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**EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION:
A COMPARISON OF TIPPED AND NON-TIPPED HOURLY
RESTAURANT EMPLOYEES**

by

**CATHERINE R. JOHNSON
B.M. Rider University, 1997**

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Science
in the Rosen College of Hospitality Management
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida**

**Fall Term
2005**

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ABSTRACT

Employee motivation shall be defined by Robbins (as cited in Ramlall, 2004) as: “the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need.” To engage in the practice of motivating employees, employers must understand the unsatisfied needs of each of the employee groups. This study desires to provide practitioners in the restaurant industry the ability to recognize motivators for these different employment groups and their relationship to organizational commitment.

The restaurant industry consists of two types of employees: salaried and hourly. This study focuses on hourly employees, and their subdivision: tipped employees. For the purpose of this research hourly employees shall be defined as employees that depend on their hourly wage as their main source of income and tipped employees shall be defined as employees that depend on the receipt of tips as their main source of income. The purpose of this study desires to provide practitioners in the restaurant industry a comparison and analysis of employee motivation between the two employment groups and their level of organizational commitment.

After formulating a thorough research review, a questionnaire instrument was assembled. The sample for this study was a convenience sample consisting of 104 restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped, front of the house personnel employed in a single branded, national restaurant chain located in the metropolitan area of Orlando, Florida. The research instrument was a survey questionnaire instrument comprised of three sections: 1.) twelve motivational factors derived from Kovach (1995), 2.) nine questions from the reduced OCQ from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), and a section

concerning demographic information of gender, age, race, education level, marital status, job type and tenure in the industry.

Results from the study revealed that firstly, all of the employees in this thesis study felt that management loyalty was the most important motivating factor; secondly, intrinsic motivation factors were more important to non-tipped hourly employees; thirdly, gender had a strong influence in half of the motivating factors; fourthly, promotion and career development was found to be more important to non-tipped employees; lastly, overall mostly medium positive relationships were found between employee motivation and organizational commitment. Implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research are discussed in the final chapter.

To Shane.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Employee motivation in the restaurant industry is vital to the future success of restaurant organizations because if recognized correctly, managers can avoid the high costs associated with turnover (Dermody, Young, & Taylor, 2004). While competition is steady with other industries to attract and retain workers to meet the demand of consumers, restaurant employers need to gain a better understanding of what motivates their workers in order to prevent the high costs associated with turnover; managers must attempt to understand what motivates their hourly employees (Dermody, Young, & Taylor, 2004). Enz (2001) suggests that the number one problem in the hospitality industry is the care and motivation of human capital. Unfortunately, service industry jobs are generally high stress and low pay; these are facts that work against employee motivation (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003). However, motivation must come from within the individual (Zacarelli, 1985; Simons & Enz, 1995; Nicholson, 2003).

Restaurant operators in particular employ two groups of employees: salaried and hourly employees. Salaried employees are not being investigated in this study. However, restaurants have a subdivision within the hourly employees: tipped employees. Tipped employees are paid substantially less per hour,¹ in accordance with information provided from the U.S Department of Labor's website. (<http://www.dol.gov/esa/programs/whd/state/tipped.htm>)

For the purpose of this research non-tipped hourly employees shall be defined as employees that depend on their hourly wage as their main source of income and generally

¹ Depending on state laws

do not receive any income from tips or gratuities. Tipped employees shall be defined as employees that depend on the receipt of tips as their main source of income.

Purpose of Study

There are numerous definitions for employee motivation, but for the purpose of this study employee motivation has been defined by Robbins, (1993), (as cited in Ramlall, 2004), as: “the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need.” As employee motivation is an important topic in hospitality literature, there has not been a study profiling hourly tipped and non-tipped restaurant workers’ motivations in the United States. For that reason, this study desires to provide practitioners in the restaurant industry a comparison and analysis of employee motivation between the two employment groups and their level of organizational commitment.

Background of Study: A Review of Literature

Employee motivation has been proven to be a long term success factor in many organizations; however, many organizations still overlook the topic (Kovach, 1995). Employee motivation has been studied in the hospitality literature with various approaches and theories. In satisfying the purpose of this study current theories of motivation are divided into four categories: employee motivation need theories which profile motivational need theorists Maslow (1943) and McClelland (1961), employee motivation equity theories which explain the theories of Adams (1963), based off of prior work by Festinger (1957), employee motivation expectancy theories developed by

Vroom (1964), expanded by Hackman & Porter (1968), and further extension of expectancy theory by Porter & Lawler (1968), and task and goal employee motivation theories developed by Herzberg (1959), Locke & Latham (2002) based from prior work of Ryan (1970), Reynolds (2002) derived from Rosenthal & Jacobson (1968), followed by Hackman & Oldham (1968) and concluding with McGregor (1960).

Employee motivation in the hospitality industry can be defined a force that pushes people to make a particular job choice, remain at the job, and put in effort (Simons & Enz, 1995). The hospitality industry has published three studies in various parts of the world describing motivations of hotel workers measured by a scale developed by Kovach (1995) called the ten job motivating factors. The respondents in all three studies, ranked the ten job motivating factors one to ten, with one as the most important and ten as the least important. In the study of the Caribbean hotel workers, Charles & Marshall (1992) divided respondents into two categories: organismic and organizational dimensions. The organismic variables were characteristics that the workers possessed and brought with them to the work situation. These variables included: age, gender, and education (Charles & Marshall, 1992). Organization variables were the characteristics that the workers acquired as a result of their employment. These organizational variables included: the rank in the organization, amount of guest contact in their position, and the number of years in that current position (Charles & Marshall, 1992).

Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999) utilized the ten job factors survey in the same manner ranking the ten job motivating factors one to ten, with one as the most important and ten as the least important. Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999) divided the ten job motivating factors into two variables: intrinsic and extrinsic variables. The intrinsic variables consisted of: a

feeling of being involved, supervisor's help with personal problems, interesting work, promotion or career development, supervisor's help with personal problems, and full appreciation of a job well done. The extrinsic variables are: job security, good wages, tactful discipline, and good working conditions (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

Simons & Enz (1995) also applied the ten job factors survey in the United States and Canada surveying hotel workers, ranking the ten job motivating factors one to ten, with one as the most important and ten as the least important. Their studied revealed that different departments within a hotel respond to different motivators. They found significant differences in some demographic variables such as age but no significance in gender. Simons & Enz (1995) recommend asking an individual if you do not know their motivation.

To better understand tipped workers, it is good to have an understanding of the practice of tipping. According to Azar (2003), "tipping is a phenomenon that illustrates that economic behavior is often motivated by social norms and psychological reasons." Over three million people earn income in the U.S. from tips (Wessels, 1997; Azar, 2003). According to Lynn *et al* (1993), (as cited by Azar, 2003), there are over thirty-three service professions that receive tips.

Azar (2003) claims that tipping has implications for economics and management in four ways: 1.) as a social norm tipping has implications for social economics, 2.) people tip because of feelings of embarrassment or unfairness signifying implications for behavioral economics, 3.) as tipping is a source of income for over 3 million people, tipping is connected with labor economics, and 4.) suggests that tips are a form of consumer monitoring, an incentive for workers to provide good service, suggesting that

companies should monitor the performance of tipped employees versus non-tipped employees.

Research performed by Lynn (2003) states a common fallacy that judging the amount of gratuity a server receives is commonly believed to be a representation of their service level. Lynn (2003) was able to prove that this is not the case. Studies conducted by Lynn (2003, 2001) state that many restaurant managers rely on tips as a motivator, an incentive to provide good service. However, the servers themselves do not correlate this relationship (Lynn, 2003).

Motivators for tipped employees may have more of a relationship with their immediate supervisor or manager (Lynn, 2003, 2001). Weaver (1988) states that hourly employees in the hotel industry are better in tune with their motivation needs than management and perceive motivation programs as 'hot air'. In response to those feelings, Weaver (1988) developed Theory M as a potential motivator for hourly employees. The main postulate of this theory is to make employees feel that they are being paid what they are worth (Weaver, 1988). According to Weaver (1988), he argues that raising minimum wage will not produce the same effect as the incentive because it is not the same as being paid for what you are worth. Weaver (1988) argues that if all tipped employees' wages were tied to their output, the industry may be able to solve its motivation problems.

There has been many definitions for organizational commitment beginning with Becker (1960) describing the concept of commitment as, "consistent lines of activity." For the purpose of this thesis, organizational commitment is defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular

organization,” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organization commitment has received much attention in social science literature and has been studied in the hospitality literature with various approaches and theories. This study approaches existing theories of organizational commitment divided into four categories: organization commitment defined by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979), based off of the prior work of Becker (1960), the development of side-bet theory from Meyer & Allen (1984), social relationships and organizational commitment by Madsen, Miller, & John (2005), and various applications in the hospitality industry.

Need for the Study

In reviewing the existing body of motivational and organizational commitment literature there is a paucity of information concerning motivation needs and organizational commitment needs of hourly and tipped employees. Clearly research focusing on hourly employees is rather sparse as most studies concentrate on full time employees (Milman & Ricci, 2004) and information on organizational commitment in the hospitality industry is limited to the work conducted by Dickson, Ford, and Upchurch (2005). However there was one study conducted on the restaurant industry that did relate to the comparison of tipped versus non-tipped restaurant employees. Enz (2004) notes that the pay inequity between tipped and non-tipped restaurant employees is a source of tension and should be investigated by the industry. To date, very few industry specific research projects have been conducted on the topic of employee motivation and commitment to the organization with an expressed purpose of improving work conditions or climate.

Objectives of the Study

This study will identify the current motivating factors and organizational commitment of tipped versus non-tipped employees in the restaurant industry. This study investigates if employee motivation and organizational commitment factors differ or agree as differentiated by demographic factors such as: gender, age, race, education level, marital status, job type and tenure. In doing so, this study surveys restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped personnel employed in a single brand of a national restaurant chain located in the southeastern United States. To collect this information, a three part survey was designed. The first portion measures the ten job-related motivational items from Kovach (1995). The second segment of the survey inquires about the organizational commitment of hourly tipped and non-tipped employees using nine questions from the reduced OCQ from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), and the last section collected demographic information such as: gender, age, race, education level, marital status, job type and tenure.

Significance of the Study

This study desires to enhance the existing body of literature by contemplating the areas of the literature that have not yet been examined or considered and incorporating these factors into the current study. This study has identified the current motivators of hourly tipped and non-tipped employees for comparison. This is necessary to restaurant managers and operators because both types of employees are working together on a day to day basis and motivations of an employee group may differ in the same environment. This study examines the effects of demographic variables such as: gender, age, race,

education level, marital status, job type and tenure. This study also examines the correlation of employee motivation with organizational commitment. These questions with answers reported in the study should be able to provide implications for restaurant owners and operators to consider permitting a sustainable competitive advantage.

Definition of Terms

Employee motivation: shall be defined by Robbins, (1993) (as cited in Ramlall, 2004) as: “the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need.”

Non-tipped hourly employees: shall be defined as employees that depend on their hourly wage as their main source of income, and generally do not receive any income from tips or gratuities.

Organismic variables: are characteristics that the workers possessed and brought with them to the work situation. These variables included: age, gender, and education (Charles & Marshall, 1992).

Organization variables: are the characteristics that the workers acquired as a result of their employment. These organizational variables included: the rank in the organization, amount of guest contact in their position, and the number of years in that current position (Charles & Marshall, 1992).

- Organizational Commitment: is defined as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization,” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).
- Self-reference: is according to Kovach, (1995), “managers offering workers rewards that would motivate managers.”
- Social norm: is defined by Elster, (1989) as, “norms shared by other people and partly sustained by their approval or disapproval.”
- Socially desirable responses: according to Nunnally & Bernstein, (1994), can be defined as, “the tendency for others to choose items that reflect socially approved behaviors,” (as cited by Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004).
- Tipped employees: shall be defined as employees that depend on the receipt of tips as their main source of income.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Prior literature on restaurant industry's hourly tipped and non-tipped restaurant employees demonstrate that these staff members serve an important role in restaurant profitability (Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2004). Given the important function that staff provides to the daily operation of a restaurant it is concluded that employee motivation and staff commitment to the organization are instrumental components of organizational performance. Furthermore, it is assumed that an individual's motivation and level of organizational commitment is different for tipped versus non-tipped hourly employees. Therefore, the theoretical framework of this study is based on a review relevant literature pertaining to existing theories concerning employee motivation, the psychology of hourly tipped and non-tipped employees working in the restaurant industry, and the organizational commitment of the restaurant worker.

Employee Motivation Need Theories

Employee motivation is based on a force that pushes people to make a particular job choice, remain at the job, and put in effort (Simons & Enz, 1995). Motivational need theorists derive that a need can evolve from physiological or psychological deficiencies that arouse behavior (Ramlall, 2004). According to Ramlall (2004) employee motivation need theories are defined by as "internal factors that energize behavior." Another definition of employee motivation is defined by Robbins (1993) (as cited in Ramlall, 2004) as: "the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need." Therefore to engage

in the practice of motivating employees, employers must understand the unsatisfied needs of the employee groups. Unsatisfied needs can be defined as “tension that stimulates drives within the individual,” (Ramlall, 2004). In this context this type of tension presents a goal for the worker because the worker carries out ‘search’ behavior to satisfy the deficient need, thereby reducing the perceived tension (Ramlall, 2004).

Maslow’s Theory

According to Maslow (1943) human needs can be arranged in a hierarchical manner with lower level needs being a prerequisite of higher order needs. The bottom tier consists of physiological needs, i.e.: food and shelter. After an individual has accomplished gratification of the physiological needs, the next tier progresses to needs consisting of: safety and security needs. Needs for love, affection, and belongingness exist in the tier above safety and security, and begins to start higher level needs as the two bottom tiers were physical needs. This next tier above social needs consists of ego and esteem needs. After these needs are met the final tier consists of the need for self-actualization, to be completely developed as a person. (Maslow, 1943) According to Maslow, (as cited by Tesone, 2005) self-actualization or ego needs could never be fully satisfied.

Champagne and McAfee in their book, Motivating Strategies for Performance and Productivity: A Guide to Human Resource Development, (as cited in Ramlall, 2004), provided a list of employee needs based on Maslow’s hierarchy. However, depending on the worker and organization, these needs can vary (Ramlall, 2004).

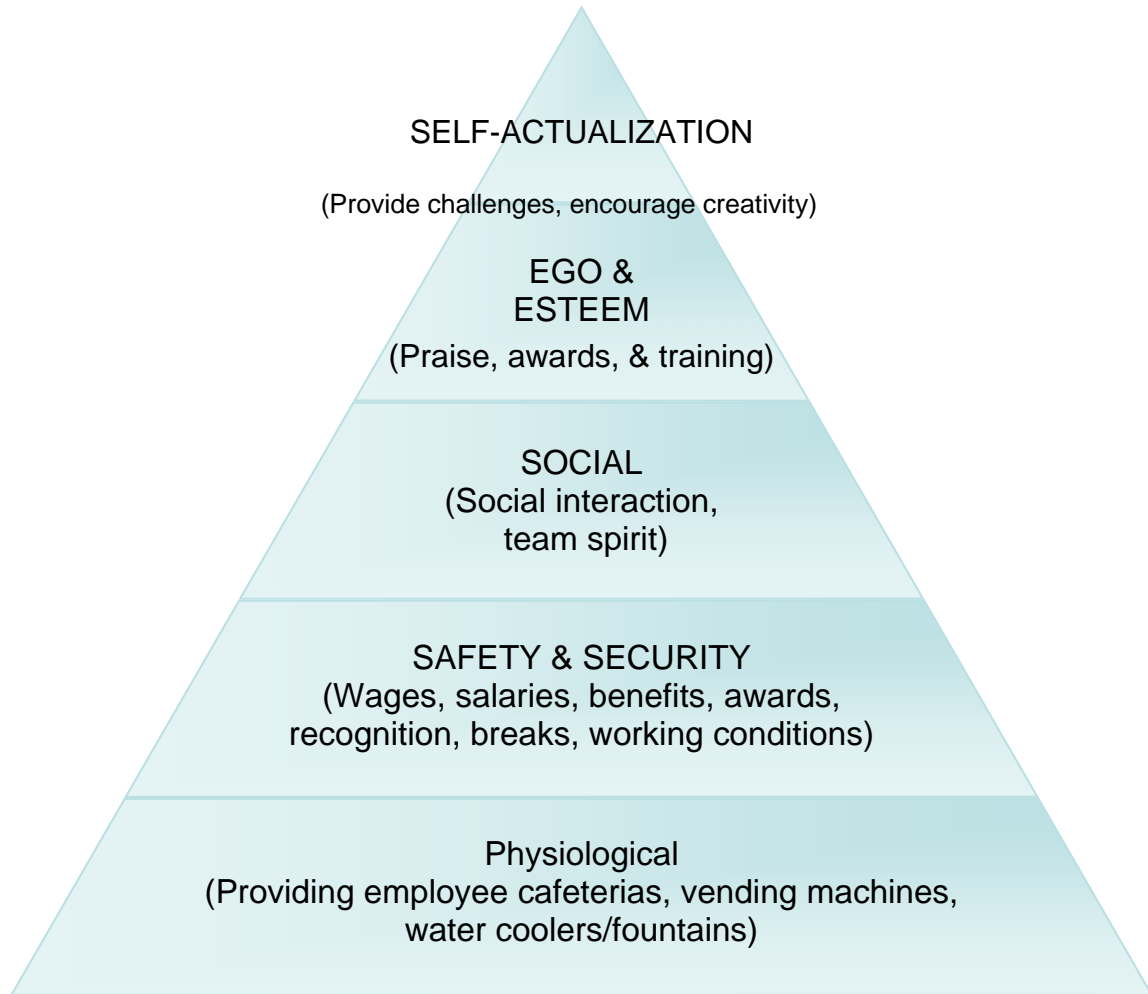


Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs applied to employees, adapted from Champagne & McAfee, (1989), (as cited by Ramlall, 2004).

Prior work conducted by Steers and Porter (as cited by Ramlall, 2004) stated that managers have the responsibility to create proper climate so that employees may develop to their full potential. This need for self-actualization could possibly be achieved in a 'healthy' work environment (Schrage, 2000). However, Maslow states that although the workplace may offer opportunities to become self-actualized, many humans do not

(Schrage, 2000). Employee motivation need theories imply that humans have an intrinsic need to, “grow or evolve on personal levels,” (Tesone, 2005). There is a premise that employees that are happier will be more productive. In the same thought there is debate that happy employees are not productive (Saari & Judge, 2004).

McClelland’s Theory

McClelland’s (1961) in a text titled “The Achieving Society,” notes that Freud pioneered the notion that one need may satisfy other motives. McClelland defined needs into three categories: 1.) the need for achievement, 2.) the need for affiliation, and 3.) the need for power. (McClelland, 1961) The achievement need is described as a desire for achievement, combined with other influences such as social approval, and ability. The affiliation need is described as a concern for establishing, maintaining, or restoring positive relationships. People with affiliation needs are seeking approval (McClelland, 1961). The need for power is described as a superior person that can control or influence a subordinate. McClelland states that these needs can influence their management style. High affiliation people tend to not perform well as managers because of their need to maintain positive social relationships. People with high power needs and low affiliation tend to be successful leaders, while people with high achievement needs tend to perform well as entrepreneurs (McClelland, 1961; Ramlall, 2004.)

