is intuitive that treating employees with respect and kindness would be important, this study showed that it is related to intent to stay and therefore, this should be shared with leaders across the organization. There is a common theme at ABC Foods, "People work for people, not for companies." This finding, that perceived respect and kindness shown by the manager were most related to individual employees' intent to stay, supported that common theme.

Implications for HRD professionals as well as all supervisors include a need to focus on creating an environment where respect and kindness are paramount. This research has shown that creating an environment of respect and kindness were the most important aspects of interactional justice, which predicted an employee's intention to stay. HRD professionals could issue a culture survey (or 360-type survey) to determine the kindness and respect of the general manager. This issue would be very specific to the general manager, so should be evaluated by restaurant location.

Research Question 3: Findings and Implications

The third research question explored whether the independent variable of organizational socialization was related to intent to stay. Organizational socialization refers to several different experiences. First, it refers to an employee joining an organization and the process whereby they are taught their new job responsibilities (Schein, 1988). The other element of organizational socialization focuses on the actual friendships in the work environment (Buckingham & Coffman, 2000).

The concept of organizational socialization was found to be related to intent to stay at the individual level and the organizational level, with this variable explaining 4.1 percent of the variability at the individual level and 11.1 percent at the aggregated restaurant level. This is aligned with the Gallup research quoted by Buckingham and Coffman (2000), which stated that the most highly correlated question tied to all business outcomes was the response to the statement, "I have a best friend at work." However, it conflicts with the research by Martin (1979) that found that community participation was not significantly related to intent to leave. The Gallup question was not asked outright in this study; however, similar questions from a study by Chao et al. (1994) were used to determine organizational socialization. One similar question asked was "I do consider my co-workers as my friends."

This study showed that the higher a person rates organizational socialization, the more likely he or she is to stay with their organization. The corrected item-total correlation was also reviewed to determine the most

important question in the construct. The first three of the seven questions with the highest degree of correlation all focused on the socialization factor, such as having friends or being popular, at work. This finding does align with the research by Gallup (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999).

The implications from this research are critical to the HR function. The questions focused on training within organizational socialization had very high means with the highest rated item on the entire survey being “I understand what all the duties of my job entail” that had a mean of 4.36 on a five-point scale. “I have learned the ropes of my job” was the question with the second highest mean of 4.30. This showed that the employees responding to this survey agreed the most strongly with these two questions. This could be interpreted that organizational socialization at this particular fast food restaurant company is positively correlated to intent to stay. However, the hourly employees feel that they know their job or in other words, have been trained. Having friends at work is what is relevant here; if hourly employees feel that they have friends at work, they are more likely to stay. Creating an environment of friends would prove to be an element of increasing intent to stay.

One way to create an environment of friends is to create smaller “family teams” within a store. As mentioned in Chapter 2, this organization has one business unit that has fostered the “family” environment by putting together 8-10 employees to work together as these types of smaller family teams. This particular business unit has proven to have lower turnover than the other

business units as well as higher profitability (ABC Foods), suggesting that the family team structuring idea may be a possible proven success formula.

Another element to consider at ABC Foods is that the majority of operators in the field believe lack of, or ineffective, training is the reason they are having issues with their teams. This study suggested that focusing on training would not be the intervention for intent to stay; focusing on friends in the workplace and creating a feeling of community may provide more value for the effort exerted. This is suggested since the data showed that the idea of friends at work has a stronger relationship with intent to stay than the factors of training such as “knowing the ropes.”

Research Question 4: Findings and implications

Research question 4 explored the relationship between organizational justice and organizational socialization once the demographic variables were controlled. This was conducted using hierarchical regression analysis, entering the demographic variables first, both at the individual response level and aggregated restaurant level. The variable of organizational justice was then entered in step two with the organizational socialization variable entered in step three.

At the individual response level, the first step did yield a significant relationship with age and the status of primary wage earner being positively predictive with intent to stay, which was consistent with the multiple regression findings in research question 1. Step two was the inclusion of organizational justice and it was significant also, increasing the R^2 to .228; this too was

consistent with the multiple regression analysis conducted in research question 2. However, contrary to the multiple regression analysis for research question 3 that showed a significant relationship between intent to stay with organizational socialization, adding this variable of organizational socialization at step three of the hierarchical regression analysis was not significant, and the R^2 remained at .228. The predictors in this final regression model including demographics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization explained 22.8% of the variability in the dependent variable of intent to stay.

At the aggregated summary restaurant level, the first step of demographic variables did not provide a significant R^2 relating to the variables' ability to predict intent to stay, which was consistent with the findings in research question 1. When the organizational justice variables were entered in step 2, the data did provide a significant relationship to intent to stay, increasing the R^2 to .469, consistent with the analysis for research question 2. The third step did increase the R^2 to .472, but was not significant, which did conflict with the findings in research question 3. The aggregated summary restaurant level data did explain more of the variability in the intent to stay variable than the individual responses; 47.2 percent of the variance in intent to stay can be explained by the independent variables when investigated at the aggregate restaurant level.

Even though organizational socialization was shown to be significantly related in the multiple regression analysis, the hierarchical regression analysis showed that when controlling for the demographic variables, it was not significantly related. The R^2 result did slightly increase with the addition of

organizational socialization to the regression analysis in both the individual responses and the aggregated summary, but it was not significant.

In summary, the variables predicted to have a relationship with the dependent variable of intent to stay did not all demonstrate a significant relationship. Using the model suggested in Chapter 1, adapted from Price and Mueller (1981, p. 547), Figure 3 presents the results from the multiple regression analysis from the first three research questions at the individual response level. The model has been altered to accurately portray that all three constructs were analyzed separately with the first three research questions.

Age was found in the literature to be positively related to turnover intentions and behaviors (Ma et al., 2007, Price, 1977, Price & Mueller, 1981) so it is logical that age would be related in this study. Since the majority of respondents were young, (81% under 35 years of age) this finding that age was positively correlated with intent to stay may be difficult for HRD professionals to focus on, since clearly the older work force may not be employed at fast food restaurants.

However, organizational justice relationships are very relevant for HRD professionals focused on creating interventions to retain employees. The effect size was small (Cohen, 1988), but significant. It is clear that employees care about receiving what they perceive as fair pay, scheduling, work load, job responsibilities, and rewards (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) for the effort they give to their work. These five elements of the distributive justice construct are all under the control of HRD professionals (McLean & McLean, 2001).

The organizational socialization relationship, though a small effect size (Cohen, 1988), was significant. HRD is focused on organizational socialization elements including onboarding and training (Schein, 1998), and relationship and culture building (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Though this study did find that team members scored the questions regarding knowing their jobs very high, the friendships at work perspective of organizational socialization was shown to be important with this sample of respondents. According to Buckingham and Coffman's work (1999), the element of friendships at work is an important factor for employees and correlated with employee tenure.