Ross (1992) decided to explore McClelland’s need theory into four dimensions consisting of achievement, affiliation, dominance and autonomy. Ross investigated these needs using a test validated by Steers and Braunstein (as cited by Ross, 1992) measuring these four dimensions in the workplace called the Manifest Needs Questionnaire. Potential employees of the hospitality industry which were students in their last year of

high school in Australia were surveyed. The study concluded that these students felt that the four needs of: achievement, affiliation, dominance and autonomy were important and should be recognized in running a tourism organization (Ross, 1992).

Ross (1997) investigated McClelland's need theory in the tourism industry. He applied McClelland's motivation concepts which are usually applied to work settings and focused them to backpacker tourist behavior (Ross, 1997). The three postulates of McClelland's need theory: power, affiliation and achievement have been adapted to this study. McClelland (as cited by Ross, 1997) has argued that the need for power coincides with an individual's need to control their environment. The environment can consist of surroundings and/or other persons (Ross, 1997). According to McClelland (1965), the need for affiliation is caused by a need for social acceptance, friendship or belonging. The need for achievement is regarded with individuals that seek high personal accomplishment, enjoy taking risks, research the environment, and desire feedback (Ross, 1997). Ross (1997) gathered a sample of 273 backpackers traveling in Australia's north-eastern seaboard. The major findings of this study revealed that two need motivators were important to this type of tourist: the need for power, (which is described as environmental controllability) and achievement (Ross, 1997). The individuals in the study that had high need for achievement also placed high value on vacations, and may be more likely taken by people with higher levels of need achievement (Ross, 1997). This investigation successfully applied two postulates of McClelland's need theory to backpacker tourists in Australia: achievement and power. Further studies in different types of markets would be necessary to seek application of all postulates of the theory (Ross, 1997).

Employee Motivation Equity Theories

Adam's Theory

Equity theory has strong foundations in the work of Adams (1963, 1965). Adams developed his inequity theory based on the work of Festinger (1957) (as cited in Adams, 1963) and his theory of cognitive dissonance. Adams (1963) describes cognitive dissonance theory into two assumptions, first stating that a presence of inequity will create a tension. The size of the tension is variable considering the amount of inequity. Secondly, the tension created will drive the possessor to strive to reduce that tension (Adams, 1963). Equity theory contains three main premises: the first premise states that employees should sense that their contributions are returned in a fair and equitable manner (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978; Ramlall, 2004). The second premise states the concept of social comparison. Social comparison is how employees believe their outcomes should be returned based on their inputs. Inputs consist of skills, education, and effort and outcomes consist of compensation, fringe benefits, promotion, and job status (Adams, 1963; Carrell & Dittrich, 1978). The last premise of the theory suggests that if an employee senses themselves in an inequitable situation, they will seek to reduce the inequity (Adams, 1963; Carrell & Dittrich, 1978). The individual may attempt to resolve the inequity by cognitive dissonance (Adams, 1965) or alteration of inputs and outcomes, or by leaving the organization (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978).

Equity theory was applied to the hospitality industry in a recent study by Susskind (2002). Susskind (2002) interpreted equity theory with restaurant consumers' word-of-mouth communication patterns. Consumers assess their experiences based on what they

receive balanced with expectations and cost (Susskind, 2002). To measure these experiences, Susskind (2002) interviewed 310 shopping mall patrons in the eastern and Midwestern United States at a table in front of the mall's food court. Each participant was given a lottery ticket for participating in the survey. Participants were asked to describe a recent complaint in a restaurant setting within the past six months that was brought to the service provider's attention. The next question was to describe the resolution of the complaint. Examining Figure 2 in this study explains Susskind's (2002) process. Susskind (2002) categorized these complaints into two dimensions: food related and service related. A two-by-two classification was constructed using degree of correction of the complaint (high or low correction), and the experience outcome (positive or negative). The output was a four square matrix consisting of 1.) low degree of correction and negative outcome, 2.) low degree of correction and positive outcome, 3.) high degree of correction and negative outcome, 4.) high degree of correction and positive outcome, (Susskind, 2002). The inequity resulting in these restaurant dining situations follow two postulates of Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory (as cited in Adams, 1965). The first postulate is that there is the presence of inequity creating tension, and that the tension is relative to the extent of the inequity. The second postulate is that the tension will motivate the person to achieve equity (Adams, 1965). However it should be understood for equity to be achieved in restaurant service recovery situations the correction must be as close to that customer's desire as reasonable (Susskind, 2002).

		Experience	
		Positive Outcome	Negative Outcome
Degree of Correlation	High Correction	Positive Outcome High Correction	Negative Outcome High Correction
	Low Correction	Positive Outcome Low Correction	Negative Outcome Low Correction

Figure 2: Correction/Outcome Matrix (Susskind, 2002)

Employee Motivation Expectancy Theories

Vroom's Theory

Vroom (1964) developed expectancy theory, a theory of work motivation. Expectancy theory can be defined as: The three components of this theory are valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (Vroom, 1964). Valence is developed from prior work developed by Lewin (1938), & Tolman (1959), (as cited by Vroom, 1964) meaning to be understood to describe preferences, or “affective orientations toward outcomes” (Vroom, 1964). An outcome is can be labeled as positive or approach outcome, negative or avoidance outcome (Vroom, 1964). Positively valent outcomes are outcomes in which the individual would prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining the outcome, and negatively valent outcomes are when the individual prefers not attaining the outcome to attaining the outcome (Vroom, 1964). Vroom (1964) goes on to describe that there may be differences between the satisfaction the person expects to receive and actual satisfaction. Anticipated satisfaction is noted as valence, and actual satisfaction is labeled as value (Vroom, 1964). This theory also highlights the level of motivation as compared

to the outcome of performance (Ramlall, 2004). However, not all outcomes that are positively or negatively valent to the individual are expected to be satisfying or dissatisfying. Performance may be enhanced to enhance status in the community or at work through promotion (Vroom, 1964).

Instrumentality is the second postulate of the theory which is explained as a “probability belief linking one outcome to other outcomes,” (Ramlall, 2004). An outcome will be positively valent if the individual believes that the outcome contains high instrumentality for the attainment of positively valent outcomes and avoidance of negatively valent outcomes (Ramlall, 2004). The last concept of the theory is labeled as expectancy. Vroom (1964) defines expectancy as the passing belief that an instance will be followed by a particular outcome. This differs from the concept of instrumentality because it is an outcome-outcome association, whereas expectancy is an action outcome association (Vroom, 1964).

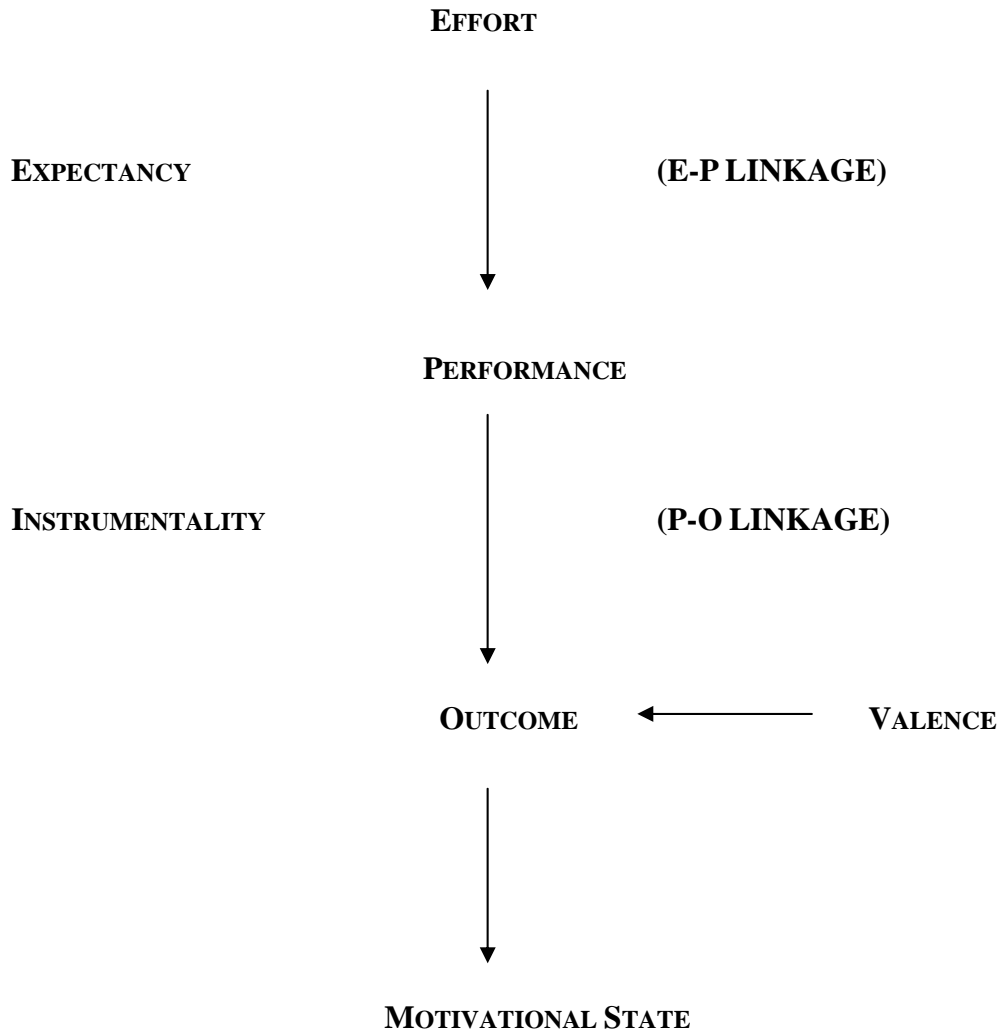


Figure 3: Vroom's Expectancy Model (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001)

In figure 3, Vroom's Expectancy model, the individual will feel motivated when three conditions are perceived: 1.) the personal expenditure of effort will lead to a good enough level of performance, (expectancy), 2.) the performance will lead to an outcome for the individual, (instrumentality), 3.) the outcome has value for the individual, (valence), (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). The first condition describes the relationship between effort and performance, the E-P linkage, and the second condition,

instrumentality describes the relationship between performance and rewards, the P-O linkage, and the third concept, valence, describes the value an individual feels towards a reward (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). Motivation can be explained in the following formula: $M = E \times I \times V$, this is explained as M representing motivation, E representing expectancy, and V representing valence (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). According to Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, (2001), any weaknesses within the E-P, P-O linkages, or value of rewards affects the individual's state of motivation (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001).

Hackman & Porter

Hackman & Porter (1968) tested expectancy theory predictions of effort in an on-going work situation utilizing measurement techniques from the attitude theory of Fishbein (1963) (as cited by Hackman & Porter, 1968). These predictions were attempting to diagnose and change the motivation levels of individuals (Hackman & Porter, 1968). An equation for measurement of expectancy was based on the two factors, 1.) the strength of which the an individual expects outcomes from the act, times 2.) the attractiveness of the expected outcome. The equation is condensed as, "force equals expectancy times valence," $F = E \times V$ (Hackman & Porter, 1968). The researchers gathered a sample of 82 female service representatives at three comparable sized telephone company offices that have been employed at least three months (Hackman & Porter, 1968). The participants took an anonymous questionnaire that contained measures of expectancy and valence. The first part measured positive or negative valences (expectancy) and the second part measure outcomes on a seven point scale. This study was able to identify an individual's perceptions and evaluations that increase their motivation to work hard and those that detract from motivation (Hackman & Porter,

1968). In Figure 4, derived from Hackman & Porter, (1968) patterns of expectancy and valence can be followed to find motivation. For instance, those individuals with high expectancy and high positive valence will have enhanced motivation, while those individuals with high expectancy and high negative valence will have detracted motivation, and those individuals with low expectancy, and neutral valences will have little or no effect on their motivation (Hackman & Porter, 1968). The benefits of diagnosing the work situation will enable changes to be made to increase a performer's motivation. Hackman & Porter (1968) suggest 1.) providing new outcomes which have value for the worker resulting from hard work, 2.) changing expectancies so that hard work and positively valued outcomes are strengthened, or changing the link between hard work and negatively valued outcomes, or 3.) changing the valences of existing outcomes (Hackman & Porter, 1968).

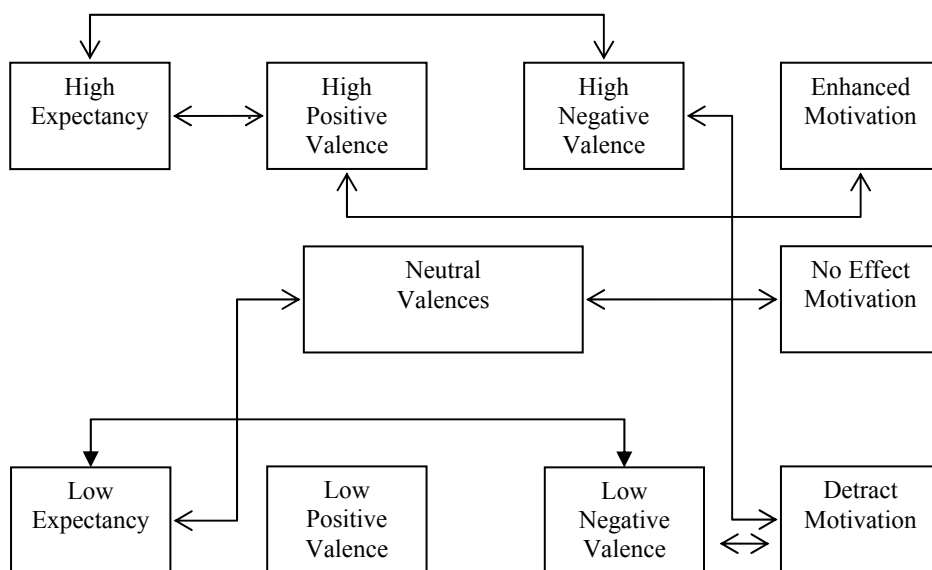


Figure 4: Model of Outcomes, (Hackman & Porter, 1968).

Porter & Lawler's Extension Of Expectancy Theory

Porter & Lawler (as cited by Ramlall, 2004) developed a model of expectancy theory that expands the Vroom's work. This model contains nine separate variables and the relationships that exist within these variables (Porter & Lawler, 1968). This model is displayed in Figure 5. Rewards were split between two variables: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are those awards that derive from the organization, and intrinsic rewards are those that the individual grants themselves (Porter & Lawler, 1968). These rewards are merged in between performance and satisfaction signifying that intrinsic rewards may satisfy higher order needs such as autonomy and self-actualization whereas security as social needs will be satisfied by extrinsic rewards (Porter & Lawler, 1968). Krietner (as cited by Ramlall, 2004) explained the purpose of this model was to 1.) recognize the cause of people's valences and expectancies, and 2.) make a connection between performance and job satisfaction. Porter and Lawler (1968) state that past positive and negative experiences with rewards influence future effort. A reward must contain two components of "equitable" and "actually received" in order to obtain satisfaction (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Step 1 of the model begins with the value of the reward to the individual, step 2 describes the relationship between perceived effort and reward probability explaining that if a value of a potential reward is high, then effort will be high, steps 3, 4, 5, and 6 combine the variables of effort, abilities, role perceptions, and performance with steps 3, 4, and 5 combined having a direct impact on performance. Step 7 splits into intrinsic or

extrinsic rewards which intervenes between performance and satisfaction, performance also seems to have a direct impact on step 8, perceived equitable rewards, and satisfaction is brought back to value (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

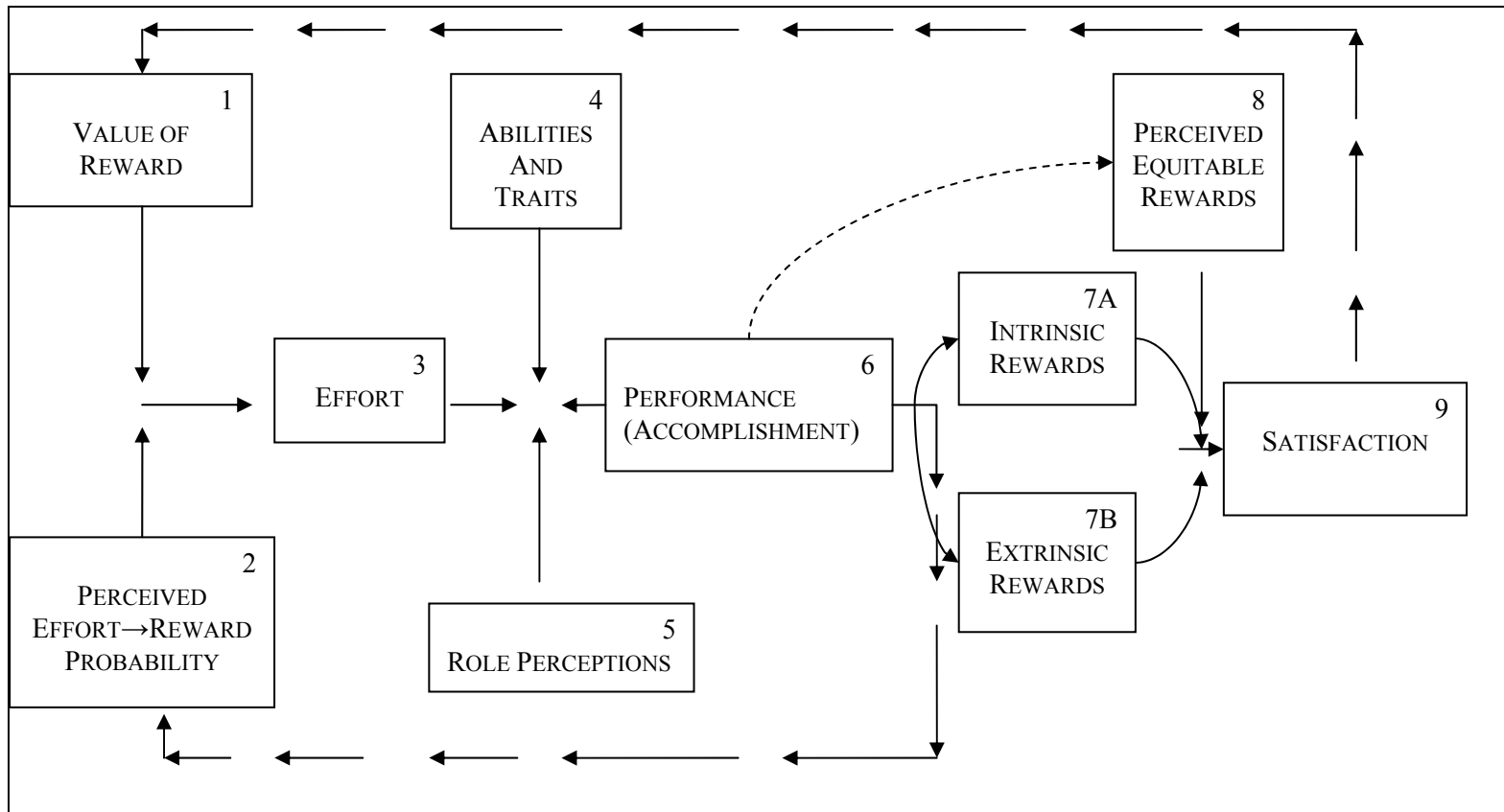


Figure 5: Revised Expectancy Model (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Task and Goal Employee Motivation Theories

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg began research on factors that affect job motivation in the mid 1950's (Ramlall, 2004). Herzberg (1959) developed his two factor theory derived from work of Mayo and Coch & French (as cited by Herzberg, 1959). Mayo (as cited by Herzberg, 1959) discovered that relationships between workers and their supervisors had more of an effect on worker output than any kind of manipulation of environmental conditions. Mayo also found that informal associations of a group of men can influence productivity levels (as cited in Herzberg, 1959). Coch & French (as cited by Herzberg, 1959) stated that the employees that are given the prospect to set goals and make decisions that affect their work are employees that will accept change more readily than those employees that are not given those opportunities.

Herzberg (1959) took three approaches to measure job attitudes: 1.) by demographic variables, using demographics such as gender, age, education level, social class, and occupation type to evaluate similarities and differences, 2.) to used scaled inventories of worker morale and job attitudes, and 3.) observation, where the researcher observes the behavior of workers. Herzberg (1959) was seeking to answer the question, "what does a worker want from their job?" to develop this answer, three methods could be used: a list of factors for the workers to rank and rate in order of desirability, another method was to question workers spontaneously about their likes and dislikes of the job, and creating an inventory or questionnaire. While developing these factors Herzberg (1959) found that some factors were "satisfying" and others were "dissatisfying." These factors became integral to the theory and became known as "motivators" that bring job satisfaction and

“hygiene” factors that brought job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Job motivators tended to be intrinsic to the matter of the job. These motivators consisted of: achievement, recognition, the job itself, responsibility, job advancement, and growth (Ramlall, 2004). Job dissatisfaction is the result of extrinsic non-job-related factors labeled as hygiene factors. Steers (as cited by Ramlall, 2004) defined this list of hygiene factors: company policies, salary, co-worker relations, and supervisory styles. Hygiene theory states that the removal of job dissatisfiers does not result in a state of job satisfaction. The result is a neutral state. Job satisfiers are distinct and different from job dissatisfiers; motivation can only be increased by the use of job enrichment (Ramlall, 2004). If managers remove the job dissatisfiers this can alleviate the dissatisfaction, but does not bring motivation (Ramlall, 2004).

Table 1: Two Factor Theory Examples

Motivators	Hygiene Factors
Achievement	Company Policies
Recognition	Salaries
The work itself	Co-worker relations
Responsibility	Supervisory Styles
Advancement	
Growth	

(Steers, as cited by Ramlall, 2004)

Herzberg (1959) stated that other than looking to remove hygiene factors, increasing the amount of motivators is more important. In a later study conducted by Herzberg in 1968, (as cited by Ramlall, 2004), Herzberg determined that “vertically loading” jobs for workers could be beneficial. Vertical loading enables workers to have more responsibilities, such as taking on tasks that are normally performed by supervisors. Horizontal loading is when workers take on more tasks of similar difficulty (Ramlall, 2004). While vertically loading jobs, workers may experience an increased sense of responsibility, recognition, achievement, growth, learning, and possibly advancement (Ramlall, 2004). Herzberg (as cited by Ramlall, 2004) states that in order for a worker to become motivated, job enrichment must be occurring consisting of various opportunities for advancement, achievement, recognition, responsibility and stimulation.

Goal Setting Theory

Goal setting theory is the theory “which shows that having specific goals is a major factor for motivation and performance,” (Saari & Judge, 2004). To define goal setting theory further, it is based on Ryan’s study (as cited in Locke & Latham, 2002) a premise that conscious goals affect action. These types of goals are considered to be conscious, have an end to the action, and are usually performed to a level of proficiency or time limit (Locke & Latham, 2002). Ryan (1970) explained first-level explanatory concepts, which he considered to be the cause of most human behavior and actions. Human behavior is influenced by conscious purposes, actions, plans or tasks (Ryan, 1970; Locke & Latham, 2002). Within goal setting theory an important concept evolves called self-efficacy (Locke & Latham, 2002). Self-efficacy can be described as people choosing what to do, how much effort to exert into activities, and how long to

persist at these goals (Bandura & Cervone, 1983, 1986). Self-efficacy is defined further as task-specific confidence (Locke & Latham, 2002). The success or failure of these goals is contingent on the individual's self-efficacy (Bandura & Cervone, 1983, 1986; Locke & Latham, 2002). Self-efficacy influences assigned goals because of the implication of expected performance, and has influence on self-set goals (Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997). People that possess higher self-efficacy generally set higher goals than people with low self-efficacy (Bandura & Cervone, 1983, 1986; Locke & Latham, 2002). Individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to demonstrate more commitment to assigned goals (Locke & Latham, 2002). Individuals with high self-efficacy respond better to negative feedback, and use better strategies to achieve results (Bandura & Cervone, 1983, 1986; Locke & Latham, 2002), whereas those individuals that possess a low self-efficacy may be easily discouraged by failure (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Locke & Latham 2002). Prior empirical research conducted by Bandura (1977) and Gist, Schwoerer, & Rosen (1989), demonstrate that self-efficacy has proven to be a better predictor of later performance than past behaviors (as cited by Reynolds, 2002).

Reynolds (2002) studied the Pygmalion and Golem effects within the supervisor's expectations, behavior, and to investigate the subordinate's job-specific self-efficacy varies to positive or negative expectations proposed by a supervisor. Rosenthal & Jacobson (1968) (as cited by Reynolds, 2002) explain the Pygmalion effect is of "one's behavior that reflects expectations about a second person leads the second person to act in ways that confirm the first person's expectations," (Reynolds, 2002). The Golem effect is the opposite of Pygmalion, where the negative expectations or behaviors cause

negative self-efficacy (Reynolds, 2002). According to Reynolds (2002) the study was able to prove positive and negative connections between supervisor expectations and subordinates' self-efficacy. The positive results were not surprising as they have been documented in past literature (Reynolds, 2002). However, the Golem effects were shown for the first time in a study. Due to ethical concerns, this had not been performed previously. This study was able to avoid this ethics situation by pre-testing workers' self-efficacy, showing video of job treatment, and tested on self-efficacy after viewing the video (Reynolds, 2002). Supervisors that had expressed verbally their negative expectations had an effect on subordinates and impacted their self-efficacy negatively (Reynolds, 2002).

Feedback is an essential aspect of goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002). Summary feedback provides people with the information to relate their progress in relation to their goals (Locke & Latham, 2002). Matsui, Okada, & Inoshida (1983), (as cited by Locke & Latham, 2002) state that if their goals are below target, people will increase effort or employ a new strategy. The use of goals and feedback together are more effective than goals alone (Locke & Latham, 2002; Bandura, 1983).

Task Complexity is the third moderator of goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002). According to Locke & Latham, (2002), if the task becomes more complex, higher strategies and skills must become automatized. The goal effects are dependent on one's capacity to utilize the appropriate task strategy and humans will vary greatly in their abilities (Locke & Latham, 2002). To realize the goal is a means to measure satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002). Mento, Locke, & Klein (1992), (as cited by Locke & Latham, 2002) describe goals as a reference point for satisfaction rather than

dissatisfaction. Exceeding goals has shown an increase in satisfaction with positive discrepancies; not reaching goals causes negative discrepancies (Locke & Latham 2002). However, there is a contradiction because those individuals that produce the most and have difficult goals are not satisfied. These people would be dissatisfied with producing less and have higher satisfaction ratings (Locke & Latham 2002).

Goal setting theory is geared towards motivation in workplace settings (Locke & Latham, 2002). According to Locke & Latham, (2002), it describes an individual's motivation and the possible outcomes on the workplace. Goal setting theory is related to social-cognitive theory as much of the focus is about the concept, causes and effects are of self-efficacy (Locke & Latham 2002). Regardless of subconscious motivation, goal setting theory is focused on the conscious motivation of the individual and the effects on performance and job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002).

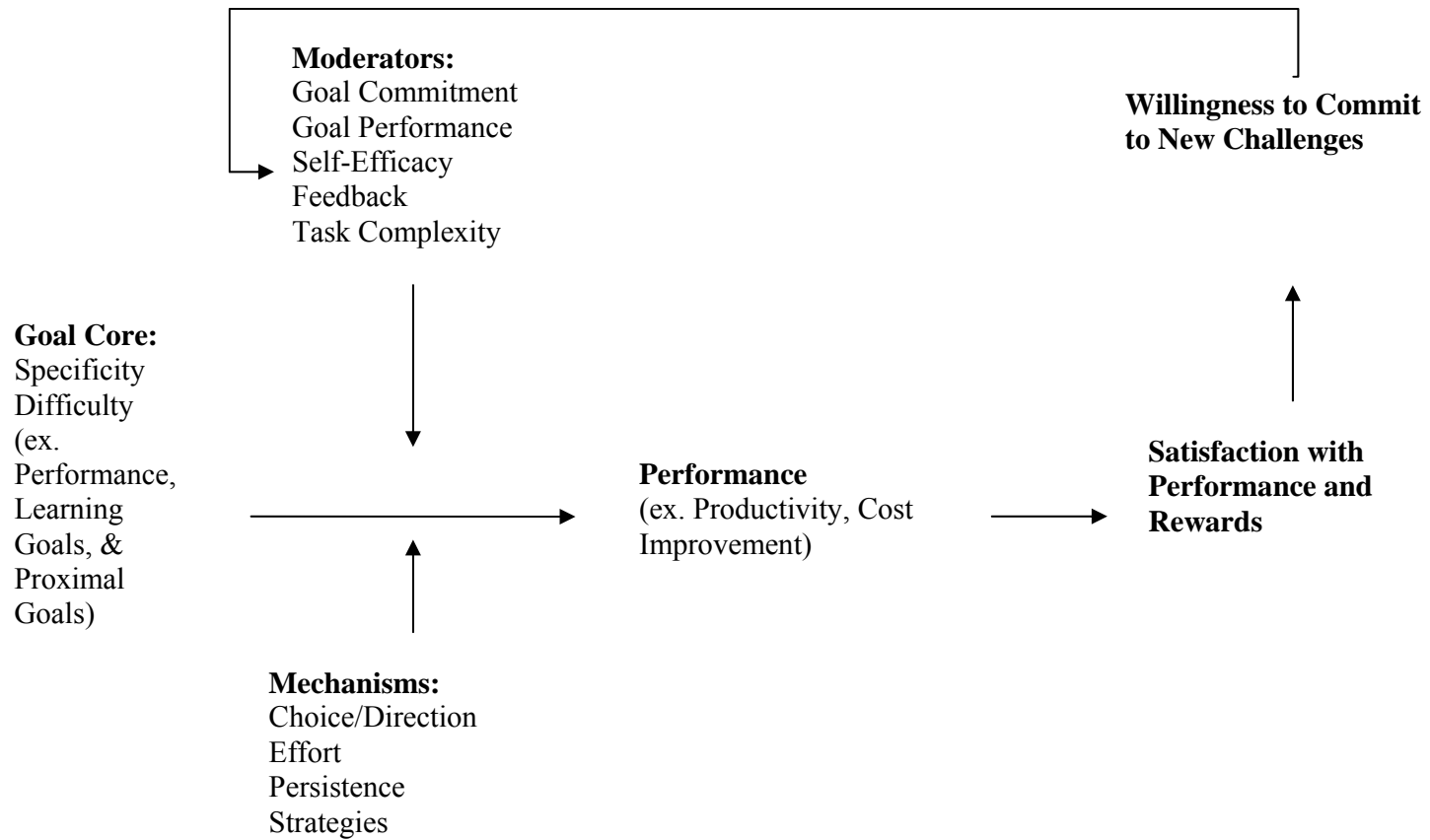


Figure 6: Essential Element of Goal Setting Theory and the High Performance Cycle (Locke & Latham, 2002).

In Figure 6, Goal Setting Theory and the High Performance Cycle are demonstrated. Goal setting theory remains consistent with social cognitive theory because of the emphasis on self-efficacy and conscious goals (Locke & Latham, 2002). The cycle begins with the goal core the specificity and difficulty level, the more specific a goal is, the less chance there is for variance, and the more difficult the goal, the higher performance, however, this can vary in the type of goal which can be proximal, learning or performance oriented (Locke & Latham, 2002). Goal mechanisms can affect performance by directing attention to goal-relevant activities and withdrawing attention from goal-irrelevant activities by the use of choice/direction, effort, persistence, and strategies (Locke & Latham, 2002). The goal performance will be stronger when individuals are committed to their goals; these moderators rely on goal importance, the person's level of self-efficacy, feedback, and task complexity towards performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). The individual must gauge their reward or performance in reference to the goal to position satisfaction versus dissatisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002). This leads a person to the next step of the model based on their willingness to commit to new challenges and their goal commitment (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Job Characteristics Model

Another approach to job design has been developed by Hackman & Oldham (1976, 1980; Ramlall, 2002). The approach is similar to that of Herzberg's where a proposed set of features must be built into jobs so that they can satisfy and motivate, but the theories differ in the particular traits of work that make it pleasing (Ramlall, 2002). The job characteristics model demonstrates relationships between three variables: core job dimensions, critical psychological states, and personal and work outcomes (Ramlall,

2002; Lee-Ross, 1998; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The three psychological states are the fundamental foundation of the model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). These critical psychological states must exist when for an individual to be motivated internally (Lee-Ross, 1998). In Figure 7, the Job Characteristics Model by Hackman & Oldham (1976) is displayed. They begin with experienced meaningfulness of the work, which is the degree the individual perceives the job as meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile; experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and the knowledge of the results of the work (Lee-Ross, 1998; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). According to Lee-Ross (1998) the five core job dimensions listed can bring the three psychological states: 1.) skill variety: the variety of activities needed to perform work and the different skills and talents of a person, 2.) task identity: a task that requires a completion, a job with a visible result, 3.) task significance: the job's impact on lives or other's work, 4.) autonomy: when an individual has experienced freedom and independence in completing the work, and 5.) feedback: when the individual obtains direct and clear information about their work performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Growth need strength can affect individuals at two points: the job characteristics and the psychological states, and the psychological states and internal motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The first link explains that an individual with high growth need strength will experience the psychological states stronger than those with low growth need strength (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The second link infers that an individual with high growth need strength will respond more positively to the psychological states when they are present rather than those with low growth need strength (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

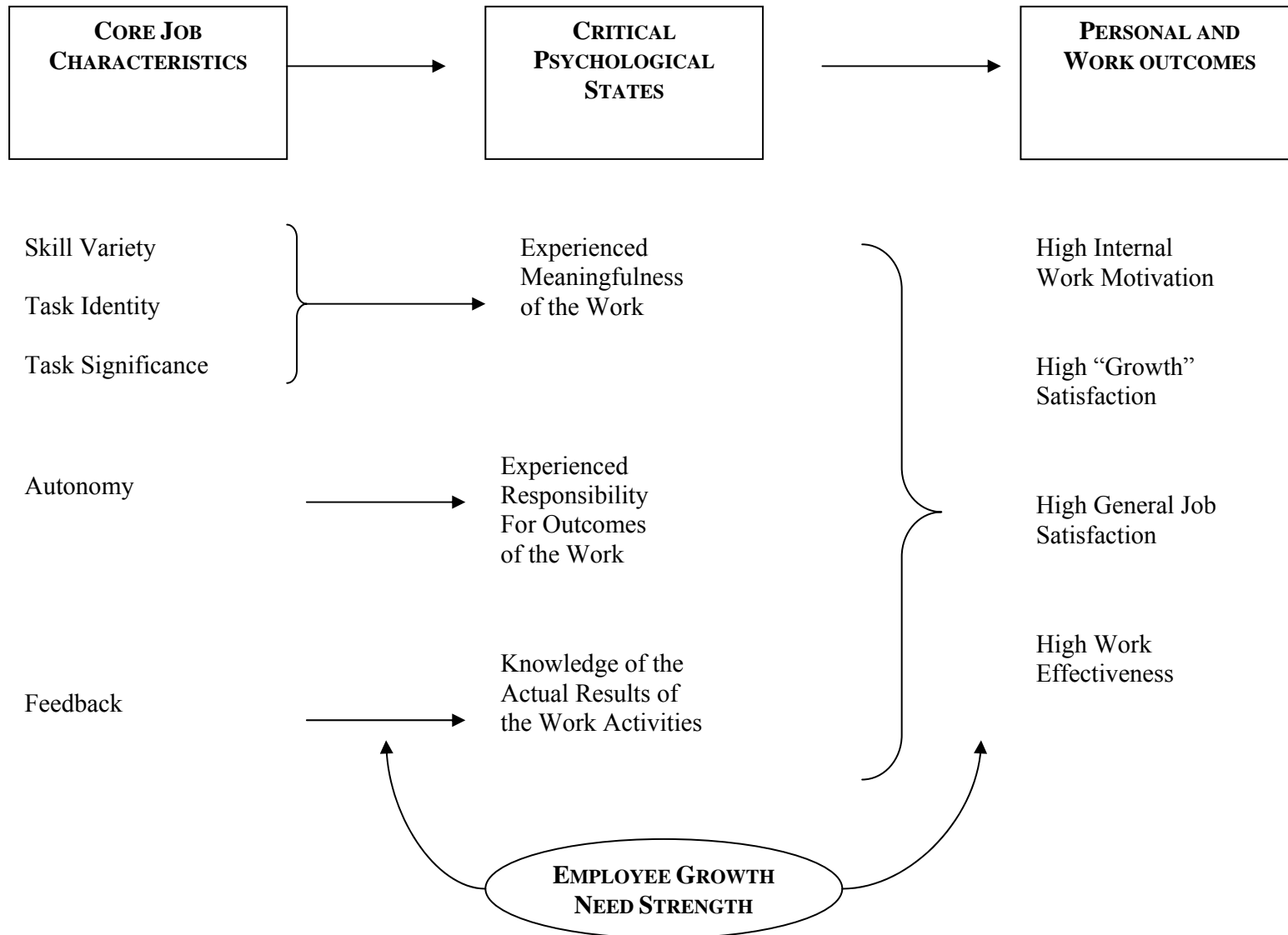


Figure 7: Job Characteristics Job Model of Work Motivation, Hackman & Oldham, (1976)

Lee-Ross (1998) conducted a study in the U.K using six small hotels, surveying 163 seasonal hotel workers. Lee-Ross (1998) administered the Hackman-Oldham Job Diagnostic survey; he chose this because it was not a widely used measure among service industries. Lee-Ross (1998) followed similar analysis procedures as in the original Hackman-Oldham study. Lee-Ross (1998) discovered that the Job Diagnostic instrument was reliable to measure work attitudes and motivation in this case of seasonal hotel workers. According to Lee- Ross (1998) some relationships between variables proved to be stronger or weaker than the original study. The Lee- Ross (1998) study demonstrates that task significance has a stronger relationship with the personal and work outcomes, which Lee-Ross has named ‘affective outcomes,’ and autonomy, internal work motivation and satisfaction. The employee growth need strength was lower in hotel workers than the original Hackman & Oldham study, which may not be useful in service studies (Lee-Ross, 1998). One of the most significant differences was the way that hotel workers responded to core job dimensions making the correlation between those and critical psychological states uncertain (Lee-Ross, 1998).

Theory X and Y

McGregor (1960) wrote The Human Side of Enterprise, after three decades of research in working conditions and workers’ attitudes toward their jobs (Bobic & Davis, 2003). McGregor was interested in studying motivation and how workers were motivated, and how managers and supervisors could encourage motivation (Bobic & Davis, 2003). To explore this needs based motivation theory, McGregor drew upon the works of Agrygis, Herzberg, and later Maslow, which would be one the most important foundations for his theory (Bobic & Davis, 2003). McGregor believed that most

organizations operated under classical management or Theory X (McGregor, 1960; Bobic & Davis, 2003). The three premises of Theory X are: 1.) that humans dislike work and will avoid it when they can, 2.) due to the belief in premise one, “humans must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put adequate effort to work,” 3.) humans have a preference to being directed, avoid responsibility, possess little ambition, and desire security, (McGregor, 1960; Bobic & Davis, 2003).