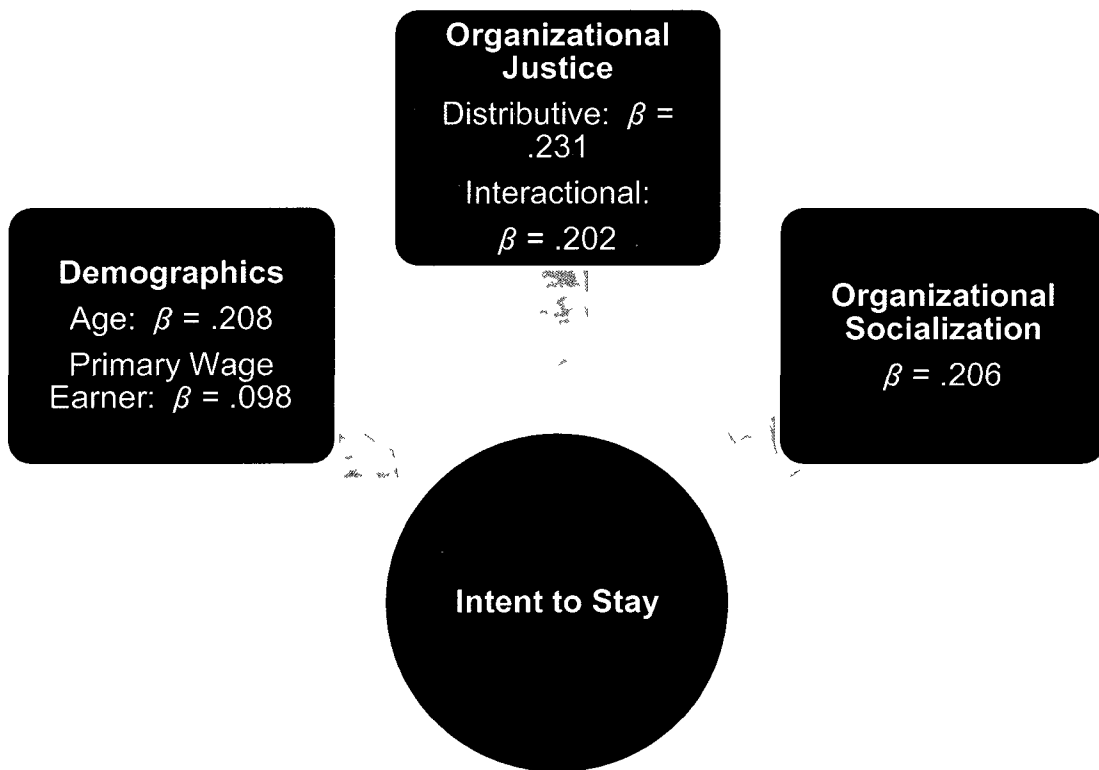
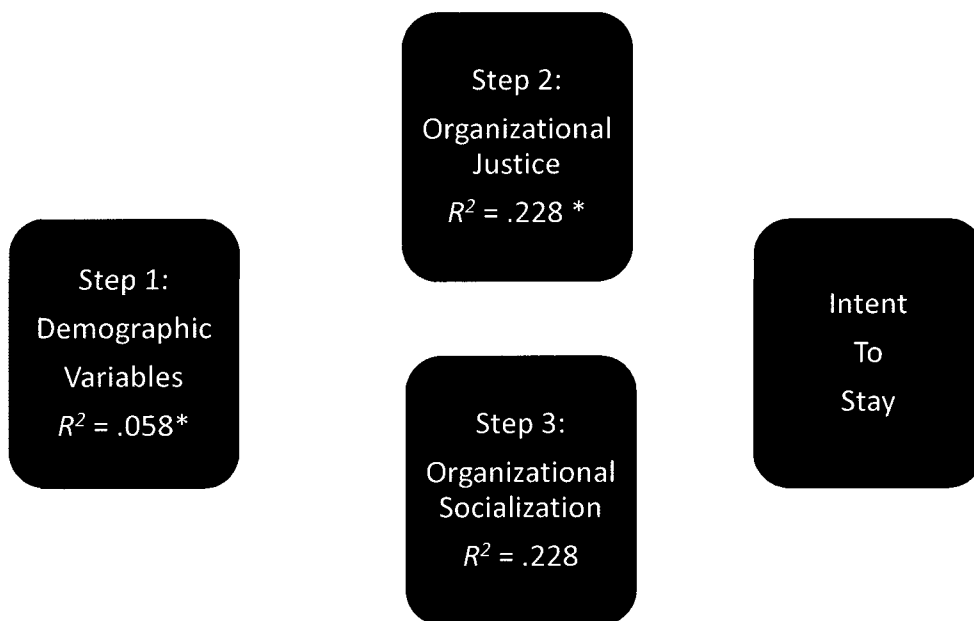


Figure 3. Results of multiple regression analyses on the three sets of independent variables – demographic characteristics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization - at the individual response level.

Figure 4 summarizes the results of the individual level of analyses for the hierarchical regression model. This is the original model from Chapter 1. The organizational socialization variable was not significantly related as it was when entered in step 3. The demographic variables and organizational justice were significantly related to intent to stay. These explained 22.8% of the variance in the data analyzed at the individual response level as shown in Figure 4.

The hierarchical regression model did show that the demographic factors of age and primary wage earner status remained significant. It also showed that organizational justice was important. Given this, the implications stated above for HRD practitioners are even more relevant for organizational justice and should be the highest priority when this fast food organization decides how to act upon the findings in this study.



*statistically significant, $p < .05$.

Figure 4. Results of hierarchical regression analysis at the individual results level.

Figures 5 and 6 provide the analysis for the aggregated summary level of data. Figure 5 shows the results of the multiple regression analysis and Figure 6 shows the hierarchical regression analysis. Figure 5 depicts that there was no relationship with demographic variables; however, there was a relationship with distributive justice and organizational socialization.

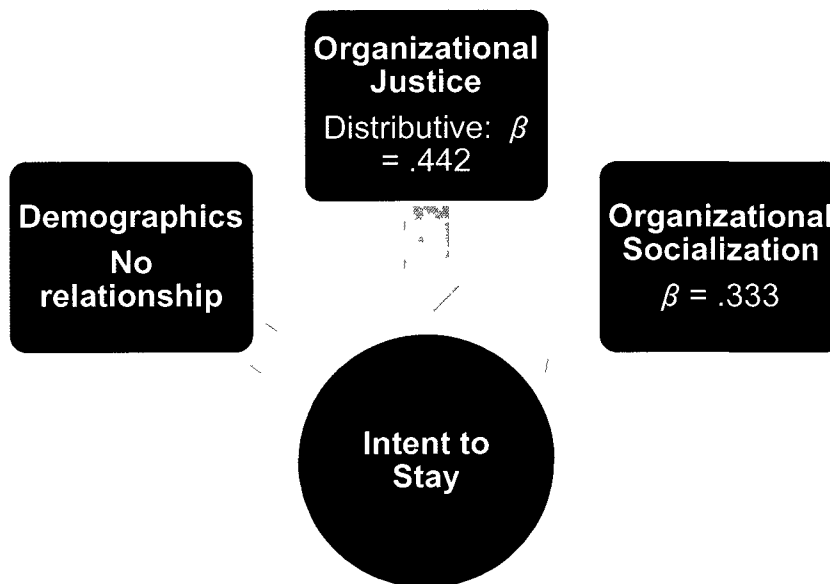


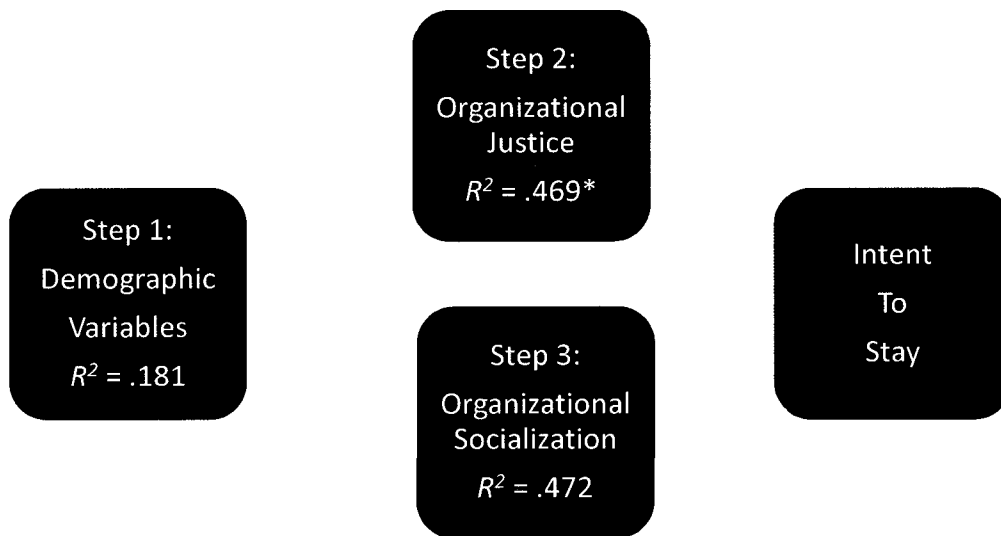
Figure 5. Results of multiple regression analyses on the three sets of independent variables of demographic characteristics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization at the aggregated summary level.