Theory X assumes that workers are more interested in attaining the lower needs such as safety and physiological needs, and Theory Y is after higher level needs such as social or esteem needs (McGregor, 1960; Bobic & Davis, 2003). Therefore, the Theory X assumptions are more autocratic and dictated, looks to humans as cost centers, and the Theory Y assumptions are democratic and contributing, employees as resources that can be used for return on investment (Strauss, 2002; Schrage, 2000). The six assumptions in Theory Y are as follows: 1.) This states that the average human does not dislike work and will expend physical and mental energy in work as naturally as play or rest, 2.) humans will exercise self-control and self-directions to the objectives that they are committed so external control and threat of punishment is not the only way to bring effort toward the organization’s goals, 3.) the commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement, 4.) the average human learns under proper conditions to accept and seek responsibility, 5.) the capacity to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly distributed in the worker population, 6.) under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual possibilities of the human being are only partially utilized, (McGregor, 1960; Bobic & Davis, 2003).

According to Bobic & Davis (2003), workers experience a different type of environment than that of the time The Human Side of Enterprise was published, Maslow's hierarchy needs to be questioned, and the concept of creativity is multidimensional. Bobic and Davis (2003) argue that the foundations and assumptions that Theory Y is better must be reconsidered. According to Salaman, (1979) (as cited by Bobic & Davis, 2003), Theory Y is considered to be a hypocritical form of Theory X, or it does not work in the real world may want to consider the mismatch of method to manager (Bobic & Davis, 2003). Bobic & Davis (2003), note a study conducted by Staw & Epstein (2000), showing that no matter what the management method, it was the fact that people had to be managed (Bobic & Davis, 2003). This was McGregor's original belief, and the reason he is categorized in the "human relations" school of management (Bobic & Davis, 2003; Strauss, 2002).

Ten Job Related Factors

Kovach (1995) conducted longitudinal studies and surveys on the ten job-related motivational items (Charles & Marshall, 1992). In this study, Kovach (1995) compares the results of three studies conducted in 1946, 1981, and 1995. The study consisted of industrial workers ranking their preferences of the ten job related factors. The factors contained in this list are intrinsic and extrinsic (Kovach, 1995; Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). These are the ten factors that comprise the list (Kovach, 1995):

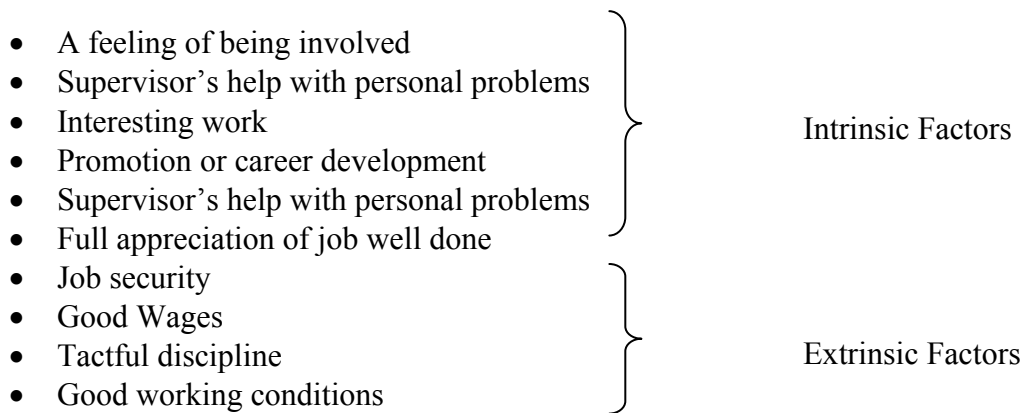


Figure 8: Ten Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivating Factors (Kovach, 1995; Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

The ten job related factors are similar to those in Herzberg's two-factor theory (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). Participants in the Kovach (1995) study would rank the job related factors from one to ten, with one as the most important and ten as the least important, then demographic and job information was collected. The demographic variables Kovach (1995) compared consisted of: gender, age, income level, job type, and organizational level. The sampling frame consisted of 1000 industrial workers were surveyed along with 100 supervisors (Kovach, 1995).

Kovach (1995) reported that the main changes that have occurred over time since the original survey in 1946 were that needs of workers shifted more towards ego or self-fulfillment needs. In contrast to 1946, the workers surveyed had just experienced a war and economic depression a decade earlier. In 1995, the United States had experienced over three decades of secure economic conditions; therefore, the needs of these workers have changed with time more towards intrinsic needs (Kovach, 1995). Kovach (1995) strengthens the explanation for this pattern by making a comparison of the survey to Herzberg's hygiene theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to Kovach (1995), "in the United States, organizations have done a better job satisfying the basic or

“deficit” needs of the worker than they have in satisfying the ego or self-fulfillment needs.”

Kovach (1995) introduces another strong argument in the study pertaining to the thought patterns of supervisors. A comparison of supervisors’ results was performed against the results in 1946, and not much had changed in the thought pattern of management. Kovach (1995) offers many explanations for this phenomenon including: supervisors have not looked at many behavioral studies; supervisors may think that employees are giving socially desirable responses. According to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994), (as cited by Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004), socially desirable responses can be defined as, “the tendency for others to choose items that reflect socially approved behaviors.” Socially desirable responses would not state the truthful interest in money, but other factors like interesting work (Kovach, 1995; Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004). However, Kovach (1995) suggests that employees may be more familiar with their own needs better than supervisors. Kovach (1995) offers one final supposition for managers unable to understand their employees, a term called “self-reference.” Self-reference is “managers offering workers rewards that would motivate managers,” (Kovach, 1995). Kovach (1995) notes that McClelland (1961) has stated that managers tend to rank higher on the need for achievement scale and prefer to have rewards that reflect how they have performed. Therefore, the problem of self-reference was still rampant over forty years in management’s understanding of employee motivation (Kovach, 1995).

Motivation Factors and the Caribbean

Charles & Marshall (1992) conducted a study to examine the motivation preferences of Caribbean hotel workers. The purpose of this study was 1.) to investigate the motivational preferences of hotel employees in the Caribbean. 2.) to examine the individual differences in motivational preferences among these workers. 3.) to explore the implications of the results for hotel managers in the Caribbean (Charles & Marshall, 1992). The researchers utilized data collected from a sample of 225 employees, which represented workers across all areas of a hotel, from seven hotels in the Bahamas, an island in the Caribbean (Charles & Marshall, 1992). The data collection procedure consisted of distributed self-administered questionnaires to the respondents contained questions on the ten job motivation factors and questions to collect demographic data (Charles & Marshall, 1992). The respondents were asked to rank ten job motivating factors and how much they motivated them to perform their jobs; this was completed by ranking factors from one to ten, with one as the most important and ten as the least important, as this was the same scale used by Kovach in his longitudinal employment studies (Charles & Marshall, 1992).

Charles & Marshall (1992) divided the respondents into two categories: organismic and organizational dimensions. The organismic variables were characteristics that the workers possessed and brought with them to the work situation. These variables included: age, gender, and education (Charles & Marshall, 1992). Organization variables were the characteristics that the workers acquired as a result of their employment. These organizational variables included: the rank in the organization, amount of guest contact in

their position, and the number of years in that current position (Charles & Marshall, 1992).

Charles & Marshall (1992) found that the respondents were high school graduates between the ages of 25-29, mostly female with high guest interaction in non-supervisory roles. The top motivators for workers in this environment were: good wages, good working conditions, and appreciation for a job well done. However, the authors note that this study is not conclusive and should be performed in other Caribbean locations or other developing countries to test the reliability (Charles & Marshall, 1992).

Motivation Factors in the U.S. & Canada

In the United States and Canada, Simons & Enz (1995) studied the motivation factors of hotel workers. The purpose of this study was 1.) to investigate the motivational preferences of hotel employees in the U.S. and Canada, 2.) to discover if hotel workers desired different things than workers in other industries, 3.) to investigate if there were any differences in job factor preferences based on gender and age, 4.) to probe any differences in motivation by department of the hotel (Simons & Enz, 1995).

Utilizing Kovach's ten job-related factors as the primary survey instrument, the researchers gathered a sample of 278 employees from twelve different hotels in the U.S. and Canada (Simons & Enz, 1995). Respondents ranked what an employee wants most from their workplace with a number 1 as the most important and the number 10 would indicate the least of what an employee wants from their workplace and collected demographic information, such as age, gender, and department for comparison against motivation factors (Simons & Enz, 1995). These respondents reported that good wages, job security, and opportunities for advancement and development were the most

important to U.S. and Canadian hospitality workers (Simons & Enz, 1995). According to Simons & Enz, (1995), this study demonstrated that there were not any significant differences between females and males in motivational factors in the U.S. and Canada.

The study was able to demonstrate many differences between industrial workers and hospitality workers (Simons & Enz, 1995). The top three motivators for industrial workers were: interesting work, full appreciation of work done, and a feeling of being in on things (Simons & Enz, 1995; Kovach, 1995). Simons & Enz (1995) offer explanations to the intrinsic variables mentioned foremost for the industrial workers. The assertion is that industrial workers are usually paid based on their skill level, as their skill level increases; their pay increases (Simons & Enz, 1995). The authors claim that the low wages associated with service sector jobs, job security, and opportunities for advancement may be the frustrations that current hotel workers are experiencing (Simons & Enz, 1995; Lo & Lamm, 2005).

Table 2: Hospitality vs. Industrial Job Related Factors Survey

1995 Hospitality	1995 Industrial
1. Good Wages	1. Interesting Work
2. Job Security	2. Full Appreciation of Work Done
3. Promotion & growth in the organization	3. Feeling of being “in on things”
4. Good working conditions	4. Job Security
5. Interesting Work	5. Good Wages
6. Full Appreciation of Work Done	6. Promotion & growth in the organization
7. Personal loyalty to employees	7. Good working conditions.
8. Feeling of being “in on things”	8. Personal loyalty to employees
9. Tactful Discipline	9. Tactful Discipline
10. Sympathetic help with personal problems	10. Sympathetic help with personal problems

(Simons & Enz, 1995; Kovach, 1995)

The motivational preferences factored by age were relatively the same in young industrial and hospitality employees. However, older hotel workers still found wages to

be an extremely important motivator while industrial workers demanded interesting work (Simons & Enz, 1995). Simons & Enz (1995) suggest that older industrial workers may have reached a career plateau, whereas older hospitality workers might find the job security issues stressful. This study did not report any significant differences in motivation by gender, however, found differences in motivation by department (Simons & Enz, 1995). The departments measured in this survey were food and beverage servers, front office, housekeeping, sales and marketing, accounting, human resource, and back of the house food and beverage employees (Simons & Enz, 1995). Simons and Enz (1995) highlighted the difference in motivation between the front office and food and beverage servers. Both positions ranked good wages first and opportunity second however, both positions require high guest contact and difficult situations, but servers receive recognition in their gratuity while front office workers do not, explaining the ranking of “appreciation” in the third position for front office workers (Simons & Enz, 1995).

According to Simons and Enz (1995) motivation is a force that occurs from within the individual and a manager can set the conditions for the motivation to occur. These statements are related to the Bandura (1977) concept of self-efficacy and Herzberg’s (1959) two factor theory.

Motivation Factors and Hong Kong

Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999) performed a study on hotel employees’ choice of job-motivators in Hong Kong hotel workers. The purpose of the study was: 1.) to investigate if there was any relationship between demographic factors and the ten job related factors in Hong Kong hotel employees. 2.) The researchers wanted to suggest motivation

programs to employers in Hong Kong based on employees' different demographic backgrounds (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

The study measured demographic characteristics such as gender and marital status and found that they played a significant role in influencing motivational factors (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). Using Kovach's ten job-related factors scale as a survey instrument, Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999) asked participants to rank their preferences from 1- 10, with 1 being the most important motivator for their job and 10 being the least of what they wanted from their jobs.

The top three factors for Hong Kong hotel employees were: opportunities for development and advancement, loyalty to employees, and good wages (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The authors explain the ranking of the top two factors may be related to Chinese cultural traditions of the "Face" and "Guanxi," (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). This Chinese cultural tradition is described as relationship building or building connections in Western terminology (Kivela & Leung, 2005).

The study noted some gender differences in that females were more inclined to value recognition factors like: "Appreciation and praise for a job well done," and "feeling of being involved," but, interesting work was also important. The intrinsic factors differed for females, unmarried employees, employees with higher education, and employees earning higher wages. Married workers also preferred more intrinsic factors (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The researchers speculated reasons for this may include the desire to develop their career, and in turn demand better treatment from management (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

The study demonstrated differences in job factors between management and hourly employees, where job security was more important to managers (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999; Kovach, 1995). Evidence showed that motivational preferences also differed by department (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999; Simons & Enz, 1995). The researchers suggest that due to the popularity of the factors across all demographic levels: interesting work, and opportunities for advancement and promotion, and a feeling of being involved should be integrated into an employee motivation program along with providing quality training programs, encourage employee participation, and redesign current jobs (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

Table 3: Hong Kong Hospitality vs. U.S. & Canada Motivational Factors Survey

1999 Hong Kong	1995 U.S. & Canada
1. Promotion & growth in the organization	1. Good Wages
2. Personal loyalty to employees	2. Job Security
3. Good Wages	3. Promotion & growth in the organization
4. Job Security	4. Good working conditions
5. Good working conditions	5. Interesting Work
6. Full Appreciation of Work Done	6. Full Appreciation of Work Done
7. Interesting Work	7. Personal loyalty to employees
8. Feeling of being “in on things”	8. Feeling of being “in on things”
9. Tactful Discipline	9. Tactful Discipline
10. Sympathetic help with personal problems	10. Sympathetic help with personal problems

(Simons & Enz, 1995; Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999)

Tipped Employees

According to Azar (2003), “tipping is a phenomenon that illustrates that economic behavior is often motivated by social norms and psychological reasons.” The social norm is defined by Elster (1989) as, “norms shared by other people and partly sustained by their approval or disapproval.” The violation of these norms can bring about feelings

of embarrassment, anxiety, guilt, and shame (Elster, 1989). Over three million people earn income in the U.S. from tips (Wessels, 1997; Azar, 2003). According to Lynn *et al* (1993), (as cited by Azar, 2003), there are over thirty-three service professions that receive tips.

Azar (2003) claims that tipping has implications for economics and management in four ways: 1.) as a social norm tipping has implications for social economics, 2.) people tip because of feelings of embarrassment or unfairness signifying implications for behavioral economics, 3.) as tipping is a source of income for over 3 million people, tipping is connected with labor economics, and 4.) suggests that tips are a form of consumer monitoring, an incentive for workers to provide good service, suggesting that companies should monitor the performance of tipped employees versus non-tipped employees.

Exploring the social economics sector and tipping, Azar (2003) explains that as a social norm tipping is theoretical and empirical. It is a social norm that is economic in makeup and can be measured and norms can be calculated (Azar, 2003). In the United States it is a social norm for everyone in restaurants to tip, while in Japan it is not a norm to tip in restaurants (Azar, 2003).

Tipping began in England over 500 years ago, traveled through other countries in Europe and entered the United States in the late nineteenth century (Azar, 2003). Tipping is claimed to become a custom in the United States by those affluent travelers in the late nineteenth century that wanted to appear fashionable with the latest trends in Europe (Azar, 2003).

In the segment of tipping and behavioral economics, studies by Elster 1989, 1998; and Rabin 1998 assert that tipping is a phenomenon based on social norms and feelings (as cited by Azar, 2003). There are feelings that there may be future service failure if a tip is inadequate, however, customers that do not plan on returning do leave tips, asserting that the power of the social norm is the motivation in tipping behavior (Azar, 2003).

Labor economics and tipping are important because it is an income source for millions of workers (Azar, 2003). There is much debate about the amount of wage a tipped employee should earn, minimum wage of \$5.15 an hour, or a tip credit wage because they earn additional money from tips; this varies from state to state within the United States (Azar, 2003; U.S Department of Labor, <http://www.dol.gov/esa/programs/whd/state/tipped.htm>)

Wessels (1997) sought to explain that the labor market for tipped restaurant workers as monopsonistic. Wessels (1997) examined minimum wages and tipped servers and found that when restaurants hire more servers, each server will serve fewer meals and earn less in tips. Therefore, servers must be paid higher wages and the company faces a rising supply curve (Wessels, 1997; Azar, 2003). In this way, restaurant companies can be thought of as a monopsony, existing in a fully competitive labor market (Azar, 2003). However, Wessels (1997) does note that this could also have a reverse effect resulting in many servers losing their jobs due to increased payroll in a restaurant.

Wessels (1997) introduced two data sets that examined the effects of minimum wage on servers to predict his model. The first data set (a state data set) was able to detect the full reverse C monopsony employment pattern (Wessels, 1997, Azar, 2003). The second

data set compared restaurants before and after a minimum wage hike and found a substantial increase in tipped employment, more so than non-tipped employment (Wessels, 1997).

The fourth segment of the tipping study by Azar (2003) was to monitor the performance of employees based on their tip levels. Azar (2003) states that the good workers will perform well and earn good tips; the bad workers will not earn good tips and go elsewhere for employment. Research performed by Lynn (2003) states a common fallacy that judging the amount of gratuity a server receives is commonly believed to be a representation of their service level. Lynn (2003) was able to prove that this is not the case. Studies conducted by Lynn (2003, 2001) state that many restaurant managers rely on tips as a motivator, an incentive to provide good service. However, the servers themselves do not correlate this relationship (Lynn, 2003). In one prior survey of servers in a five-star hotel, 47% did not see any relationship between the quality of their service and their income, and in another survey of twelve restaurants 50% of those surveyed believed that those that receive better than average tips only did so because of service (Lynn, 2003).

Motivators for tipped employees may have more of a relationship with their immediate supervisor or manager (Lynn, 2003, 2001). Many restaurant servers are rewarded with better, larger stations, or a better schedule, which are stronger motivators for servers (Lynn, 2003, 2001). Although the correlation between tip levels and service has proven to be weak, many managers insist on basing employee motivation on tip levels (Lynn, 2003, 2001). It is commonly believed that tip levels are an indicator of service quality and customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Lynn, 2003, 2001). Lynn

(2003) suggests that the reasons for this may be the fact that many studies on tipping have been unpublished, and the studies that are published are in academic journals that are not widely read by practicing managers. Lynn (2003) suggests that managers evaluate service quality by means of mystery shoppers and comment cards, and look for different ways to motivate service personnel.

Tipped Employee Motivation Theories

Weaver (1988) states his belief that hourly and salaried workers differ in their motivations. An example demonstrated explains when a hotel changes hands or brands that the hourly employees generally stay, while management leaves to continue their career and loyalty to the company (Weaver, 1988). Weaver (1988) criticizes existing theories of motivation and management, explaining their applicability is not widespread to all types of workers. Weaver (1988) claims that Maslow (1943) and the hierarchy of human needs may be possible for those in salaried positions, but provide little relevance to those in positions such as: busboy or dishwasher, with little room for opportunity. The same belief is held for Herzberg's two factor theory, Weaver (1988) believes those in management will endure because of the motivators, but believes this approach is not effective for hourly employees.

Weaver (1988) also holds McGregor (1960) in contempt for Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X is a the classical management theory described by three postulates as: 1.) that humans dislike work and will avoid it when they can, 2.) due to the belief in premise one, "humans must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put adequate effort to work," 3.) humans have a preference to being directed, avoid responsibility, possess little ambition, and desire security, (McGregor, 1960; Bobic &

Davis, 2003). Theory X assumes that all workers are lazy and need negative reinforcement to achieve results (Weaver, 1988).