Figure 6 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analysis conducted for research question 4. Organizational justice and organizational socialization were significantly related to the predictor variable of intent to stay.

Evaluating the data through the hierarchical regression analysis does demonstrate that the one common construct that predicts intent to stay is

organizational justice. This suggests that this is the construct with the highest priority regarding recommendations and actions.

Evaluating the data at the restaurant level would be relevant if the organization wanted to create interventions at the restaurant location level versus the individual level. With this data set, it is believed that the individual unit of study is most relevant since individuals make the decision to leave individually.



*statistically significant, $p < .05$.

Figure 6. Results of hierarchical regression analysis at the aggregated summary results level.

Implications to Theory

The definition of HRD (McLean & McLean, 2001) includes variables pertaining to employee retention and the workplace environment. This study used variables from two theories in the workplace environment: organizational justice and organizational socialization. Workplace environment variables were used to predict the intention to stay at a fast food restaurant by hourly team

members. This is relevant to both HRD professionals as well as other stakeholders safeguarding the profitability of a company because of the impact of employee turnover on productivity and costs (Corporate Executive Board, 1998).

The results indicated that there is a relationship between organizational justice and organizational socialization with an employee's intention to stay. The study supports the literature that both are predictive of retention. This study also suggested that organizational justice and socialization are related to intention to stay among hourly employees in a fast food environment.

The theory regarding employee retention has focused on actual turnover or intention to quit in the majority of the literature. This study provided research on the opposite question of intention to stay, which has been found to be a more positive approach (Somers, 1996). This study also provided insight into the hourly employee, which was suggested as a need in the literature (Hoisch, 2001).

This study confirmed that the constructs of organizational justice and organizational socialization are related to an employee's intent to stay. This study confirmed the findings in Price and Mueller's model of employee turnover (1981). Though they included many other variables, the variable of distributive justice was included in this study. Price and Mueller's (1981) work was conducted with nurses, whereas this study focused on the hourly employee. The results indicated that being treated fairly in terms of work load, rewards, job responsibilities, pay, and scheduling are important to an hourly team member.

This study examined data at two levels: the person and the restaurant. Which analysis is “truer?” Both have value in illuminating the data. The person-level data certainly have meaning, because the intent to stay and its predictors are related to decisions and characteristics of employees. If generalizations about persons are important, the individual-level analyses can be used. Restaurant-level data are based on averages of employee data in each restaurant. These are appropriate for restaurant level generalizations. For example, this study showed the following: restaurants with relatively high average score on organizational socialization had high average scores on intent to stay.

In conclusion, the findings in this study demonstrated a positive relationship between distributive justice and organizational socialization with intention to stay among hourly team members. Findings from this study add to the literature by focusing on this hourly team member workforce group. The key findings that perceived fairness of the work load, and having a social community at work, are important predictors of intent to stay for fast food restaurants workers are the most important and new findings in this study.

Recommendations

Recommendation one

HRD professionals at this particular fast food restaurant company should consider the work load of the hourly employee by evaluating all the duties of the hourly employees and comparing the duties to the job descriptions for each

position. They should also consider the labor model to determine if it is accurate in terms of having enough people to fulfill the duties of the restaurant operating.

Another way to look at work load is to determine if there are ways to make the job easier for the employees. Depending upon this evaluation of work, there are strategies that could assist. For example, if the issue is complexity, either reducing the complexity of the menu, reducing the complexity of the steps involved in preparing the food, or reducing the complexity in the order taking process would be important steps to address this issue. Another intervention to address work load issues would be to cross-train all employees so that they assist each other where possible. This organization should take a closer look at work load issues as possible factors that would improve intentions to stay. Understanding and addressing this variable could have huge results in the future.

Recommendation two

The demographic factors identified as related to intent to stay were age and being the primary wage earner. There are strategies that could attract and retain older workers and those who are primary wage earners. With work load being cited as critical, that would be relevant with the older worker. Addressing work load should attract older candidates. As stated earlier, given that 81% of the respondents were 35 and younger, this approach may not get the most return for the effort.

Regarding primary wage earners, offering benefits such as health insurance, child care, or educational reimbursement are likely to be important to primary wage earners. Showing that the restaurant industry can be a career may

also be enticing to those who are the primary wage earners. At ABC Foods, there are examples of those starting in the hourly employee ranks that have risen to the most senior levels of the organization (ABC Foods). By showcasing the possibilities of growth, those who are primary wage earners may be attracted to this restaurant company. The HRD professionals at ABC Foods should investigate this status and find ways to retain and attract primary wage earners.

Recommendation three

The “family” program developed at one of ABC Foods business units (outside the US) should be considered for adoption in other business units in the US. This is an organizational development strategy whereby hourly employees are placed in “family units” of between 8-10 people. Once in this family unit, members help each other excel with goals, assist with training, and work together as a smaller team, which forces friendships and camaraderie to develop (ABC Foods). This study showed that organizational socialization is potentially important because it correlates with intention to stay. The family unit strategy is already in place outside of the US and would be worth implementing in the US at least on an experimental basis.

This concept has been shared in the US, but due to the belief that different cultures react differently, this approach has not been tried. This study has shown that the feeling of friends at work is related to intent to stay. ABC Foods should test this concept to understand the viability in the US.

One other way to approach friends at work is to offer a lucrative referral program for hourly employees. If an employee refers a friend who is hired, some

type of reward could be given. This would be worth testing if ABC Foods sees the benefit of retaining its hourly employees.

Recommendation 4

One of the other factors related to distributive justice was the element of rewards. This is separate from pay and was asked with a separate question; it proved more important to the respondents than pay. Rewards at ABC Foods represent recognition for the effort given. Evaluating the current reward structure at the hourly employee level would be a recommendation for ABC Foods. Understanding what team members expect and what they would value as important would be critical here. There have been recognition programs at the restaurant level, but this study showed that rewards at the individual hourly employee level are important and relevant.

Study Limitations

As all studies, this study was subject to limitations. Though participants were from throughout the United States, they were all from the same restaurant company. It is possible that hourly employees at other fast food restaurant companies would respond differently.

This survey was also dependent upon self-reports, which could be biased. It has been suggested that some respondents will try to respond in a way that is consistent with the other questions already answered (Podsakoff et al, 2003). This is similar to common method bias, a possible factor when all the variables in a study are derived from the same instrument. Another type of bias is social desirability, which is the “tendency on the part of individuals to present

themselves in a favorable light, regardless of their true feelings about an issue or topic” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 881).

This study did not include the two constructs that were shown unreliable through low values of Cronbach’s α coefficient, skill variety and task significance. However, that does not mean that these constructs are unrelated to the variable of intent to stay. A different approach to understanding skill variety and task significance may be needed with employees in this industry.

Suggestions for Additional Research

The results of the study suggest that there are other areas that could be explored to explain the reason that employees do not intend to stay in the fast food restaurant where they are currently employed. The following are suggested areas that could be researched.

First, the concept of work load is an interesting one. More research could be conducted to determine what work load actually means in the fast food environment. This could be done either through quantitative or qualitative analysis. It would be helpful to observe the work being conducted within the restaurant environment to determine the components that could be construed as more than reasonable. This could be accomplished through a survey though qualitative research would most likely prove to be more insightful.

Second, due to the large sample size, the analysis could be conducted within different demographic groupings. Specifically, separating the groups by time with company and then running the same analysis among the groups would provide additional results. It would answer the question if the items related to

intent to stay vary with the amount of time with company. This could also be done with the demographic variables of education and job position. There is enough sample within both of these variables to collapse a few responses into two or three to provide this important information.

Third, this survey was conducted among franchise and company restaurants, with an equal number of each. Running the analysis and comparing these two groups could also provide critical information for this restaurant company. It would answer the question of ownership affecting the hourly employee's intention to stay and if the senior leadership of an organization has the ability to influence the intent to stay variable. This analysis could be done with the current data set.

Understanding how friendships evolve in the work place would help HRD professionals gain insights on how to foster this concept. It would be important to understand if there is a difference in restaurants where existing employees recruit their friends and those where the friendship is employer facilitated such as described with the one business unit of ABC Foods where "families" are initiated from day one of employment. If creating the friendships is as effective as using natural friendship, families would be an important concept to investigate. This type of organization might be studied with qualitative methods.

Summary

The intent to stay variable has shown a relationship to actual employee retention behavior (Kraut, 1975). Previous researchers have shown that

demographics, organizational justice, and organizational socialization do predict an employee's intent to stay, though the majority of studies have been conducted at the managerial level of employee. This study was different in that hourly employees in a fast food restaurant environment were studied.

The research did show that the dependent variable of intent to stay is related to distributive justice, interactional justice, organizational socialization, age, and status of primary wage earner at the individual level. All of these variables accounted for 22.8 percent of the variability at the individual level, with the highest percentage explained by distributive justice. This means that the more fairly a person is compensated for their perceived effort of work, the higher their intent to stay. Even more interesting was that in this study, work load was the most important element of distributive justice, not pay. Socialization was further found to be related with the questions regarding friendships having the most weight.

At the aggregated summary restaurant level, these explained even more of the intent to stay responses, with statistically significant relationships with intent to stay and both organizational justice and organizational socialization, accounting for 47% of the variability of between restaurant responses.

This study used ordinary least squares (OLS) regression for both individual-level analysis and aggregated restaurant-level analysis. Additional analyses are possible: Multi-level analyses (e.g., hierarchical linear modeling, HLM) could be performed. Such analyses would allow tests of hypotheses related to both individual-level and restaurant-level data in the same statistical

model. The fact that significant predictors were found in this study, both at the person level and the organizational level, make it likely that multi-level models would be informative.

More research is needed to explore the work load concept as well as the idea of friends at work. This study did show that both of these variables are important to the employee's intent to stay. Conducting qualitative studies may provide even more insight into the causality of the relationship among these variables. Given the impact of the hourly fast food worker on the US economy, more research is justified and needed.

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APPENDIX A

E-Mail Introduction of Survey Sent to General Managers

Hello Restaurant General Manager,

I am seeking your help in completing my research for my dissertation (last step in the completion of a PhD degree).

Thank you in advance for asking your team members to complete a survey to be used in my research at the University of Louisville. I am studying the reasons why our hourly team members choose to stay working at ABC Foods. The survey is anonymous and will not be reported at the restaurant level. I will be sending you a packet via UPS that includes 30 surveys to distribute (there are 20 in English and 10 in Spanish). You should receive this on Wednesday, January 26. A copy of the survey is attached both in English and Spanish (just for your information – I am sending all copies to you).

The questionnaire includes 29 questions with a few demographic questions. It takes an average of 7-10 minutes to complete. Please ask each hourly team member (or shift supervisor) to complete this survey and place it in the return envelope provided (with my name and address on it). I will include a return envelope (postage paid) to be sent back to me via UPS. Simply call UPS and they will pick it up or you can drop it at any UPS drop-off facility (this information will be included in a letter to you in the packet). The questionnaire will include a 1-page explanation of the study as well providing informed consent information.

I would greatly appreciate having this completed within one week, or in the mail back to me by Wednesday, February 2. Thank you so much for helping me complete this research. If you have any questions, please call me at 502.262.5555.

With sincere appreciation,

Kathleen Gosser

PhD candidate at the University of Louisville

APPENDIX B

Instructions included in survey packets

To: Restaurant General Manager
From: Kathleen Gosser
Date: April 8, 2011
Subject: Survey Instructions

Thank you so much for conducting this survey in your restaurant with all of your hourly team members. I am conducting this survey to complete my dissertation, which is the last step in earning my PhD at the University of Louisville. Your assistance is so appreciated.

I am researching the reasons why our hourly team members stay with ABC Foods and looking specifically at the theories of justice (fairness) and socialization (having friends at work). Each survey does come with an informed consent letter from the university as this is voluntary. This study is first and foremost for completion of my dissertation; however, the information may be compelling and help us at ABC Foods understand how to retain our great team members.

Here is what I would like you to do please:

1. Provide each team member with the survey and ask them to complete it honestly. No individual results will be reported in anyway.
2. Place the completed surveys in the enclosed UPS envelope (the team members can keep the informed consent page). Please just discard any surveys not used.
3. To send back: you can either call UPS for pick up or drop off at a UPS site. The phone number for UPS is 1-800-PICK-UPS (1-800-742-5877).
4. Please do this within one week of receiving. So, please ensure the package is on its way back by Friday, February 4.
5. There are Spanish and English versions – the questions are the same.

The survey takes 7-10 minutes to complete. It is best if the team member can be in the dining room or a break area for privacy.

Again, thank you so much for your help. You can reach me at 502.262.5555 if you have any questions.

APPENDIX C

Variables and Items Measured

Distributive Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

1. My work schedule is fair.
2. I think that my level of pay is fair.
3. I consider my work load to be quite fair.
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.
5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.

Procedural Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

1. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.
2. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.
3. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.
4. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.
5. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.

Interactional Justice Scale (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

1. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with kindness and consideration.
2. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with respect and dignity.
3. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager is sensitive to my personal needs.
4. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager deals with me in a truthful manner.
5. When decisions are made about my job, my general managers offers explanations that make sense to me.

Organizational Socialization Scale (Chao et al., 1994)

1. I do consider my co-workers as my friends.

2. Within my work group, I am considered “one of the gang.”
3. I am pretty popular in this organization.
4. I believe most of my co-workers like me.
5. I have learned the “ropes” of my job.
6. I understand what all the duties of my job entail.
7. I have mastered the required tasks of my job.

Skill Variety (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

1. My job is quite simple and repetitive.
2. My job involves doing a number of different tasks.

Task Significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

1. Many people are affected by the job I do.
2. My job is very important to the company’s survival.

Intent to Stay (Kraut, 1975, Price & Mueller, 1986)

1. If you have your way, will you be working for ABC Foods one year from now? (Kraut, 1975)
2. I have considered quitting ABC Foods without having another job. (Price & Mueller, 1986)
3. It would be easy now to find a job that is better than the one I have now. (Price & Mueller, 1986)

APPENDIX D

Surveys Used Including Pilot and Final in English and Spanish

Team Member Questionnaire – Pilot (English Version)

This survey will help ABC FOODS understand how team members feel about working at ABC Foods. They can use this information to celebrate what is working well in the restaurants and identify issues to address to make ABC Foods a great place to work. Your responses are very important and appreciated.