Theory Y contains six assumptions: 1.) This states that the average human does not dislike work and will expend physical and mental energy in work as naturally as play or rest, 2.) humans will exercise self-control and self-directions to the objectives that they are committed so external control and threat of punishment is not the only way to bring effort toward the organization's goals, 3.) the commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement, 4.) the average human learns under proper conditions to accept and seek responsibility, 5.) the capacity to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly distributed in the worker population, 6.) under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual possibilities of the human being are only partially utilized, (McGregor, 1960; Bobic & Davis, 2003). Theory Y assumes that because workers are there that they want to perform and this uses positive reinforcement (Weaver, 1988).

Weaver (1988) states that many hotel chains have made a conscious effort to move away from Theory X type management and move into the positive, Theory Y management. Theory Y does yield positive results because people are praised and encouraged, however, workers will not necessarily perform well because their management is nice (Weaver, 1988).

Weaver (1988) discusses Theory Z which was introduced by Ouchi (1981) and is based on the Japanese model of management, encouraging strong company philosophy and culture. Theory Z developed over time in Japan (Ouchi, 1981). At the WWII major

firms in Japan were composed of small groups called Zaibatsu (Ouchi, 1981). These Zaibatsu were comprised of steel companies, shipping, insurance and trading companies all centered with a powerful bank (Ouchi, 1981). Then there were satellite companies that provided service to their one major company, producing a bilateral monopoly (Ouchi, 1981). In this setting, because the customer has one supplier and vice-versa, a strong relationship is developed (Ouchi, 1981). According to Ouchi (1981), Zaibatsu were legally dissolved after WWII, but the spirit of Zaibatsu and lifetime employment endures. In Japan, every firm shares bonus pay with all of the employees, based on the organization's performance as a whole usually paid every six months, Japanese firms have a large number of temporary employees, usually comprised of women, and the satellite firms exist at the larger firms' disposal (Ouchi, 1981).

In Japan, employees are placed into firms by the University and private schools that have relationships with the firms (Ouchi, 1981). After hiring, the employees are guaranteed lifetime employment and a comfortable retirement (Ouchi, 1981). According to Ouchi (1981), an employee will have to work for ten years in many different positions even before being considered for promotion. Therefore, in Japan, it is very important to attain lifetime employment with a firm, group reward, quality assurance, and employee loyalty (Ouchi, 1981). Theory Z insists that workers are part of a family or team (Weaver, 1988). Many hotel companies, such as Marriott, implemented company songs, which are more popular with managers than hourly employees (Weaver, 1988).

Weaver (1988) expressed that hotel workers may be more cynical than employees in other industries. Weaver (1988) offers the explanation that hotel workers observe people's behavior when they are away from home. Weaver (1988) extends that hourly

employees in the hotel industry are better in tune with their motivation needs than management and perceive motivation programs as 'hot air'. In response to those feelings, Weaver (1988) developed Theory M as a potential motivator for hourly employees. The primary motivator in this theory is money (Weaver, 1988). The main postulate of this theory is to make employees feel that they are being paid what they are worth (Weaver, 1988). The Theory M system is based on above-average performance (Weaver, 1988). Weaver (1988) describes the system as being based on having a set amount of expected sales, and then an incentive would be paid for any amount above the base. Graduated incentives could be used for amounts that go over the base (Weaver, 1988). Weaver (1988) explains that the rules for the incentive must be as simple as possible, and incentives should be paid out as soon as possible. According to Weaver (1988), he argues that raising minimum wage will not produce the same effect as the incentive because it is not the same as being paid for what you are worth.

Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette (2004) performed a study to prove that discrepancies exist between what people state and what they do in regards to pay. According to Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette (2004) it has been acknowledged that many human resource researchers have made claims that pay is not the most important motivator. Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette (2004) have challenged that notion with a phenomenon known as socially desirable responding. According to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994), (as cited by Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004), socially desirable responses can be defined as, "the tendency for others to choose items that reflect socially approved behaviors." Socially desirable responses would not state the truthful interest in money, but other factors like interesting work (Kovach, 1995; Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004). This phenomenon

could send incorrect message will influence employers and damage well structured compensation systems (Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004). However, it is true that pay may not be a motivator for all workers in all types of situations; pay is more important to some types of people possessing high self-efficacy and high needs for achievement, and less important to others (Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004). Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette (2004) suggest that employers should evaluate their current pay systems to judge their effectiveness.

Weaver (1988) suggests that the incentive program, Theory M, may be best introduced at a poor performing property or one that has union talks in the background as an act to incite motivation. Many hospitality establishments have had temporary incentive programs, but Theory M is meant to be continual (Weaver, 1988). If all tipped employees' wages were tied to their output, the industry may be able to solve its motivation problems (Weaver, 1988).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment is defined as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization,” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment can be distinguished by three related factors: 1.) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, 2.) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and 3.) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). According to Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979), after a thorough examination of prior research pertaining to organizational commitment, it was strongly inferred that prior definitions of the term organizational commitment were

not describing the same phenomenon. Organizational commitment can be divided into two facets: attitudinal and behavioral (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). The concept of commitment is much different than that of satisfaction because commitment entails a broader range of concept as the affective response to the organization as a whole, whereas job satisfaction puts emphasis on a specific task environment, thus making organization commitment much more stable (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Side Bet Theory

Becker (1960) described the concept of commitment as, “consistent lines of activity.” Consequently, the accretion of “side bets” would be lost if the action ceased (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Side bets have been defined by Meyer and Allen (1984) as anything tangible and intangible that can be of value that a person has invested such as time, effort, or money that would be considered insignificant if an individual were to leave an organization.

Meyer and Allen (1984) redefined prior definitions of organizational commitment as developed by Becker (1960) as “continuance commitment,” this concept is described as the employees that remain with a company because of fear of loss of benefits, seniority, status, or organization specific skills (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, 1990). The definition of organizational commitment developed by Porter (1974) was also redefined into the definition of “affective commitment.” The term affective commitment is described as those employees that really want to stay with an employer (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, 1990). Continuance and affective commitment are considered to be independent of one another; one type of commitment does not guarantee another type of commitment (Meyer & Allen 1984).

Prior research provided by Ritzer & Trice (1969), (as cited by Meyer & Allen, 1984), states that side bets accumulate over time and age is the best indicator of measures that are considered in wagering a side bet with an organization. Previous studies conducted by Arnold & Feldman (1982; Steers; 1977 have indicated that older employees and those with tenure Porter et al 1974; Welsch & LaVan, 1981) have shown positive correlations on the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979) (as cited by Meyer & Allen, 1984). However, Meyer & Allen (1984) found that in their study that the instrument they used for measuring Becker's (1960) side bet theory (the Ritzer-Trice and Hrebiniak-Alutto scales) were saturated with affective commitment leaving the theory to be tested inappropriately. Suggestions for further research in side bet theory was to find a measure that assesses and individuals' perceptions concerning the amount and extent of side bets made (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Organizational Commitment and Social Relationships in the Workplace

One of the areas that Madsen, Miller, & John (2005) examined in their study was social relationships and organizational commitment. According to Cook & Wall (1980) organizational commitment consists of three areas: 1.) identification: which is described as the connection and pride workers experience toward their workplace, 2.) involvement: the perceived contribution that a worker provides, or how they feel towards an organization; this also deals with effort required and the output of additional work to an organization, 3.) loyalty: which can be described as a worker's intent to leave especially if offered higher salary elsewhere, (as cited by Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005).

Madsen, Miller, & John (2005) introduce the term 'social relationships in the workplace,' this is defined as an employee's positive or negative feelings, attitude, or perceptions toward workplace associates which include supervisors, subordinates, and peers. According to Salaman, (1974) there are employee groups called occupational communities (as cited by Lee-Ross, 1999). Occupational communities consist of people that work in the same occupation, work together, or have some sort of commonality together and to some degree, separate from the rest of society, Salaman, 1974 (as cited by Lee-Ross, 1999). Salaman (1974) states that occupational communities are comprised of many facets: 1.) a work-based self-image is when a worker views themselves based on their occupational role or their self-image is based on their occupational role, 2.) work-based reference group is when the workers are socialized with others that share the same attitudes, views, and values, 3.) employees then develop a fusion of a work and non-work life, members friends are those from work, with the same interests and hobbies, talking and reading about work after work, 4.) workers then start to view their work as having symbolic or special significance, 5.) this causes members of the occupational community to believe that because their jobs are ill defined procedures or techniques of their job to retain their status, and utilize creativity and responsibility, 6.) being able to use talents creates intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction, 7.) people in these occupational communities tend to view these jobs as careers and have pride in their work, stigmatism experienced from mainstream society lends others in the occupational community to give each other support, 8.) these occupational communities are comprised of two types: cosmopolitan which is the same job in different geographic areas and local which is people that work the same job in the same location (as cited by Lee-Ross, 1999).

Madsen, Miller, & John (2005) confirmed that employees that have positive social relations possessed more organizational commitment. However, females in that study viewed their relationships with peers, subordinates, and supervisors more positively than males (Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005).

Organizational Commitment and the Hospitality Industry

In the hospitality industry, Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, (1990), conducted a study to determine if affective and continuance commitment was able to be measured in a scale called the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, (OCQ), by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979). The study examined the relationships between affective and continuance commitment with 19 other job attitudes and selected demographic factors (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, (1990). Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, (1990) collected a sample consisting of 186 pizza restaurant managers in the United States.

The results of this study were able to demonstrate the difference between affective and continuance commitment (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, (1990). The report suggested that affective commitment may be useful to determine variances in job involvement, job satisfaction, service orientation, and turnover intentions of restaurant managers (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, 1990). Managers that are affectively committed to their jobs will display higher levels of job involvement, job satisfaction, service orientation, and will less likely have intentions of turnover (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, 1990). The study also suggested that continuance commitment was helpful in explaining job security and turnover intentions of restaurant managers (Murray, Gregoire, & Downey, 1990).

Another study in the hospitality industry conducted by LaLopa (1997) studied commitment and turnover in resort jobs among non-supervisory resort employees in Michigan. LaLopa (1997) tracked voluntary turnover for one year at four resorts. Resort job satisfaction was a significant predictor of organizational commitment and turnover (LaLopa, 1997). Dealing with customers was one factor measured in this study, and it was discovered that there is a positive correlation between dealing with customers and organizational commitment (LaLopa, 1997). Another factor measured by LaLopa (1997) was to consider a resort job was a bona fide career; there was evidence demonstrating that employees that felt that a resort job was a bona fide career their organizational commitment increases. This claim was validated in a later study of customer service employees in the service industry conducted by Susskind, Borchgrevink, Kacmar, & Brymer (2000).

Roehl & Swerdlow (1999) devised a study analyzing training programs in the hospitality industry and measured the programs against organizational commitment. Roehl & Swerdlow (1999) took a convenience sample of five hotels in the western United States. This study discovered that training programs have a positive relationship with employee perceptions of supervisor quality and morale (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999). Two findings were significant: 1.) the variables of: measures of training, work environment, and organizational commitment were not related to demographics, or current job position traits, or tenure at a job; this indicates that there is a direct relationship between work environment and organizational commitment, and the indirect relationship training has with organizational commitment was discovered all across the sample in this study (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999). The study was able to demonstrate that

training programs do have a strong, indirect effect on organizational commitment in hospitality organizations (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999). Another study conducted on new hotel employees by Lam, Lo, & Chan (2002) agreed that training programs can reduce new employees' turnover intentions. Job satisfaction was a significant variable in predicting organizational commitment (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002). During an employee's newcomer period, a supervisor's mentoring may improve a newcomer's commitment (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002).

Timeline

A timeline was developed to outline the various theories of employee motivation and organizational commitment that were mentioned in the theoretical framework for this study. The employee motivation theorist is listed along with year of the publication of their theory used for this thesis, and the organizational behavior theorist are listed on the bottom half of the timeline in the same manner.

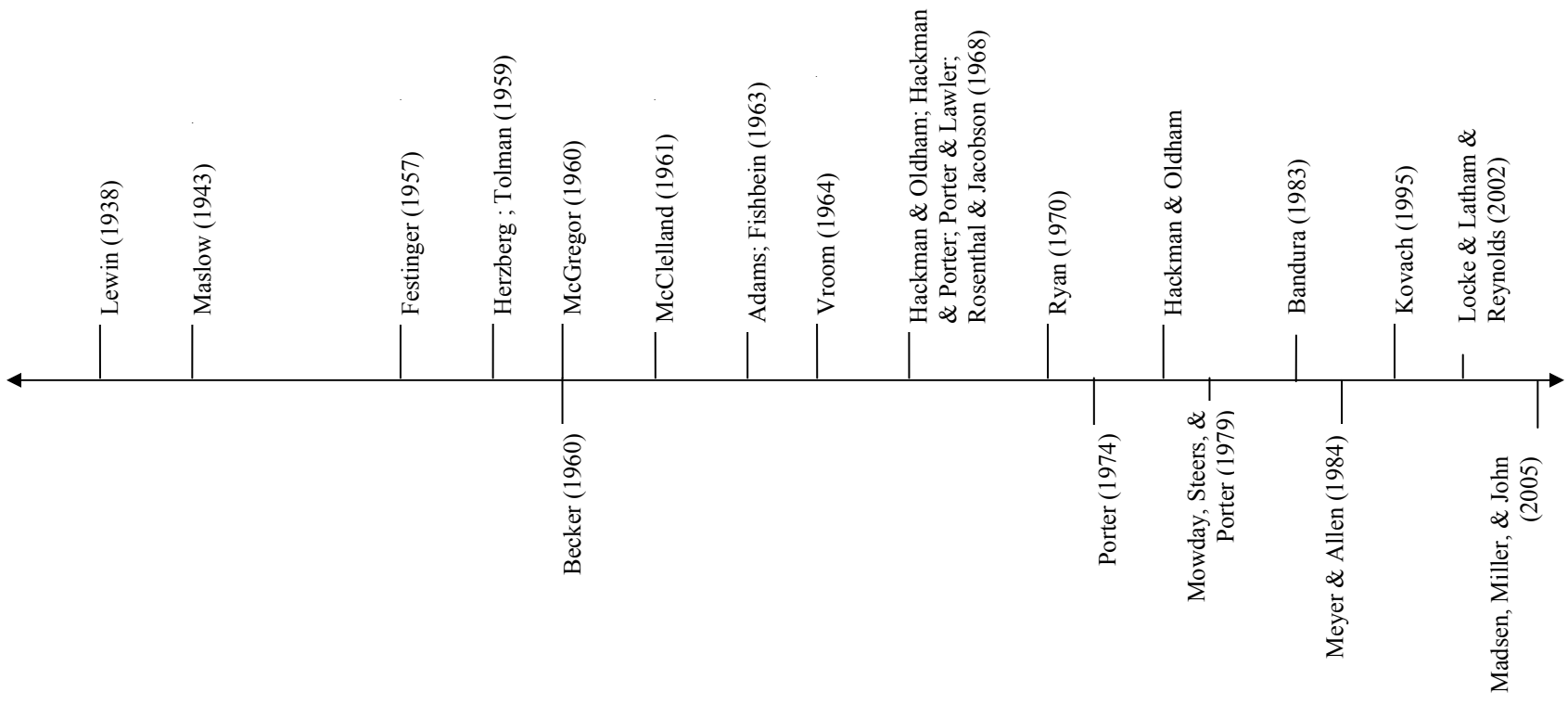


Figure 9: Timeline of Employee Motivation & Organizational Commitment Theories

Synthesis of Employee Motivation and Organizational Commitment Theories

In this theoretical framework for this thesis study, various approaches to motivation have been explored and described in four groupings: 1) employee motivation need theories highlighting Maslow (1943) and McClelland (1961); 2) employee motivation equity theories detailing the work of Adams (1963), derived prior work by Festinger (1957); 3) employee motivation expectancy theories developed by Vroom (1964), resulting from earlier theories of Lewin, expanded by Hackman & Porter (1968), and further expansion of expectancy theory by Porter & Lawler (1968); 4) task and goal employee motivation theories developed by Herzberg (1959), Locke & Latham (2002) based from prior work of Ryan (1970), Reynolds (2002) derived from Rosenthal & Jacobson (1968), followed by Hackman & Oldham (1968) and concluding with McGregor (1960).

Organization commitment theories have also been discussed in this thesis study. This study divided the existing theories of organizational commitment into four categories: 1) organization commitment defined by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979), based off of the prior work of Becker (1960); 2) the development of side-bet theory from Meyer & Allen (1984), also derivative of the prior work of Becker; 3) social relationships and organizational commitment by Madsen, Miller, & John (2005); 4) various applications in the hospitality industry.

The existing literature has demonstrated these theories in a cognitive structure and reported examples of several researchers testing the validity of the concepts and relevance in each theory. It is important to constantly review established theories of motivation and organizational commitment to test the applicability to a business

organization. As all industries differ from another, they will attract and retain different types of people. That is why it is necessary for a business to ask the following questions 1) what kind of organization is operating? 2) Who are the employees of this operation? 3) What are the needs of this operation and employee? 4) How can the employee and operation meet mutual goals?

An organizational process that produces successful results should be documented and explained theoretically. Together, theorists and practitioners can work to accomplish the intended outcomes if a solid foundation in theory is built. That is why it is necessary to gain a deeper understanding of existing theories of employee motivation and organizational commitment. This thesis provided an introduction to various theories of employee motivation and organizational commitment citing respective literature sources for readers to further investigate.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to explore the similarities and differences in motivation and organizational commitment of hourly tipped and non-tipped employees. This study desires to provide practitioners in the restaurant industry a comparison and analysis of employee motivation between the two employment groups and their level of organizational commitment.

This chapter introduces the research design and procedures utilized to accomplish the purpose of this study. The sampling frame, questionnaire instrument, data collection procedure, and data analysis are described in this chapter.

Research Design

This study utilized a survey to investigate and understand current hourly tipped and non-tipped restaurant employees' motivation and organizational commitment. This section contains the descriptions of: the sampling frame, questionnaire instrument, and data collection procedures.

Sampling Frame

The sample for this study was a convenience sample consisting of 104 restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped, front of the house personnel employed in a single branded, national restaurant chain located in the metropolitan area of Orlando, Florida. Out of ten

of these specific branded restaurant properties, only three were selected to participate in this study. This restaurant chain was selected because of its national prominence as well as the company's alumni and recruiting relationship with the Rosen College of Hospitality Management at the University of Central Florida. In order not to interfere with dinner operations the researcher administered the surveys to hourly tipped and non-tipped employees during the late afternoon and prior to each restaurant's nightly dinner rush. This was done in this manner to not interfere or distract the staff from performing their duties as well as control for differences in results due to time of the day and day of the week. The days of the week and the number of participants are described in Table 4.

Table 4: Questionnaire Distribution (n=104)

Location	Day of the Week	Number of Participants
Restaurant 1	Monday	17
Restaurant 2	Tuesday	10
Restaurant 3	Monday	22
Restaurant 1	Monday	21
Restaurant 2	Monday	9
Restaurant 3	Friday	3
Restaurant 3	Tuesday	8
Restaurant 2	Thursday	9
Restaurant 1	Monday	5
		Total=104

Questionnaire Instrument

The survey questionnaire instrument was comprised of three sections: 1.) twelve motivational factors, 2.) nine questions from the reduced OCQ from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), and a section concerning demographic information of gender, age, race, education level, marital status, job type and tenure in the industry. The questionnaire was

developed to collect information to answer the research objectives. The questions were designed to be answered in a five-point Likert scale format for the motivation and organizational commitment scale, and multiple choice or categorical variables relating to respondent demographics.