All information is confidential. Please do not put your NAME on this document. The individual responses will only be available to the researcher and not shared with your manager or anyone else at ABC Foods. Thank you.

Organizational Beliefs

Instructions:

Listed below are some statements that may or may not represent how you feel about working at ABC Foods and how you are treated. Please circle to what degree you agree or disagree with each statement below by circling the response that best fits how you feel.

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My work schedule is fair	1	2	3	4	5
2. I think that my level of pay is fair	1	2	3	4	5
3. I consider my work load to be quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	1	2	3	4	5
6. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner	1	2	3	4	5
7. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	1	2	3	4	5
8. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information	1	2	3	4	5
9. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	1	2	3	4	5
10. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager	1	2	3	4	5
11. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with kindness and considerations	1	2	3	4	5
12. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with respect and dignity	1	2	3	4	5

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
13. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager is sensitive to my personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
14. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager deals with me in a truthful manner	1	2	3	4	5
15. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager offers explanations that make sense to me	1	2	3	4	5
16. I do not consider any of my co-workers as my friends	1	2	3	4	5
17. Within my work group, I am considered "one of the gang"	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am pretty popular in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
19. I believe most of my co-workers like me	1	2	3	4	5
20. My job is quite simple and repetitive	1	2	3	4	5
21. My job involves doing a number of different tasks	1	2	3	4	5
22. Many people are affected by the job I do	1	2	3	4	5
23. My job is not very important to the company's survival	1	2	3	4	5
24. I have not yet learned "the ropes" of my job	1	2	3	4	5
25. I understand what all the duties of my job entail	1	2	3	4	5
26. I have mastered the required tasks of my job	1	2	3	4	5
27. I plan to stay at ABC Foods until I stop working	1	2	3	4	5
28. I have considered quitting ABC Foods without having another job	1	2	3	4	5
29. It would be easy now to find a job that is better than the one I have now	1	2	3	4	5

30. If you have your way, will you be working for ABC Foods one year from now?
- Certainly
 - Probably
 - Not sure one way or the other
 - Probably not
 - Certainly not

Demographics

Instructions

The questions below are about you and the role you play at ABC Foods.

1. How old are you? (Enter the number please) _____
2. What is your gender? (Circle the correct response) Female Male
3. Circle the time you have been with ABC Foods:
 - a. 4 weeks or less
 - b. More than 1 month but less than 6 months
 - c. More than 6 months, but less than 1 year
 - d. More than 1 year, but less than 5 years
 - e. More than 5 years but less than 15 years
 - f. More than 15 years but less than 25 years
 - g. More than 25 years
4. Ethnicity:
 - a. African American
 - b. Caucasian
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Asian
 - e. Other
5. Choose the one position where you work the most hours (only one please)
 - a. Front counter or drive-thru cashier (may do other things such as prep)
 - b. Front counter or drive-thru packer (may do other things such as prep)
 - c. Prep person only
 - d. Dining Room hostess
 - e. Cook
 - f. Shift Supervisor
 - g. Sandwich maker
 - h. Cleaning Captain
6. How many hours each week do you work? Please enter a number: _____
7. Circle your highest level of education:
 - a. Not completed High School
 - b. High School or GED
 - c. Technical Certificate
 - d. Associate Degree
 - e. Bachelor's Degree
 - f. Masters Degree
 - g. Other
8. Please circle yes or no: Are you the primary wage earner in your household? Yes No

Please place this survey in the envelope that will be mailed to the researcher. Thank you for your time and effort in completing this survey. It is much appreciated!

Cuestionario del Miembro de Equipo – PILOT

Este cuestionario ayudará a ABC Foods a comprender cómo los miembros de equipo perciben su trabajo en ABC Foods. Esta información les permitirá exaltar qué funciona bien en los restaurantes e identificar y resolver cualquier problema para que ABC Foods sea un sitio de trabajo ideal. Sus respuestas son muy importantes y serán apreciadas.

Toda la información es confidencial; no escriba su NOMBRE en este documento, por favor. El investigador será la única persona que leerá las respuestas individuales y no las compartirá con su gerente ni con cualquier otra persona en ABC Foods. Muchas gracias.

Creencias organizativas

Instrucciones:

Las siguientes declaraciones pueden o no indicar cómo se siente usted trabajando en ABC Foods y cómo lo tratan. Encierre en un círculo el número que representa mejor cuán de acuerdo o en desacuerdo está usted con cada una de las siguientes declaraciones.

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
1. Mi horario de trabajo es justo	1	2	3	4	5
2. Considero que mi salario es justo	1	2	3	4	5
3. Considero que mi carga de trabajo es apropiada	1	2	3	4	5
4. En general, siento que mi trabajo es recompensado	1	2	3	4	5
5. Siento que mis responsabilidades laborales son justas	1	2	3	4	5
6. El gerente general toma las decisiones laborales en forma imparcial	1	2	3	4	5
7. Mi gerente general se asegura de escuchar todas las inquietudes de los empleados antes de tomar decisiones laborales	1	2	3	4	5

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
8. Mi gerente general reúne información precisa y completa para tomar sus decisiones laborales	1	2	3	4	5
9. Todas las decisiones laborales se aplican uniformemente a todos los empleados afectados	1	2	3	4	5
10. A los empleados se les permite cuestionar o apelar las decisiones que toma el gerente general	1	2	3	4	5
11. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general me trata con amabilidad y consideración	1	2	3	4	5
12. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general me trata con respeto y dignidad	1	2	3	4	5
13. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general considera mis necesidades personales	1	2	3	4	5
14. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general es sincero conmigo	1	2	3	4	5
15. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general ofrece explicaciones que tienen sentido	1	2	3	4	5

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
16. Considero que mis compañeros de trabajo son mis amigos	1	2	3	4	5
17. En mi grupo de trabajo me consideran como "parte del grupo"	1	2	3	4	5
18. Soy bastante popular en esta organización	1	2	3	4	5
19. Considero que la mayoría de mis compañeros de trabajo me aprecian	1	2	3	4	5
20. Mi trabajo es bastante sencillo y repetitivo	1	2	3	4	5
21. Mi trabajo implica hacer muchas tareas diferentes	1	2	3	4	5
22. Mi trabajo afecta a muchas personas	1	2	3	4	5
23. Mi trabajo es muy importante para que sobreviva la compañía	1	2	3	4	5
24. He aprendido los detalles de mi trabajo	1	2	3	4	5
25. Comprendo las implicaciones de cada uno de mis deberes laborales	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ya domino las tareas relacionadas con mi trabajo	1	2	3	4	5
27. Pienso permanecer en ABC Foods hasta que deje de trabajar	1	2	3	4	5
28. He considerado renunciar a ABC Foods aun sin tener otro empleo	1	2	3	4	5

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
29. Me sería más fácil buscar ahora un mejor empleo que el que tengo actualmente	1	2	3	4	5

30. Si pudiera las cosas a su manera, ¿estaría trabajando todavía en ABC Foods dentro de un año?

- f. Seguramente
- g. Probablemente
- h. Quizás sí, quizás no
- c. Probablemente no
- d. Seguramente no

Demografía

Instrucciones

Las siguientes preguntas se refieren a usted y sus funciones en ABC Foods.

1. ¿Qué edad tiene? (Escriba el número) _____
2. ¿Cuál es su sexo? (Encierre en un círculo la respuesta apropiada) Femenino Masculino
3. Encierre en un círculo el tiempo que lleva trabajando en ABC Foods:
 - a. 4 semanas o menos
 - b. Más de 1 mes, pero menos de 6
 - c. Más de 6 meses, pero menos de 1 año
 - d. Más de 1 año, pero menos de 5
 - e. Más de 5 años, pero menos de 15
 - f. Más de 15 años, pero menos de 25
 - g. Más de 25 años
4. **Origen étnico:**
 - a. Afroamericano
 - b. Caucásico
 - c. Hispano
 - d. Asiático
 - e. Otro
5. Elija el puesto en el que se trabaja durante más horas (elija una sola opción)
 - a. Caja registradora del mostrador delantero o el drive-thru (puede incluir otras tareas como preparación)
 - b. Empacar en el mostrador delantero o el drive-thru (puede incluir otras tareas como preparación)
 - c. Preparador solamente (Prep person)
 - d. Anfitrión o anfitriona del comedor (hostess)
 - e. Cocinero
 - f. Supervisor de turno
 - g. Preparador de sándwiches
 - h. Responsable de limpieza (Cleaning Captain)
6. ¿Cuántas horas a la semana trabaja usted? Escriba una cantidad: _____
7. Encierre en un círculo el nivel educativo más alto que ha completado:

- a. No terminó el bachillerato
- b. Bachillerato o GED
- c. Certificado técnico
- d. Grado básico (Associate Degree)
- e. Licenciatura (Bachelor's Degree)
- f. Maestría (Masters Degree)
- g. Otro

8. Encierre en un círculo "sí" o "no": ¿Depende su hogar principalmente de su salario? Sí No

Por favor introduzca esta encuesta en el sobre que se enviará por correo al investigador. Muchas gracias por el tiempo y esfuerzo que ha dedicado para llenar esta encuesta. ¡Le estamos muy agradecidos!

Team Member Questionnaire – Final

This survey will help ABC FOODS understand how team members feel about working at ABC Foods. They can use this information to celebrate what is working well in the restaurants and identify issues to address to make ABC Foods a great place to work. Your responses are very important and appreciated.

All information is confidential. Please do not put your NAME on this document. The individual responses will only be available to the researcher and not shared with your manager or anyone else at ABC Foods. Thank you.

Organizational Beliefs

Instructions:

Listed below are some statements that may or may not represent how you feel about working at ABC Foods and how you are treated. Please circle to what degree you agree or disagree with each statement below by circling the response that best fits how you feel.

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My work schedule is fair	1	2	3	4	5
2. I think that my level of pay is fair	1	2	3	4	5
3. I consider my work load to be quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	1	2	3	4	5
6. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner	1	2	3	4	5
7. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	1	2	3	4	5
8. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information	1	2	3	4	5
9. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	1	2	3	4	5
10. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager	1	2	3	4	5

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with kindness and considerations	1	2	3	4	5
12. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager treats me with respect and dignity	1	2	3	4	5
13. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager is sensitive to my personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
14. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager deals with me in a truthful manner	1	2	3	4	5
15. When decisions are made about my job, my general manager offers explanations that make sense to me	1	2	3	4	5
16. I do consider my co-workers as my friends	1	2	3	4	5
17. Within my work group, I am considered "one of the gang"	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am pretty popular in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
19. I believe most of my co-workers like me	1	2	3	4	5
20. My job is quite simple and repetitive	1	2	3	4	5
21. My job involves doing a number of different tasks	1	2	3	4	5
22. Many people are affected by the job I do	1	2	3	4	5
23. My job is very important to the company's survival	1	2	3	4	5
24. I have learned "the ropes" of my job	1	2	3	4	5
25. I understand what all the duties of my job entail	1	2	3	4	5
26. I have mastered the required tasks of my job	1	2	3	4	5
27. I have considered quitting ABC Foods without having another job	1	2	3	4	5

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
28. It would be easy now to find a job that is better than the one I have now	1	2	3	4	5

29. If you have your way, will you be working for ABC Foods one year from now?
- i. Certainly
 - j. Probably
 - k. Not sure one way or the other
 - l. Probably not
 - m. Certainly not

Demographics

1. How old are you? (Enter the number please) _____
2. What is your gender? (Circle the correct response) Female Male
3. Circle the time you have been with ABC Foods:
 - a. 4 weeks or less
 - b. More than 1 month but less than 6 months
 - c. More than 6 months, but less than 1 year
 - d. More than 1 year, but less than 5 years
 - e. More than 5 years but less than 15 years
 - f. More than 15 years but less than 25 years
 - g. More than 25 years
4. Ethnicity:
 - a. African American
 - b. Caucasian
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Asian
 - e. Other
5. Choose the one position where you work the most hours (only one please)
 - a. Front counter or drive-thru cashier (may do other things such as prep)
 - b. Front counter or drive-thru packer (may do other things such as prep)
 - c. Prep person only
 - d. Dining Room hostess
 - e. Cook
 - f. Shift Supervisor
 - g. Sandwich maker
 - h. Cleaning Captain
6. How many hours each week do you work? Please enter a number: _____

7. Circle your highest level of education:
- a. Not completed High School
 - b. High School or GED
 - c. Technical Certificate
 - d. Associate Degree
 - e. Bachelor's Degree
 - f. Masters Degree
 - g. Other

8. Are you the primary wage earner in your household? Please circle: Yes No

Please place this survey in the envelope that will be mailed to the researcher. Thank you for your time and effort in completing this survey. It is much appreciated!

Cuestionario del Miembro de Equipo – Final

Este cuestionario ayudará a ABC Foods a comprender cómo los miembros de equipo perciben su trabajo en ABC Foods. Esta información les permitirá exaltar qué funciona bien en los restaurantes e identificar y resolver cualquier problema para que ABC Foods sea un sitio de trabajo ideal. Sus respuestas son muy importantes y serán apreciadas.

Toda la información es confidencial; no escriba su NOMBRE en este documento, por favor. El investigador será la única persona que leerá las respuestas individuales y no las compartirá con su gerente ni con cualquier otra persona en ABC Foods. Muchas gracias.

Creencias organizativas

Instrucciones:

Las siguientes declaraciones pueden o no indicar cómo se siente usted trabajando en ABC Foods y cómo lo tratan. Encierre en un círculo el número que representa mejor cuán de acuerdo o en desacuerdo está usted con cada una de las siguientes declaraciones.

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
1. Mi horario de trabajo es justo	1	2	3	4	5
2. Considero que mi salario es justo	1	2	3	4	5
3. Considero que mi carga de trabajo es apropiada	1	2	3	4	5
4. En general, siento que mi trabajo es recompensado	1	2	3	4	5
5. Siento que mis responsabilidades laborales son justas	1	2	3	4	5
6. El gerente general toma las decisiones laborales en forma imparcial	1	2	3	4	5
7. Mi gerente general se asegura de escuchar todas las inquietudes de los empleados antes de tomar decisiones laborales	1	2	3	4	5

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
8. Mi gerente general reúne información precisa y completa para tomar sus decisiones laborales	1	2	3	4	5
9. Todas las decisiones laborales se aplican uniformemente a todos los empleados afectados	1	2	3	4	5
10. A los empleados se les permite cuestionar o apelar las decisiones que toma el gerente general	1	2	3	4	5
11. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general me trata con amabilidad y consideración	1	2	3	4	5
12. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general me trata con respeto y dignidad	1	2	3	4	5
13. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general considera mis necesidades personales	1	2	3	4	5
14. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general es sincero conmigo	1	2	3	4	5
15. Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi gerente general ofrece explicaciones que tienen sentido	1	2	3	4	5