The first section of the survey consisted of the following twelve items used as motivational factors: a feeling of being involved, job security, supervisor's help with personal problems, good wages, interesting work, tactful discipline, promotion or career development, good working conditions, management/supervisor loyalty to employees, gratitude for a job well done, monetary incentives for a job well done, and public celebration for a job well done. These questions were answered in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Very Unimportant to 5=Very Important. This was used to understand the motivational set of hourly tipped or non-tipped restaurant workers.

The second section of the survey was comprised of the shortened OCQ from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). This segment of the survey was used to measure an hourly tipped or non-tipped restaurant workers' commitment to their current organization. The nine statements were: 1.) I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization, 2.) I find that my values and organization's values are very similar, 3.) I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, 4.) This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance, 5.) I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined, 6.) I really care about the fate of this organization, 7.) For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work, 8.) I know what is expected of me at my job, and 9.) I am able to do what I do best every day (Mowday, Steers, and

Porter, 1979). These questions were answered in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree.

The third portion of the survey collected demographic data about the participants. This was critical as gender, age, race, education level, marital status, job type and tenure, and tenure in the industry.

Data Collection

The data collection method chosen for this study was a self-administered questionnaire. Each respondent was given a consent form to read and sign before completing the questionnaire and the primary researcher explained the procedure of the questionnaire and written instructions were also provided. The consent form can be found in Appendix B. To comply with the University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board for expedited review, the researcher completed a form stating: the title of the research study, the principal investigator, supervisor of project, the dates of the proposed research, source of the funding, the scientific purpose of the project, the research methodology, the anticipated benefits or risk to participants, the data collection process, the informed consent process used, and signatures of the principal investigator and faculty chair. The questionnaire and the informed consent to participate were attached to the form. A copy of the IRB approval is located in Appendix A, and the survey questionnaire is located in Appendix C.

Data Collection Procedure

The surveys were administered during various days during the week dependent on the restaurant manager's permission to visit the site. The participants were 104 front of the house, hourly tipped and non-tipped employees from a national single restaurant chain located in metropolitan area of Orlando, Florida.

As each survey was distributed, the researcher explained the consent form and the directions for completing each survey. The researcher explained that the respondents' identity was kept confidential using a numerical coding system and participation was voluntary.

Data Analysis

The results are geared to answering the following questions:

1. What are casual dining chain restaurant hourly employees' motivations?
2. Does employee motivation differ depending upon tipped and non-tipped hourly employees?
3. Does employee motivation differ depending upon any of the following socio-demographic variables?
 - 3.1. Does employee motivation differ depending upon gender?
 - 3.2. Does employee motivation differ depending upon age group?
 - 3.3. Does employee motivation differ depending upon marital status?
 - 3.4. Does employee motivation differ depending upon job position?
 - 3.5. Does employee motivation differ depending upon job-tenure?
 - 3.6. Does employee motivation differ depending upon years in the industry?

4. Does employee motivation correlate with organizational commitment?

There were 104 questionnaires distributed and the collected data was entered and analyzed using Statistical Package of Social Sciences 11.5 (SPSS). Descriptive statistic procedures were used to generate a profile of the respondents' characteristics and as a result a frequency analysis was conducted on research question #1.

To answer research question two, the data was collapsed into tipped and non-tipped employees and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to detect variances between employee motivation and tipped and non-tipped restaurant employees.

To answer research question three, the socio-demographics were analyzed against employee motivation. ANOVA was used to compare the variance between employee motivation and gender, employee motivation and age, employee motivation and marital status, employee motivation and job position, employee motivation and years in current job, employee motivation and years in the industry, and organizational commitment and gender.

For research question #4 the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient procedure was used to test for the presence of a relationship between the employee motivation variables and the organizational commitment variables.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the results of the data analysis as produced using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences 11.5 (SPSS) for each of the four research questions. Initially, the descriptive characteristics for the sample respondents are described. Next, research question 1 will show the overall employee rankings of employee motivation and organizational commitment; research questions 2 and 3 will be explained via the application of the one-way analysis of variance procedure (ANOVA) with a specific focus on discussing significant variances as denoted by demographic variables. Research question #4 is analyzed using the Pearson product-moment coefficient correlation procedure in an effort to express the strength and direction of a linear relationship between the employee motivation variables and organizational commitment variables. The last section of this chapter provides a comprehensive summary of the major findings for each research question as they relate to the purpose of this study.

Descriptive Statistics

This section will focus on the descriptive statistics to illustrate the characteristics of the sample studied and present the frequencies for all of the questions that are contained in the questionnaire.

Profile of Respondents

The respondents' characteristics were in the third segment of the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics of the respondents are presented in Table 5. The sample of respondents consisted of a slightly higher female percentage (56.3%). The majority of the respondents were white (68.9%), followed by Hispanics (13.6%). A large portion of the respondents (31.1%) were age 20 and younger, another large segment was age 21-25 at (29.1%), displaying that more than half of the sample was (60.2%) was age 25 and younger. The next highest portions were those aged 36+ at (15.5%), followed by 31-35 at (12.6%) and 26-30 at (11.7%). The distribution of tipped hourly employees was (85.4%) and non-tipped hourly employees were (14.6%).

Table 5: Socio-demographic Profile of Respondents (n=104)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender		
Female	58	56.3
Male	<u>45</u>	<u>43.7</u>
	103	100%
Age Range		
16-20	32	31.1
21-25	30	29.1
26-30	12	11.7
31-35	13	12.6
36+	<u>16</u>	<u>15.5</u>
	103	100%
Race of Respondent		
African-American	11	10.7
Asian	4	3.9
Hispanic	14	13.6
White	71	68.9
Other	<u>3</u>	<u>2.9</u>
	103	100%
Marital Status		
Single	73	71.6
Couple	<u>29</u>	<u>28.4</u>
	102	100%
Education		
GED	3	3.0

High School Diploma	27	26.7
1-2 Years Past High School	29	28.7
Four Year College Program	32	31.7
Master's Degree	3	3.0
Other	<u>7</u>	<u>6.9</u>
	101	100%
Tenure at Current Job		
Less than one year	53	52
1-3 years	32	31.4
3-6 years	8	7.8
6-9 years	4	3.9
More than 9 years	<u>5</u>	<u>4.9</u>
	102	100%
Years in this Industry		
Less than one year	23	22.5
1-3 years	31	30.4
3-6 years	18	17.6
6-9 years	10	9.8
More than 9 years	<u>20</u>	<u>19.6</u>
	102	100%
Job Title		
Server	75	72.8
Bartender	10	9.7
Hostess/Greeter	15	14.6
Other	3	2.9
	103	100%

Employee Motivation Scale

The first section of the questionnaire was the scale of employee motivation proposed by Kovach (1995). This scale is composed of ten job motivating factors that are considered to be intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Kovach, 1995; Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The reason for utilizing this scale was to determine current hourly restaurant national chain employees' motivations towards their jobs. Two questions were added to the original ten factors: 'monetary incentives for a job well done' and 'public celebration for a job well done.' These items were added based on the review of related literature that highlighted the importance of compensation (Weaver, 1988; Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004), and public celebrations (McClelland, 1961).

To demonstrate this study’s respondent preferences in employee motivation factors, descriptive statistics were used to gather the collect the mean and standard deviation for each variable. The variables are ranked in ascending order by the mean. Table 6 demonstrates the respondents’ preferences for this thesis study.

Table 6: Employee Motivation Overall Rankings

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	104	4.57	.86
Good Working Conditions	104	4.56	.86
Job Security	104	4.50	.84
Good Wages	103	4.46	.92
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	104	4.37	.91
A Feeling of Being Involved	104	4.35	.81
Promotion or Career Development	104	4.27	.95
Interesting Work	103	4.25	.87
Tactful Discipline	103	4.17	.81
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	103	3.92	1.04
Supervisor’s Help with Personal Problems	104	3.65	1.24
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	104	3.31	1.05

The participants in this thesis study ranked the intrinsic factor of ‘management loyalty to employees,’ in the first position; however, the next three factors that followed were extrinsic consisting of ‘good working conditions,’ ‘job security,’ and ‘good wages,’ this indicates that the restaurant industry may not meet employees’ deficit needs. The bottom two factors were ‘supervisor’s help with personal problems’ and ‘public celebration for a job well done,’ this indicates that today’s employee does not want assistance from their boss in personal problems or public recognition for accomplishments.

In order to measure the impact of motivation the one-way analysis of variance was used to check for significant differences between groups (Pallant, 2003). This is important to note because Enz (2004) states that the pay inequity between tipped and

non-tipped restaurant employees is a source of tension and should be investigated by the industry, and the one-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the employee motivation variables in this thesis study.

Table 7 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and hourly tipped and non-tipped national chain restaurant employees. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The tipped and non-tipped hourly employee motivation variables that had a significant difference in employee motivation are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Employee Motivation ANOVA of Tipped and Non-tipped Hourly Employees

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Position	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	Tipped	4.31	.835	88	2.617	.109
	Non-Tipped	4.67	.488	15		
Job Security	Tipped	4.45	.870	88	1.422	.236
	Non-Tipped	4.73	.594	15		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	Tipped	3.61	1.254	88	.290	.592
	Non-Tipped	3.80	1.146	15		
Good Wages	Tipped	4.43	.960	87	.881	.350
	Non-Tipped	4.67	.617	15		
Interesting Work	Tipped	4.18	.909	87	4.008	.048**
	Non-Tipped	4.67	.488	15		
Tactful Discipline	Tipped	4.15	.824	88	1.477	.227
	Non-Tipped	4.43	.646	14		
Promotion or Career Development	Tipped	4.17	.985	88	7.280	.008***
	Non-Tipped	4.87	.352	15		
Good Working Conditions	Tipped	4.51	.897	88	1.450	.231
	Non-Tipped	4.80	.561	15		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	Tipped	4.56	.895	88	.208	.649
	Non-Tipped	4.67	.617	15		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	Tipped	4.28	.958	88	5.382	.022**
	Non-Tipped	4.87	.352	15		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	Tipped	3.86	1.069	87	1.952	.165
	Non-Tipped	4.27	.799	15		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	Tipped	3.26	1.077	88	1.318	.254
	Non-Tipped	3.60	.910	15		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

Significant differences were revealed in performing the ANOVA in three of the twelve employee motivation variables. The significance values that were less than .05 were “interesting work ($p=.048$),” “promotion or career development ($p=.008$),” and “gratitude for a job well done ($p=.022$).” The results indicate that there was significant difference between the two employee groups. This table is demonstrating that non-tipped hourly employees care more about the variables ‘interesting work,’ ‘promotion or career development,’ and ‘gratitude for a job well done.’ Intrinsic factors are more important to those employed in non-tipped positions.

The one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the variance between employee motivation factors and gender. Prior research reviewed for this thesis study revealed that gender had a significant difference in wages in the Caribbean hotel worker study (Charles & Marshall, 1992); gender had no significance in the U.S. and Canada hotel worker study (Simons & Enz, 1995); and in Hong Kong hotel worker study, females preferred ‘interesting work,’ ‘feeling of being involved,’ ‘good working conditions,’ and ‘gratitude for a job well done,’ (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The one-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of gender and the employee motivation factors in this thesis study of national chain restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped employees.

Table 8 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and the demographic variable gender. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The gender variables that had a significant difference in employee motivation are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Employee Motivation ANOVA and Gender

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Gender	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	Female	4.40	.836	58	.285	.595
	Male	4.31	.763	45		
Job Security	Female	4.66	.762	58	5.024	.027**
	Male	4.29	.895	45		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	Female	3.83	1.142	58	3.097	.081
	Male	3.40	1.321	45		
Good Wages	Female	4.60	.799	57	2.868	.093
	Male	4.29	1.036	45		
Interesting Work	Female	4.41	.650	58	4.589	.035**
	Male	4.05	1.077	44		
Tactful Discipline	Female	4.30	.755	57	2.537	.114
	Male	4.04	.852	45		
Promotion or Career Development	Female	4.45	.776	58	4.729	.032**
	Male	4.04	1.107	45		
Good Working Conditions	Female	4.76	.657	58	8.083	.005***
	Male	4.29	1.014	45		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	Female	4.66	.751	58	1.224	.271
	Male	4.47	1.014	45		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	Female	4.60	.748	58	9.373	.003***
	Male	4.07	1.031	45		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	Female	4.21	.969	58	11.121	.001***
	Male	3.55	1.022	44		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	Female	3.36	1.055	58	.311	.578
	Male	3.24	1.069	45		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

Significant differences were revealed in performing the ANOVA in six of the twelve employee motivation variables. The significance values that were less than .05 were “job security (p=.027),” “interesting work (p=.035),” “promotion or career development (p=.032),” “good working conditions (p=.005),” “gratitude for a job well done (p=.022),” and “monetary incentives for a job well done (p=.001).” The results indicate that there was significant difference between gender and the employee motivation factors. Females ranked ‘good working conditions,’ ‘job security,’ ‘gratitude for a job well done,’ ‘promotion or career development,’ ‘interesting work,’ and ‘monetary incentives for a job well done,’ with much more importance than males. Specifically, it was more important to females to have good working conditions, job security, and gratitude for a job well

done. The females found the extrinsic values of having good working conditions and job security to be very important and the intrinsic value of feeling appreciated for a job well done.

The one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the variance between employee motivation factors and age. The Caribbean hotel worker study and the U.S and Canadian hotel worker study accounted for age in spans of under 20, 20-24, 25-29, 30-39, and over 39 (Charles & Marshall, 1992). The U.S. and Canada hotel study accounted for age as an average of 32 years old, with a range of 19-68 years, and a standard deviation of 9 years (Simons & Enz, 1995). The Hong Kong hotel worker study contained many age bands beginning with 16-20, 21-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, and 50 or above (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The one-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the employee motivation variables and age in this thesis study.

Table 9 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and that age. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The age and hourly employee motivation variables did not have a significant difference in employee motivation in this study. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Employee Motivation ANOVA and Age Group

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Job Position	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	16-20	4.28	.683	32	.935	.447
	21-25	4.47	.730	30		
	26-30	4.67	.492	12		
	31-35	4.15	1.214	13		
	36+	4.25	.931	16		
Job Security	16-20	4.38	.976	32	1.253	.294
	21-25	4.70	.596	30		
	26-30	4.75	.622	12		
	31-35	4.31	.751	13		
	36+	4.31	1.078	16		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	16-20	3.84	1.167	32	.512	.727
	21-25	3.47	1.332	30		
	26-30	3.83	1.193	12		
	31-35	3.46	1.450	13		
	36+	3.56	1.094	16		
Good Wages	16-20	4.50	.842	32	.594	.668
	21-25	4.53	.730	30		
	26-30	4.67	.888	12		
	31-35	4.31	.947	13		
	36+	4.20	1.373	15		
Interesting Work	16-20	4.31	.965	32	.375	.826
	21-25	4.10	.803	30		
	26-30	4.42	.669	12		
	31-35	4.31	.947	13		
	36+	4.27	.961	15		
Tactful Discipline	16-20	4.28	.772	32	.231	.920
	21-25	4.13	.730	30		
	26-30	4.17	.577	12		
	31-35	4.23	.725	13		
	36+	4.07	1.223	15		
Promotion or Career Development	16-20	4.19	.998	32	1.197	.317
	21-25	4.47	.730	30		
	26-30	4.42	.900	12		
	31-35	4.38	.768	13		
	36+	3.88	1.310	16		
Good Working Conditions	16-20	4.38	1.100	32	.975	.425
	21-25	4.70	.535	30		
	26-30	4.75	.452	12		
	31-35	4.69	.480	13		
	36+	4.38	1.204	16		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	16-20	4.44	1.105	32	.855	.494
	21-25	4.70	.651	30		
	26-30	4.83	.389	12		
	31-35	4.62	.506	13		
	36+	4.38	1.088	16		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	16-20	4.31	1.061	32	.771	.546
	21-25	4.53	.730	30		
	26-30	4.50	.674	12		
	31-35	4.38	.768	13		
	36+	4.06	1.181	16		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	16-20	4.06	.982	32	.446	.775
	21-25	3.77	.971	30		
	26-30	4.09	1.221	12		
	31-35	3.77	.927	13		
	36+	3.94	1.289	15		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	16-20	3.47	1.016	32	.650	.628
	21-25	3.10	1.125	30		
	26-30	3.50	.905	12		
	31-35	3.15	.801	13		
	36+	3.38	1.310	16		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

The one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the variance between employee motivation factors and marital status. The Caribbean hotel worker study and the U.S and Canadian hotel worker study did not request marital status information for comparison (Charles & Marshall, 1992; Simons & Enz, 1995); however, the Hong Kong hotel worker study revealed that ‘interesting work,’ ‘feeling of being involved,’ ‘promotion or career development,’ and ‘gratitude for a job well done,’ were more important to non-married hotel employees. The one-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the employee motivation variables and marital status in this thesis study.

Table 10 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and that employee’s marital status. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The marital status and hourly employee motivation variables did not have a significant difference in employee motivation in this study. The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Employee Motivation ANOVA and Marital Status

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Position	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	Single	4.36	.823	73	.017	.897
	Couple	4.38	.775	29		
Job Security	Single	4.53	.835	73	.423	.517
	Couple	4.41	.867	29		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	Single	3.64	1.262	73	.002	.967
	Couple	3.66	1.203	29		
Good Wages	Single	4.52	.784	73	.942	.334
	Couple	4.32	1.219	28		
Interesting Work	Single	4.22	.854	73	.804	.372
	Couple	4.39	.916	28		
Tactful Discipline	Single	4.19	.758	73	.005	.942
	Couple	4.18	.945	28		
Promotion or Career Development	Single	4.36	.856	73	1.482	.226
	Couple	4.10	1.145	29		
Good Working Conditions	Single	4.53	.835	73	.075	.785
	Couple	4.59	.946	29		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	Single	4.56	.866	73	.097	.756
	Couple	4.62	.862	29		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	Single	4.41	.879	73	.443	.507
	Couple	4.28	1.032	29		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	Single	3.88	1.034	72	.478	.491
	Couple	4.03	1.085	29		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	Single	3.27	1.058	73	.357	.551
	Couple	3.41	1.086	29		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

The one-way analysis of variance was used to compare the variance between employee motivation factors and job position. In prior literature reviewed for this thesis study job position was accounted for in different ways. The Caribbean hotel worker study (Charles & Marshall, 1992) divided its participants into supervisory or non-supervisory positions and segmented the amount of guest contact as high or low; the U.S. and Canada hotel worker study (Simons & Enz, 1995) separated respondents by department and did not mention if respondents were in supervisory roles; and in Hong Kong hotel worker study, participants were divided by department and if they were a manager, supervisor, or general staff (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The one-way

analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of job position and the employee motivation factors in this thesis study of national chain restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped employees.