Ítem	Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo o en desacuerdo	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
16. Considero que mis compañeros de trabajo son mis amigos	1	2	3	4	5
17. En mi grupo de trabajo me consideran como "parte del grupo"	1	2	3	4	5
18. Soy bastante popular en esta organización	1	2	3	4	5
19. Considero que la mayoría de mis compañeros de trabajo me aprecian	1	2	3	4	5
20. Mi trabajo es bastante sencillo y repetitivo	1	2	3	4	5
21. Mi trabajo implica hacer muchas tareas diferentes	1	2	3	4	5
22. Mi trabajo afecta a muchas personas	1	2	3	4	5
23. Mi trabajo es muy importante para que sobreviva la compañía	1	2	3	4	5
24. He aprendido los detalles de mi trabajo	1	2	3	4	5
25. Comprendo las implicaciones de cada uno de mis deberes laborales	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ya domino las tareas relacionadas con mi trabajo	1	2	3	4	5
27. He considerado renunciar a ABC Foods aun sin tener otro empleo	1	2	3	4	5
28. Me sería más fácil buscar ahora un mejor empleo que el que tengo actualmente	1	2	3	4	5

29. Si pudiera las cosas a su manera, ¿estaría trabajando todavía en ABC Foods dentro de un año?
- n. Seguramente
 - o. Probablemente
 - p. Quizás sí, quizás no
 - c. Probablemente no
 - d. Seguramente no

Demografía

30. ¿Qué edad tiene? (Escriba el número) _____

31. ¿Cuál es su sexo? (Encierre en un círculo la respuesta apropiada) Femenino Masculino

32. Encierre en un círculo el tiempo que lleva trabajando en ABC Foods:

- a. 4 semanas o menos
- b. Más de 1 mes, pero menos de 6
- c. Más de 6 meses, pero menos de 1 año
- d. Más de 1 año, pero menos de 5
- e. Más de 5 años, pero menos de 15
- f. Más de 15 años, pero menos de 25
- g. Más de 25 años

33. Origen étnico:

- a. Afroamericano
- b. Caucásico
- c. Hispano
- d. Asiático
- e. Otro

34. Elija el puesto en el que se trabaja durante más horas (elija una sola opción)

- a. Caja registradora del mostrador delantero o el drive-thru (puede incluir otras tareas como preparación)
- b. Empacar en el mostrador delantero o el drive-thru (puede incluir otras tareas como preparación)
- c. Preparador solamente (Prep person)
- d. Anfitrión o anfitriona del comedor (hostess)
- e. Cocinero
- f. Supervisor de turno
- g. Preparador de sándwiches
- h. Responsable de limpieza (Cleaning Captain)

35. ¿Cuántas horas a la semana trabaja usted? Escriba una cantidad: _____

36. Encierre en un círculo el nivel educativo más alto que ha completado:

- a. No terminó el bachillerato
- b. Bachillerato o GED
- c. Certificado técnico
- d. Grado básico (Associate Degree)
- e. Licenciatura (Bachelor's Degree)
- f. Maestría (Masters Degree)
- g. Otro

37. Encierre en un círculo "sí" o "no": ¿Depende su hogar principalmente de su salario? Sí No

Por favor introduzca esta encuesta en el sobre que se enviará por correo al investigador. Muchas gracias por el tiempo y esfuerzo que ha dedicado para llenar esta encuesta. ¡Le estamos muy agradecidos!

APPENDIX E

This appendix documents the full measurement tools adapted for the survey used in this study. There were four sources: Job Diagnostic Survey by Hackman & Oldfield (1975), Organizational Justice scales written by Niehoff & Moorman (1993), Organizational Socialization scales constructed by Chao et al (1994), and Intent to Stay questions by Price & Mueller (1986) adapted into a dissertation by Hoisch (2001). The questions used are in bolded italics.

Job Diagnostic Survey, Hackman & Oldfield (1975)

1. Use the scales below to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or inadequate description of your present or most recent job. After completing the instrument, use the scoring key to compute a total score for each of the core job characteristics.

5 = Very descriptive 2 = Mostly nondescriptive
4 = Mostly descriptive 1 = Very nondescriptive
3 = Somewhat descriptive

- _____ 1. I have almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is to be done.
- _____ 2. I have a chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talents.
- _____ 3. I do a complete task from start to finish. The results of my efforts are clearly visible and identifiable.
- _____ 4. What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways.
- _____ 5. My manager provides me with constant feedback about how I am doing.
- _____ 6. The work itself provides me with information about how well I am doing.
- _____ 7. I make insignificant contributions to the final product or service.
- _____ 8. *I get to use a number of complex skills on this job.*
- _____ 9. I have very little freedom in deciding how the work is to be done.
- _____ 10. Just doing the work provides me with opportunities to figure out how well I am doing.
- _____ 11. ***The job is quite simple and repetitive.***
- _____ 12. My supervisors or coworkers rarely give me feedback on how well I am doing the job.
- _____ 13. What I do is of little consequence to anyone else.

- _____ 14. **My job involves doing a number of different tasks.**
 _____ 15. Supervisors let us know how well they think we are doing.
 _____ 16. My job is arranged so that I do not have a chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
 _____ 17. My job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making.
 _____ 18. The demands of my job are highly routine and predictable.
 _____ 19. My job provides few clues about whether I'm performing adequately.
 _____ 20. **My job is not very important to the company's survival.**
 _____ 21. My job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work.
 _____ 22. My job provides me with the chance to finish completely any work I start.
 _____ 23. **Many people are affected by the job I do.**

2. Scoring Key:

- Skill variety (SV) (items # 2, 8, 11, 14, 18) = ___/5 = ___
 Task identity (TI) (items #3, 7, 16, 22) = ___/4= ___.
 Task significance (TS) (items #4, 13, 20, 23) = ___/4= ___.
 Autonomy (AU) (items # 1, 9, 17, 21) = ___/4= ___.
 Feedback (FB) (items # 5, 6, 10, 12, 15, 19) = ___/6= ___.

Organizational Justice Scale, Niehoff & Moorman (1993).

Distributive Justice

1. **My work schedule is fair.**
2. **I think that my level of pay is fair.**
3. **I consider my work load to be quite fair.**
4. **Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.**
5. **I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.**

Formal Procedures

1. **Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.**
2. **My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.**
3. **To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.**
4. My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.
5. **All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.**
6. **Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.**

Interactional Justice

- 1. When decision are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration.**
- 2. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity.**
- 3. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs.**
- 4. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner.**
5. When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee
6. Concerning decisions made about my job, the general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.
7. The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.
- 8. When making decisions about my job, the general manager offers explanations that make sense to me.**
9. My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.

Organizational Socialization Scale, Chao et al (1994)

1. I have learned how things “really work” on the inside of this organization.
2. I know very little about the history behind my work group/department.
3. I would be a good representative of my organization.
- 4. I do not consider any of my coworkers as my friends.**
- 5. I have not yet learned the “ropes” of my job.**
6. I have not mastered the specialized terminology and vocabulary of my trade/profession.
7. I know who the most influential people are in my organization.
8. I have learned how to successfully perform my job in an efficient manner.
9. I am not familiar with the organization’s customs, rituals, ceremonies, and celebrations.
10. I am usually excluded in social get-togethers given by other people in the organization.
11. The goals of my organization are also my goals.
12. I have not mastered this organization’s slang and special jargon.
- 13. Within my work group, I would be easily identified as “one of the gang.”**
14. I know the organization’s long-held traditions.
15. I do not always understand what the organization’s abbreviations and acronyms mean.

16. I believe that I fit well with my organization.
17. I do not always believe in the values set by my organization.
18. I understand the specific meanings of words and jargon in my trade/profession.
- 19. I have mastered the required tasks of my job.**
20. I understand the goals of my organization.
21. I would be a good resource in describing the background of my work group/department.
22. I have not fully developed the appropriate skills and abilities to successfully perform my job.
23. I do not have a good understanding of the politics of my organization.
- 24. I understand what all the duties of my job entail.**
25. I would be a good example of an employee who represents my organization's values.
26. I am not always sure what needs to be done in order to get the most desirable work assignments in my area.
27. I am usually excluded in informal networks or gatherings of people within this organization.
28. I have a good understanding of the motives behind the actions of other people in the organization.
29. I am familiar with the history of my organization.
30. I understand what most of the acronyms and abbreviations of my trade/profession mean.
- 31. I am pretty popular in the organizations.**
32. I can identify the people in this organization who are most important in getting the work done.
- 33. I believe most of my coworkers like me.**
34. I support the goals that are set by my organization.

Intent to Stay Questions, Hoisch (2001)

1. **In the past**, it would have been easy to find a job good enough to consider leaving BHE (BHE is name of organization studied).
2. It would be easy to find a job **now** that is good enough to consider leaving BHE.
3. **I have considered** accepting a position with another company.
4. **In the past**, it would be easy to find a job that is better than my current one.
5. **It would be easy to find a job now that is better than my current one.**
6. **(Under 65 years of age)** I plan to take normal (age 65) retirement.
7. **(65 years of age or older)** I have considered normal retirement.
8. **I would** consider accepting an early retirement package.
9. **I have previously considered** accepting an early retirement package.
10. **I have considered quitting without having another job.**
11. **I have stayed** with BHE because it is the best place to work.
12. **I plan to stay** at Baptist Hospital East until I stop working.

13. *I used to* follow up on job opportunities as I heard about them.
14. *I plan to* follow up on job opportunities as I hear about them.
15. I have *never* considered leaving BHE.

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent in English followed by Spanish

IRB Stamp

Predictors of Intent to Stay for Hourly Employees in the Fast Food Industry

January 15, 2011

Dear ABC Foods team member:

You are being invited to participate in a research study by answering the attached survey about factors related to your intent to stay on the job. There are no known risks for your participation in this research study. The information collected may not benefit you directly. The information learned in this study may be helpful to others. The information you provide will further the understanding of factors that predict the intention of employees to stay on the job. Your completed survey will be stored at the office of the Department of Educational Leadership, Foundations, and Human Resource Education. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes time to complete.

Individuals from the Department of Leadership, Foundations and Human Resource Education, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed.

Taking part in this study is voluntary. By completing this survey you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Joseph Petrosko 1-502-852-0638 or Kathleen Gosser 1-502-262.5555.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB).

You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the research staff, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24 hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Joseph M. Petrosko, PhD

Kathleen E. Gosser

IRB Stamp

Indicadores de la intención de los empleados que trabajan por hora de permanecer en la industria de la comida rápida

15 de enero de 2011

Estimado(a) miembro del equipo de ABC Foods:

Lo invitamos a participar en un estudio de investigación respondiendo la encuesta adjunta sobre los factores que influyen sobre su intención de permanecer en su empleo. Su participación en este estudio de investigación no representa ningún riesgo para usted. La información obtenida podría no beneficiarle directamente pero podría ser útil para otras personas. La información que usted proporcione ayudará a comprender mejor los factores que permiten predecir la intención de los empleados de permanecer en su empleo. Su encuesta se almacenará en la oficina del Departamento de Liderazgo Educativo, Fundaciones y Educación de Recursos Humanos (Department of Educational Leadership, Foundations, and Human Resource Education). Va a requerir aproximadamente 15 minutos para llenar la encuesta.

Estos expedientes podrán ser inspeccionados por personas del Departamento de Liderazgo Educativo, Fundaciones y Educación de Recursos Humanos, el Consejo de Revisión Institucional (Institutional Review Board - IRB) y la Oficina del Programa de Protección de Sujetos Humanos (Human Subjects Protection Program Office - HSPPO) y otros organismos regulatorios. Sin embargo, la información se mantendrá en forma confidencial para cualquier otro fin, hasta el límite en que lo permita la ley. Si la información fuera publicada, su identidad no será divulgada.

La participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Usted acepta participar en este estudio de investigación al llenar esta encuesta. No tiene que responder ninguna pregunta que le incomode. También tiene la opción de no participar en el estudio, pero si decide hacerlo, podrá retirarse en cualquier momento. Si decide no participar en este estudio o se retira en algún momento del mismo, no perderá ninguno de los beneficios para los cuales podría calificar.

Si tiene preguntas, inquietudes o quejas sobre el estudio de investigación, por favor comuníquese con: Joseph Petrosko, 1-502-852-0638, o Kathleen Gosser, 1-502-262-5555.

Si tiene preguntas sobre sus derechos como sujeto en una investigación, puede llamar a Oficina del Programa de Protección de Sujetos Humanos al (502) 852-5188. Puede discutir cualquier pregunta sobre sus derechos como sujeto en una investigación, en privado, con un miembro del Consejo de Revisión Institucional (IRB). También puede llamar al número anterior si tiene otras preguntas sobre la investigación y no logra comunicarse con el personal del estudio de investigación o desea hablar con otra persona. El IRB es un comité independiente que está integrado por personas de la comunidad universitaria, personal de las instituciones y personas de la comunidad que no tienen ninguna relación con estas instituciones. El IRB ha evaluado este estudio de investigación.

Si usted tuviera alguna inquietud o queja sobre la investigación o el personal de la investigación y no desea dar su nombre, puede llamar al 1-877-852-1167. Esta línea telefónica es atendida 24 horas al día por personas que no trabajan en la Universidad de Louisville.

Atentamente,

Joseph M. Petrosko, PhD

Kathleen E. Gosser

APPENDIX G

Descriptive Statistics of Each Question Excluding Demographic Questions at the Individual Level

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q1	924	1	5	3.93	1.029
Q2	918	1	5	3.20	1.252
Q3	904	1	5	3.82	.939
Q4	912	1	5	3.54	1.112
Q5	925	1	5	3.92	.897
Q6	889	1	5	3.81	1.021
Q7	927	1	5	3.89	1.004
Q8	923	1	5	3.95	.955
Q9	912	1	5	3.75	1.029
Q10	908	1	5	3.47	1.103
Q11	922	1	5	4.01	.990
Q12	927	1	5	4.12	.905
Q13	926	1	5	3.97	1.017
Q14	927	1	5	4.11	.902
Q15	924	1	5	3.99	.933
Q16	922	1	6	3.91	.960
Q17	898	1	6	3.77	1.060
Q18	912	1	5	3.67	.945
Q19	911	1	5	3.95	.865
Q20	902	1	5	3.85	.944
Q21	909	1	6	4.18	.790
Q22	906	1	5	3.61	1.144
Q23	907	1	5	4.03	.923
Q24	915	1	5	4.30	.758
Q25	910	2	5	4.36	.660
Q26	905	1	5	4.24	.794
Q27	909	1	5	2.48	1.367
Q28	920	1	5	2.77	1.242
Q29	842	1	5	2.18	1.137
Valid N	618				

CURRICULUM VITAE

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EDUCATION & TRAINING:

B.A., Journalism
Indiana University, Bloomington, IN
1979 – 1983

Masters of Business Administration (MBA)
University of Louisville, Louisville, KY
1989 – 1993

PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES:

Louisville Chapter of National Association of Women MBAs
2010 - present
President

Options for Individuals Board of Directors
2009 – present

ASTD Member
2007 – present

WORK HISTORY:

Fortune 500 Restaurant Company
1984 - present