Table 11 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and job position of the hourly tipped and non-tipped national chain restaurant employees. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The job position and employee motivation variable that had a significant difference in employee motivation is presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Employee Motivation ANOVA and Job Position

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Job Position	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	Server	4.29	.835	75	1.213	.309
	Bartender	4.50	.850	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.67	.488	15		
	Other	4.00	1.000	3		
Job Security	Server	4.48	.811	75	2.487	.065
	Bartender	4.60	.699	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.73	.594	15		
	Other	3.33	2.082	3		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	Server	3.64	1.226	75	.184	.907
	Bartender	3.50	1.354	10		
	Host/Greeter	3.80	1.146	15		
	Other	3.33	2.082	3		
Good Wages	Server	4.43	.923	74	1.100	.353
	Bartender	4.60	.699	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.67	.617	15		
	Other	3.67	2.309	3		
Interesting Work	Server	4.22	.832	74	1.749	.162
	Bartender	4.10	.994	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.67	.488	15		
	Other	3.67	2.309	3		
Tactful Discipline	Server	4.13	.859	75	.644	.589
	Bartender	4.30	.483	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.43	.646	14		
	Other	4.00	1.000	3		
Promotion or Career Development	Server	4.19	.940	75	4.400	.006***
	Bartender	4.40	.843	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.87	.352	15		
	Other	3.00	2.000	3		
Good Working Conditions	Server	4.49	.860	75	2.213	.091
	Bartender	4.90	.316	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.80	.561	15		
	Other	3.67	2.309	3		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	Server	4.56	.860	75	1.430	.239
	Bartender	4.80	.316	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.67	.561	15		
	Other	3.67	2.309	3		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	Server	4.29	.927	75	2.314	.081
	Bartender	4.40	.699	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.87	.352	15		
	Other	3.67	2.309	3		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	Server	3.89	1.054	74	.933	.428
	Bartender	3.80	.919	10		
	Host/Greeter	4.27	.799	15		
	Other	3.33	2.082	3		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	Server	3.24	1.113	75	.946	.422
	Bartender	3.20	.789	10		
	Host/Greeter	3.60	.910	15		
	Other	4.00	1.000	3		

Significant differences were revealed in performing the ANOVA in one of the twelve employee motivation variables. The significance value that were less than .05 was “promotion or career development ($p=.006$).” The results indicate that there was significant difference between the job positions. The non-tipped positions are indicating that there is interest in promotion in career development, more than the tipped employees. However, within the tipped positions, the bartenders indicate that ‘promotion or career development’ has more importance than it does to the restaurant servers.

In the Caribbean hotel worker study by Charles & Marshall (1992) the reported results accounted for years in present position with almost half of their sample in the first year at the job, the next level accounted for was 1-3 years, 4-6 years, and then more than 6 years. In the U.S. and Canada hotel worker study conducted by Simons & Enz (1995), the average was 5 years; however, the range was between 1-28 years with a standard deviation of 5 years. In the Hong Kong hotel worker study by Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999), almost 45% of their sample had been working for the organization from 1-3 years. The categories constructed of time at current position began with less than 1 year, 1-3 years, 4-6 years, 7-10 years, and over 10 years (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

Table 12 demonstrates the output of the post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test. The participants were divided into four groups according to job position (Server, bartender, hostess/greeter, & other). As displayed in table 11, there was statistical significance in the dependent variable promotion. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .12. According to Cohen, (1988) this effect size is large (as cited by Pallant, 2003). This post-hoc comparison indicated that mean scores for servers

(\underline{M} =4.19, \underline{SD} =.940) bartenders (\underline{M} =4.40, \underline{SD} =.843), hostess/greeter (\underline{M} =4.87, \underline{SD} =.352), other (\underline{M} =3.00, \underline{SD} =2.00) were significantly different for each group.

Table 12: Post Hoc Tukey

Dependent Variable	Job Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Promotion	Server	75	4.19	.940
	Bartender	10	4.40	.843
	Hostess/Greeter	15	4.87	.352
	Other	3	3.00	2.000
	Total	103	4.27	.952

Dependent Variable	(I) Job Type	(J) Job Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance
Promotion	Server	Bartender	-.21	.305	.897
		Hostess/Greeter	-.68(*)	.257	.046
		Other	1.19	.534	.125
	Bartender	Server	.21	.305	.897
		Hostess/Greeter	-.47	.370	.591
		Other	1.40	.597	.095
	Hostess/Greeter	Server	.68(*)	.257	.046
		Bartender	.47	.370	.591
		Other	1.87(*)	.574	.008
	Other	Server	-1.19	.534	.125
		Bartender	-1.40	.597	.095
		Hostess/Greeter	-1.87(*)	.574	.008

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Promotion	Between Groups	10.868	3	3.623	4.400	.006
	Within Groups	81.520	99	.823		
	Total	92.388	102			

Table 13 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and length of time at current job of national chain restaurant employees. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The length of time at current job and employee motivation variables did not have a significant difference in employee motivation in this study. The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Employee Motivation ANOVA and Length of Time at Current Job

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Job Position	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	Less 1 year	4.42	.770	53	1.468	.218
	1-3 years	4.44	.619	32		
	3-6 years	4.13	1.356	8		
	6-9 years	4.25	.957	4		
	More 9	3.60	.894	5		
Job Security	Less 1 year	4.51	.846	53	.580	.678
	1-3 years	4.38	.942	32		
	3-6 years	4.88	.354	8		
	6-9 years	4.50	.577	4		
	More 9	4.40	.894	5		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	Less 1 year	3.58	1.292	53	1.172	.328
	1-3 years	3.59	1.241	32		
	3-6 years	4.00	.926	8		
	6-9 years	4.75	.500	4		
	More 9	3.20	1.304	5		
Good Wages	Less 1 year	4.44	.895	52	.308	.872
	1-3 years	4.41	1.012	32		
	3-6 years	4.63	1.061	8		
	6-9 years	4.25	.957	4		
	More 9	4.80	.447	5		
Interesting Work	Less 1 year	4.40	.768	53	2.009	.099
	1-3 years	4.00	1.000	31		
	3-6 years	4.50	.756	8		
	6-9 years	3.50	1.291	4		
	More 9	4.40	.548	5		
Tactful Discipline	Less 1 year	4.23	.800	53	.332	.856
	1-3 years	4.16	.847	32		
	3-6 years	4.14	.690	7		
	6-9 years	4.25	.957	4		
	More 9	3.80	.837	5		
Promotion or Career Development	Less 1 year	4.28	.928	53	.741	.566
	1-3 years	4.19	1.120	32		
	3-6 years	4.75	.463	8		
	6-9 years	4.00	.816	4		
	More 9	4.00	.707	5		
Good Working Conditions	Less 1 year	4.58	.795	53	.472	.756
	1-3 years	4.44	1.105	32		
	3-6 years	4.88	.354	8		
	6-9 years	4.50	.577	4		
	More 9	4.40	.548	5		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	Less 1 year	4.64	.834	53	.549	.700
	1-3 years	4.41	1.043	32		
	3-6 years	4.75	.463	8		
	6-9 years	4.75	.500	4		
	More 9	4.40	.548	5		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	Less 1 year	4.53	.775	53	1.408	.237
	1-3 years	4.19	1.176	32		
	3-6 years	4.50	.756	8		
	6-9 years	4.00	.816	4		
	More 9	3.80	.447	5		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	Less 1 year	3.96	1.037	53	.347	.845
	1-3 years	3.88	1.129	32		
	3-6 years	4.13	.835	8		
	6-9 years	3.33	1.528	4		
	More 9	4.00	.707	5		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	Less 1 year	3.21	1.081	53	.415	.797
	1-3 years	3.38	1.071	32		
	3-6 years	3.63	.916	8		
	6-9 years	3.25	1.258	4		
	More 9	3.60	1.140	5		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

In the previous studies on hotel worker motivations conducted by Charles & Marshall (1992), Simons & Enz (1995), and Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999), none of these studies accounted for experience in the hotel industry. This question was asked to investigate if there is any impact on motivation by the length of time employed in the restaurant industry.

Table 14 demonstrates the employee motivation scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each employee motivation variable and years in the restaurant industry. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The years employed in the restaurant industry and employee motivation variables did not have a significant difference in employee motivation in this study. The results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Employee Motivation ANOVA and Years in the Restaurant Industry

Employee Motivation Item (Name)	Job Position	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
A Feeling of Being Involved	Less 1 year	4.48	.790	23	.321	.863
	1-3 years	4.29	.643	31		
	3-6 years	4.44	.616	18		
	6-9 years	4.20	1.317	10		
	More 9	4.35	.933	20		
Job Security	Less 1 year	4.57	.728	23	.731	.573
	1-3 years	4.35	.958	31		
	3-6 years	4.67	.594	18		
	6-9 years	4.70	.483	10		
	More 9	4.35	1.040	20		
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	Less 1 year	3.74	1.356	23	.931	.450
	1-3 years	3.48	1.235	31		
	3-6 years	3.61	1.335	18		
	6-9 years	4.30	.823	10		
	More 9	3.50	1.192	20		
Good Wages	Less 1 year	4.41	.796	22	.159	.959
	1-3 years	4.55	.850	31		
	3-6 years	4.44	1.149	18		
	6-9 years	4.50	.707	10		
	More 9	4.35	1.089	20		
Interesting Work	Less 1 year	4.39	.839	23	.416	.797
	1-3 years	4.23	.956	31		
	3-6 years	4.17	.924	18		
	6-9 years	4.00	1.054	10		
	More 9	4.32	.671	19		
Tactful Discipline	Less 1 year	4.35	.775	23	.664	.619
	1-3 years	4.19	.749	31		
	3-6 years	4.24	.752	17		
	6-9 years	4.20	.789	10		
	More 9	3.95	.999	20		
Promotion or Career Development	Less 1 year	4.35	.832	23	.540	.706
	1-3 years	4.19	1.046	31		
	3-6 years	4.44	1.042	18		
	6-9 years	4.40	.699	10		
	More 9	4.05	.999	20		
Good Working Conditions	Less 1 year	4.61	.722	23	.116	.977
	1-3 years	4.48	1.061	31		
	3-6 years	4.61	.778	18		
	6-9 years	4.60	.516	10		
	More 9	4.50	.946	20		
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	Less 1 year	4.57	.843	23	.206	.935
	1-3 years	4.52	1.061	31		
	3-6 years	4.56	.616	18		
	6-9 years	4.80	.422	10		
	More 9	4.55	.945	20		
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	Less 1 year	4.65	.573	23	1.464	.219
	1-3 years	4.19	1.108	31		
	3-6 years	4.33	.970	18		
	6-9 years	4.70	.675	10		
	More 9	4.15	.933	20		
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	Less 1 year	3.96	1.065	23	.046	.996
	1-3 years	3.90	1.136	31		
	3-6 years	3.89	1.079	18		
	6-9 years	3.80	.919	10		
	More 9	3.95	.970	19		
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	Less 1 year	3.26	1.356	23	.145	.965
	1-3 years	3.23	.884	31		
	3-6 years	3.33	1.085	18		
	6-9 years	3.50	1.080	10		
	More 9	3.35	.988	20		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

Organizational Commitment Scale

The second section of the questionnaire was the scale of organizational commitment (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979). The organizational commitment of hourly tipped and non-tipped employees was measured using nine questions from the reduced OCQ from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). The scale is composed of nine positively worded items from the original fifteen to avoid wording confusions (Ogaard, Larsen, & Marnburg, 2005). The reason for this scale was used was to determine current hourly restaurant national chain employees' organizational commitment to their current job.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the variance between different groupings of demographic variables (Pallant, 2003). Furthermore, Enz (2004) states that the pay inequity between tipped and non-tipped restaurant employees is a source of tension and should be investigated by the industry, and the one-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the organizational commitment variables in this thesis study.

To demonstrate this study's respondent preferences in employee motivation factors, descriptive statistics were used to gather the collect the mean and standard deviation for each variable. The variables are ranked in ascending order by the mean. Table 15 demonstrates the respondents' preferences for this thesis study.

Table 15: Organizational Commitment Rankings

Organizational Commitment (Name)	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
I know what is expected of me at my job.	104	4.57	.64
I am able to do what I do best every day.	104	4.48	.74
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	101	3.98	.86
I really care about the fate of this organization.	104	3.96	.74
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	103	3.80	.93
I find that my values and organization's values are very similar.	104	3.78	.91
This organization really inspires the best in me in way of job performance.	103	3.67	.91
For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	104	3.15	1.10
I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization.	104	2.72	1.10

The top three organizational commitment values for participants in this study ranked as follows: 1) these participants understand what they have to do when they go to work everyday; the workers understand what they have to do in their jobs; 2) the participants in this study also feel that they are able to perform their best everyday; 3) the respondents in this study are also proud to tell people where they work. However, the bottom two rankings indicate that this is not the best place to work for the participants and most are unwilling to accept any job within the organization.

Table 16 demonstrates the organizational commitment scale ratings one-way analysis of variance for each organizational commitment variable gender. To display significance in the variable, the variable must measure at the .05 level or less. The organizational commitment variables that had a significant difference in organizational commitment are presented in Table 16.

Table 16: Organizational Commitment ANOVA and Gender

Organizational Commitment Item (Name)	Gender	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	F	Sig.
I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization.	Female	2.71	1.170	58	.015	.904
	Male	2.73	1.009	45		
I find that my values and organization's values are very similar.	Female	4.02	.783	58	9.133	.003***
	Male	3.49	.991	45		
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	Female	4.12	.781	57	3.243	.075
	Male	3.81	.932	43		
This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	Female	3.70	1.017	57	.098	.755
	Male	3.64	.773	45		
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	Female	3.97	.898	58	4.152	.044**
	Male	3.59	.948	44		
I really care about the fate of this organization.	Female	4.05	.633	58	1.622	.206
	Male	3.87	.842	45		
For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	Female	3.33	1.066	58	3.272	.073
	Male	2.93	1.136	45		
I know what is expected of me at my job.	Female	4.52	.599	58	1.015	.316
	Male	4.64	.679	45		
I am able to do what I do best every day.	Female	4.50	.656	58	.006	.939
	Male	4.49	.815	45		

Note: * < .5, ** < .01, *** < .001

Significant differences were revealed in performing the ANOVA in two of the nine organizational commitment variables. The significance values that were less than .05 were “I find that my values and the organization’s values are very similar (p=.003),” and “I am extremely glad I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined (p=.044).” The results indicate that there was significant difference between gender and the organizational commitment factors. Females felt that their values were more aligned with the organization’s values and females felt more strongly than the males about choosing to work at this particular organization.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to describe the strength and the direction of the linear relationship between the twelve employee motivation factors and nine organizational commitment variables. The results are shown in table 17.

Table 17: Pearson (r) of Employee Motivation and Organizational Commitment

		any job	values	proud	inspire	Org. choice	fate of org	Best org.	expect at job	Pers. best
involved	Pearson Correlation	.055	.157	.323**	.259**	.105	.153	.168	.426**	.288*
	Significance(2-tailed)	.577	.111	.001	.008	.289	.121	.088	.000	.003
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104
Job Security	Pearson Correlation	.154	.286**	.440**	.449**	.394**	.363**	.368**	.375**	.205*
	Significance(2-tailed)	.118	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.037
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104
Super Help	Pearson Correlation	.187	.198*	.238*	.217*	.183	.198*	.317**	.018	-.018
	Significance(2-tailed)	.058	.044	.016	.027	.065	.043	.001	.859	.856
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104
Good Wages	Pearson Correlation	.037	.227*	.231*	.260**	.150	.186	.113	.220*	.046
	Significance(2-tailed)	.711	.021	.021	.008	.132	.061	.256	.025	.644
	N	103	103	100	102	102	103	103	103	103
Int. Work	Pearson Correlation	.106	.339**	.368**	.354**	.209*	.122	.172	.197*	.112
	Significance(2-tailed)	.287	.000	.000	.000	.035	.220	.082	.047	.259
	N	103	103	100	102	102	103	103	103	103
Tactful Disc.	Pearson Correlation	.072	.282**	.307**	.319**	.260**	.262**	.157	.226*	.155
	Significance(2-tailed)	.468	.004	.002	.001	.008	.007	.112	.022	.119
	N	103	103	100	102	102	103	103	103	103
Promo.	Pearson Correlation	.186	.462**	.460**	.314**	.405**	.460**	.350**	.260**	.105
	Significance(2-tailed)	.059	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.008	.290
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104
work cond.	Pearson Correlation	.147	.407**	.474**	.323**	.350**	.373**	.237*	.109	.048
	Significance(2-tailed)	.137	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.016	.272	.629
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104
mngmt loyalty	Pearson Correlation	.067	.348**	.386**	.390**	.279**	.343**	.225*	.295**	.210*
	Significance(2-tailed)	.499	.000	.000	.000	.004	.000	.022	.002	.033
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104

Gratitude	Pearson Correlation	.035	.365**	.335**	.276**	.169	.237*	.184	.091	.083
	Significance(2-tailed)	.725	.000	.001	.005	.088	.015	.061	.358	.405
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104
Incentive	Pearson Correlation	.206*	.343**	.406**	.188	.207*	.307**	.361**	-.007	.100
	Significance(2-tailed)	.037	.000	.000	.058	.036	.002	.000	.941	.315
	N	103	103	101	102	103	103	103	103	103
Celeb.	Pearson Correlation	.270*	.253**	.260**	.301**	.224*	.103	.276**	.056	.158
	Significance(2-tailed)	.006	.009	.009	.002	.023	.298	.005	.573	.110
	N	104	104	101	103	103	104	104	104	104

Note: Pearson Correlation (r): $r = \pm .10$ to $\pm .29$ is small, $r = \pm .30$ to $\pm .49$ is medium, $r = \pm .50$ to ± 1.0 is large (Cohen, as cited in Pallant, 2003).

* Correlation at 0.05(2-tailed):...

** Correlation at 0.01(2-tailed):...

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between these motivational drivers and organizational commitment. The correlation table was composed of the vertical column listing the twelve employee motivation factors: a feeling of being involved, job security, management/ supervisor's help with personal problems, good wages, interesting work, tactful discipline, promotion or career development, good working conditions, management/supervisor's loyalty to employees, full appreciation for a job well done, monetary incentive for a job well done, and public celebration for a job well done. The horizontal columns display the nine organizational commitment variables: I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization, I find that my values and organization's values are very similar, I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, this organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance, I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined, I really care about the fate of this

organization, for me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work, I know what is expected of me at my job, and I am able to do what I do best every day.

The values of a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) can range from -1.00 to 1.00. The value will show the strength of the relationship between the two variables: 0 demonstrates that there is not any relationship, while 1.0 demonstrates a perfect positive and -1.0 a perfect negative relationship (Pallant, 2003). The interpretation of these values has been based on a ratings scale composed by Cohen (1988), (as cited by Pallant, 2003); the ratings scale is as follows:

$r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$	small
$r = .30$ to $.49$ or $r = -.30$ to $-.49$	medium
$r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0	large

Figure 10: Pearson Correlation (r) ratings, Cohen (1988), (as cited by Pallant, 2003).

Table 17 demonstrates many significant relationships between employee motivation and organizational commitment. All but one of the relationships demonstrated are all positive (“manager/supervisor help with personal problems,”

[$r = -.18$, $n = 104$] and “I am able to do what I do best every day,” denoting a small negative relationship. There was medium positive relationship between “good working conditions” [$r = .47$, $n = 101$] and “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization,” and “promotion or career development” [$r = .46$, $n = 104$] and “I find that my values and organization’s values are very similar,” and “promotion or career development” [$r = .46$, $n = 101$] and “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.”

Research Question Outcomes

The findings of this study showed what is motivating current restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped employees. The results of the questionnaire showed the effects of current restaurant hourly tipped and non-tipped employees' motivations. The outcomes of each research question are summarized in the following:

Research question 1 revealed that workers in this restaurant chain ranked the intrinsic factor of 'management loyalty to employees,' in the first position; however, the next three factors that followed were extrinsic consisting of 'good working conditions,' 'job security,' and 'good wages.'

Research question 2 demonstrated that employee motivation does differ between tipped and non-tipped employees

Research question 3 showed that the socio-demographic variables gender and job position had significant differences while age, marital status, current job tenure, and years in the industry did not display any significance.

Research question 4 confirmed with the results of the Pearson correlation analysis that the relationship between employee motivation and organizational commitment is a positive relationship.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter presents the general study and discusses the major findings. This chapter includes a summary of the study and methodology, a discussion of the major findings of the study, conclusions, implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Summary of the Study

Employee motivation is vital to the success of organizations. A lack of employee motivation may cause organizational problems in turnover and retention, morale, and poor productivity. Restaurants are not unfamiliar with these human resource issues, however, many restaurants choose to accept these issues as part of the business or utilize ineffective, archaic motivation techniques.

Recognition of the problem of employee motivation is the first step a restaurant organization may choose to tackle the problem. Given the understanding that the restaurant is comprised of two different types of employee, the hourly tipped employee and the hourly non-tipped employee, employers must understand the different needs of these employee groups. There have been numerous studies on employee motivation, but a lack of research dividing the segments in a restaurant between hourly tipped and non-tipped employees. This study was performed to examine current restaurant front of the house personnel's motivations and commitment. To better understand the motivation and organization commitment of current restaurant employees, this research focused on the

front of the house motivations as a whole, the individual employment groups' motivations, socio-demographic impacts on motivation, and the relationship between employee motivation and organization commitment.

Summary of the Study's Purpose and Methodology

The purpose of this study was to provide practitioners in the restaurant industry a comparison and analysis of employee motivation between the two employment groups and their level of organizational commitment. In particular, this study was designed to 1) collect participants' motivation; 2) collect participants' organizational commitment levels; 3) examine the similarities and differences in the participants' motivation and commitment; 4) determine the overall employee motivations and commitment level correlation.

Questionnaire

A convenience sample with a self-administered questionnaire was the chosen method of study in order to collect the information necessary to determine employee motivation and commitment levels in a national chain restaurant organization. The questionnaire consisted of structured scales based on prior literature of employee motivation and organizational commitment.

Discussion of Findings

The results of the questionnaire data analysis were described in the previous chapter, Chapter Four. This segment of the final chapter will address the significant findings of the research according to each research question.

Research Question 1:

What are casual dining chain restaurant hourly employees' motivations?

In order to better understand the current hourly restaurant employee the instrument used was the Kovach (1995) motivating factors scale. As displayed in chapter four, Table 6, the overall employee motivation factors were ranked by participants. These questions were answered in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Very Unimportant to 5=Very Important. Out of the twelve intrinsic and extrinsic variables, the participants in this thesis study ranked the intrinsic factor of 'management loyalty to employees,' as the most important variable.

An explanation for this finding can be explained by Mayo (as cited by Herzberg, 1959) Mayo stated that relationships between workers and their supervisors had more of an effect on worker output than any kind of manipulation of environmental conditions. In the Caribbean hotel worker study conducted by Charles & Marshall (1992), this variable was one of the least important to Caribbean hotel workers ranking 7 out of 10. Perhaps an explanation for the intrinsic motivator reaching top priority in the U.S. is relating the survey rankings to Herzberg's hygiene theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs, because according to Kovach (1995), "in the United States, organizations have done a better job satisfying the basic or "deficit" needs of the worker than they have in satisfying the ego or self-fulfillment needs." Therefore, current restaurant hourly employees may care more about a supervisors' loyalty because they already meet their basic human needs.

Extrinsic motivators are still important to hourly restaurant workers. The next three factors that followed were extrinsic variables consisting of 'good working conditions,'

‘job security,’ and ‘good wages,’ this indicates that work experiences in the restaurant industry may be uncomfortable and unstable. Good working conditions ranked second, and are an important potential motivator. The work environment should be clean and safe, and also free of threats and overbearing bosses which can work against motivation (Simons & Enz, 1995). There is an air of instability that may stem from the fact that low wages are associated with service sector jobs (Simons & Enz, 1995). Good wages are important to restaurant workers, especially with the amount of emotional labor, the positive feelings that employees must emit to restaurant guests at all times (Lo & Lamm, 2005). Job security may be important to these restaurant workers in the central Florida market as this particular company offers a better than average benefits package that many hospitality/restaurant employers do not make available to their employees.

Positions 5 -8 were intrinsic variables, ‘gratitude for a job well done,’ ‘a feeling of being involved,’ ‘promotion or career development,’ and ‘interesting work.’ These were of moderate importance to hourly restaurant workers; however, they are still important motivators. In relation to Herzberg’s two-factor theory (1959) these variables can be identified as ‘gratitude for a job well done’ as recognition, ‘a feeling of being involved’ as responsibility, ‘promotion or career development,’ as advancement, and ‘interesting work’ as the work itself. If there was an absence of these motivators in the restaurant company, motivation levels would decrease, their presence is important to these workers and if they are present employee motivation will increase (Herzberg, 1959).

Job factors 9 & 10 were ‘tactful discipline’ and ‘monetary incentives for a job well done.’ The importance of these motivators were lessened perhaps suggesting there is not a problem with tactful discipline within this company, therefore, it is not as important as

the other variables to participants in this study. 'Monetary incentives for a job well done,' may not fit with this particular company's culture. The idea of teamwork may not sit well with perceived competition. The bottom two motivating factors were 'supervisor's help with personal problems' and 'public celebration for a job well done,' this indicates that today's restaurant employee in this thesis study does not want assistance from their boss in personal problems or public recognition for accomplishments.

Table 18 displays a comparison between the most recent hospitality studies using the Kovach (1995) survey instrument. The first column is this thesis study, the second column is the Hong Kong hotel worker study by Wong, Siu, & Tsang (1999), and the last column is the U.S and Canada hotel worker study conducted by Simons & Enz (1995). The most important factor to participants in this study was 'management loyalty to employees,' however, in the other studies displayed, 'good wages' and 'job security' are concerns of listed in the top four variables. This may indicate that like the hotel workers in past studies, the restaurant personnel feel that job security and good wages are important because the industry may be perceived as not supplying those needs.

Table 18: Comparison of Kovach instrument 2005, 1999, & 1995

2005 Florida

1. Management Loyalty to Employees
2. Good Working Conditions
3. Job Security
4. Good Wages
5. Gratitude for a Job Well Done
6. A Feeling of Being Involved
7. Promotion or Career Development
8. Interesting Work
9. Tactful Discipline
10. Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done
11. Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems
12. Public Celebration for a Job Well Done

1999 Hong Kong

1. Promotion & growth in the organization
2. Personal loyalty to employees
3. Good Wages
4. Job Security
5. Good working conditions
6. Full Appreciation of Work Done
7. Interesting Work
8. Feeling of being "in on things"
9. Tactful Discipline
10. Sympathetic help with personal problems

1995 U.S. & Canada

1. Good Wages
2. Job Security
3. Promotion & growth in the organization
4. Good working conditions
5. Interesting Work
6. Full Appreciation of Work Done
7. Personal loyalty to employees
8. Feeling of being "in on things"
9. Tactful Discipline
10. Sympathetic help with personal problems

(Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999; Simons & Enz, 1995)

Research Question 2:

Does employee motivation differ depending upon tipped and non-tipped hourly employees?

Table 7 in chapter four, demonstrated the significant differences in employee motivation between tipped and non-tipped employees. Significant differences were revealed in three of the twelve employee motivation variables. The significance values that were revealed are: ‘interesting work,’ ‘promotion or career development’ and ‘gratitude for a job well done.’ The results indicate that there was significant difference between the two employee groups. Table 7 demonstrated that non-tipped hourly employees care more about the variables ‘interesting work,’ ‘promotion or career development,’ and ‘gratitude for a job well done.’ Intrinsic factors are more important to those employed in non-tipped positions.

Table 19 provides a listing of the rankings by mean of tipped employees; non-tipped employees’ rankings are listed underneath the tipped employees. Tipped employees ranked management/supervisor loyalty as the most important variable. This confirms that motivators for tipped employees may have more of a relationship with their immediate supervisor or manager (Lynn, 2003, 2001). This is an intrinsic motivator but extrinsic rewards can follow such as many restaurant servers are rewarded with better, larger stations, or a better schedule, which are stronger motivators for servers (Lynn, 2003, 2001).

Following ‘management loyalty to employees’ was: ‘good working conditions,’ ‘job security,’ and ‘good wages.’ These rankings were similar to the overall employee rankings. Tipped employees need conditions that are good for performing service work,

both physically and mentally, they also desire a sense of job security, and the ability to earn good wages (Maslow, 1943; Herzberg, 1959). As these employees earn a majority of their income by gratuities, a tipped employee will most likely not remain employed in an environment where they cannot earn an income; they will find another location (Azar, 2003).

Table 19: Ranking of Tipped and Non-tipped Employees' Motivations

Employee Motivation Item (Name) (Tipped Employees)	Mean	Std. Dev.	n
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	4.56	.895	88
Good Working Conditions	4.51	.897	88
Job Security	4.45	.870	88
Good Wages	4.43	.960	87
Feeling of Being Involved	4.31	.835	88
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	4.28	.958	88
Interesting Work	4.18	.909	87
Promotion or Career Development	4.17	.985	88
Tactful Discipline	4.15	.824	88
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	3.86	1.069	87
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	3.61	1.254	88
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	3.26	1.077	88

Employee Motivation Item (Name) (Non-tipped Employees)	Mean	Std. Dev.	n
Gratitude for a Job Well Done	4.87	.352	15
Promotion or Career Development	4.87	.352	15
Good Working Conditions	4.80	.561	15
Job Security	4.73	.594	15
Feeling of Being Involved	4.67	.617	15
Good Wages	4.67	.617	15
Interesting Work	4.67	.617	15
Management/Supervisor Loyalty to Employees	4.67	.617	15
Tactful Discipline	4.43	.646	14
Monetary Incentives for a Job Well Done	4.27	.799	15
Supervisor's Help with Personal Problems	3.80	1.146	15
Public Celebration for a Job Well Done	3.60	.910	15

Table 19 also provides the rankings of the non-tipped employees. Although, the sample size of the non-tipped restaurant personnel is smaller, this is common in the industry. The non-tipped employees in this restaurant were employed as a hostess/greeter. These positions generally do not receive any gratuities and earn their pay by their hourly wage. It is not uncommon to have one or two hostess/greeters working at the door while there are twenty or more tipped employees working in the front of the house.

The non-tipped employees in this study ranked ‘gratitude for a job well done’ as the most important motivation variable. This is interesting because it explains the nature of their position. A tipped employee may feel immediate gratification by the receipt of tips while these non-tipped employees are longing to be noticed and appreciated. Managers should acknowledge that non-tipped workers would like to know that they are appreciated. Non-tipped workers are also looking for promotion and career development; perhaps these people are new to the restaurant business and would like to learn more by moving on to tipped positions or are interested in the stability of a management paycheck. Also, non-tipped employees found good working conditions and job security to be important like their tipped counterparts. The non-tipped employees also ranked the bottom four variables: ‘tactful discipline,’ ‘monetary incentives for a job well done,’ ‘supervisor’s help with personal problems,’ and ‘public celebration for a job well done,’ in the same order as the tipped employees.

Research Question 3:

Does employee motivation differ depending upon any of the following socio-demographic variables?

3.1 Does employee motivation differ depending upon gender?

3.4 Does employee motivation differ depending upon job position?

Gender Findings and Interpretation

Prior research reviewed for this thesis study revealed that gender had significant differences with employee motivation variables (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999; Charles & Marshall, 1992). Males gave higher importance to wages in the Caribbean hotel worker study (Charles & Marshall, 1992); in the Hong Kong hotel worker study, the females' preferred 'interesting work,' 'feeling of being involved,' 'good working conditions,' and 'gratitude for a job well done,' (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999).

Table 8, in chapter four shows that six of the twelve employee motivation variables had significance values. The results indicate that there was significant difference between gender and the employee motivation factors. Females ranked 'good working conditions,' 'job security,' 'gratitude for a job well done,' 'promotion or career development,' 'interesting work,' and 'monetary incentives for a job well done,' with much more importance than males. These results indicate that gender has an important function in influencing employee motivation in this thesis study. It was very important for females to have 'interesting work.' As this motivating factor is intangible, it demonstrates that women care more about the interesting nature of their job. The restaurant industry can fulfill that need with different faces and challenges everyday. This may infer that females care more about the social aspect of work by utilizing their

interactive communication skills (Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005). Females were also more interested in promotion and career development. Females in this study are looking more towards becoming leaders in this company. Females may look at this company as more than just a job, but a viable, sustainable career. Job security was also more important to females. As stated earlier, this company offers a better than average benefits package that may be of much higher importance to women. Females feel that they need conditions that are good for performing restaurant work, physically, such as climate control, working POS systems, a clean, safe work area, and good mental conditions with bosses that are not threatening and good relations with co-workers. Females were also looking for acknowledgment, for someone to express gratitude when a job was performed well (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). Females were also interested more in monetary incentives for a job well done. This suggests that females are looking for a way to measure their performance with an extrinsic reward, specifically cash.

The information revealed in this study explains that females in the restaurant industry are more motivated by several conditions than males. Managers can motivate their female employees better by offering opportunities for promotion, sincere expressions of praise for a job well done, and incentive contests. As these differences have been detected, management must find a way to motivate all employees so that motivation programs are not gender biased, but can reach more people at one time.

Job Position and Interpretation

One significant difference was revealed in Table 11, chapter four in one of the twelve employee motivation variables. The significance value was ‘promotion or career development.’ The results indicate that there was significant difference between the job

positions. The non-tipped positions are indicating that there is interest in promotion in career development, more than the tipped employees. However, within the tipped positions, the bartenders indicate that ‘promotion or career development’ has more importance than it does to the restaurant servers. There could be many reasons for this, first the non-tipped position may be looking to move onto a tipped position to learn more or they may strive for the steady paycheck that management offers. A bartender may be looking more towards management because the role has a sense of more responsibility. Responsibility was considered a motivating factor with Herzberg (1959). Bartenders usually have to maintain a cash drawer, and account for beverage inventory and controls; so they may feel that they are on the way to management with the increased knowledge base gained from the extra responsibilities.

Research Question 4:

Does employee motivation correlate with organizational commitment?

This study’s findings of employee motivation and organizational commitment of tipped and non-tipped employees could be of interest to restaurant managers and practitioners. The findings of this thesis show this chain restaurant’s motivations and organizational commitment of tipped and non-tipped employees and the relationships within selected variables.

In order for employers to better understand their employees, using the Kovach (1995) motivating factors scale and the reduced OCQ from Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979) can assist in retrieving measurable information. The recommendation to use an employee

motivation scale and organizational commitment scale together evolved from the results of this study demonstrating the positive correlation of the almost all of the variables.

To understand how these participants' viewed organizational commitment, the scores were ranked by mean in table 15, chapter four. The top three organizational commitment values for participants in this study ranked as follows: 1) 'I know what is expected of me at my job,' 2) 'I am able to do what I do best everyday,' 3) 'I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.' However, the bottom two rankings indicate that this is not the best place to work for the participants and that probably given the chance or opportunity, they will leave the organization. Also, most are unwilling to accept any job within the organization. This could be explained as the restaurant industry itself, many are not willing even in hard economic times to reduce themselves to doing jobs like "dishwasher." There is a perceived hierarchy of restaurant positions and many would leave an organization before bringing themselves down in status.

The employee motivation and gender ANOVA revealed significant differences in motivation factors between females and males. An organizational commitment and gender ANOVA was also performed to determine if gender had influence on organizational commitment. The results presented in Table 16, chapter four, display significant differences in two of the nine organizational commitment variables and gender. These organizational commitment variables were "I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar," and "I am extremely glad I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined." The results indicate that there was significant difference between gender and the organizational commitment factors. Females felt that their values were more aligned with the

organization's values, and females felt more strongly than the males about choosing to work at this particular organization.

Table 17, chapter four displays the Pearson product-moment coefficient table. This was used to describe the strength and the direction of the linear relationship between the twelve employee motivation factors and nine organizational commitment variables. The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between these motivational drivers and organizational commitment. The Pearson product-moment coefficient correlation table was composed of the vertical column listing the twelve employee motivation factors: a feeling of being involved, job security, management/ supervisor's help with personal problems, good wages, interesting work, tactful discipline, promotion or career development, good working conditions, management/supervisor's loyalty to employees, full appreciation for a job well done, monetary incentive for a job well done, and public celebration for a job well done. The horizontal columns display the nine organizational commitment variables: I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization, I find that my values and organization's values are very similar, I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, this organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance, I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined, I really care about the fate of this organization, for me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work, I know what is expected of me at my job, and I am able to do what I do best every day.

The values of a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) can range from -1.00 to 1.00. The value will show the strength of the relationship between the two

variables: 0 demonstrates that there is not any relationship, while 1.0 demonstrates a perfect positive and -1.0 a perfect negative relationship (Pallant, 2003). The interpretation of these values has been based on a ratings scale composed by Cohen (1988), (as cited by Pallant, 2003); the ratings scale is as follows: $r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$ small, $r = .30$ to $.49$ or $r = -.30$ to $-.49$ medium, and $r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0 large.

As presented in Table 17, chapter four, all items that had values between $.10$ and $.29$ have a small correlation with between employee motivation and organizational commitment. Items with a medium correlation ranged from $.30$ and $.49$. The three most significant variables employee motivation variables were: job security, promotion or career development, and good working conditions.

Table 20 highlights the findings from Table 17, chapter 4, in the employee motivation variable job security. The strongest relationships in this variable were between Job security and 'this organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance,' which had a medium correlation ($r=.449$), and Job security and 'I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, ($r=.440$), another medium correlation. The following also demonstrated medium correlations: Job security and 'I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined,' ($r=.394$), Job security and 'I know what is expected of me at my job,' ($r=.375$), Job security and 'For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work,' ($r=.368$), and Job security and 'I really care about the fate of this organization,' ($r=.363$). The following variables showed a small correlation, job security and 'I find that my values and organization's values are very similar,'

($r=.286$), job security and ‘I am able to do what I do best every day,’ ($r=.205$), and job security and ‘I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization,’ ($r=.154$).

Table 20: Pearson (r) Job Security

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Correlation Rating
Job Security/accept almost any job with organization	.154	small
Job Security/values and organization’s values are similar	.286	small
Job Security/proud I am part of this organization	.440	medium
Job Security/inspires the best in me in job performance	.449	medium
Job Security/glad that I chose this organization to work	.394	medium
Job Security/care about the fate of this organization	.363	medium
Job Security/best of all organizations to work	.368	medium
Job Security/I know what is expected of me at my job	.375	medium
Job Security/I am able to do what I do best every day	.205	small

Note: Pearson Correlation (r): $r = \pm .10$ to $\pm .29$ is small, $r = \pm .30$ to $\pm .49$ is medium, $r = \pm .50$ to ± 1.0 is large (Cohen, as cited in Pallant, 2003).

Table 21 highlights the findings from Table 17, chapter 4, in the employee motivation variable promotion and career development. The strongest relationships in this variable were between Promotion and ‘I find that my values and organization’s values are very similar,’ which had a medium correlation ($r=.462$), Promotion and ‘I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, and ‘I really care about the fate of this organization,’ both ranked at ($r=.460$), also medium correlations. Following were the variables: Promotion and ‘I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined,’ ($r=.405$), Promotion and ‘For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work,’ ($r=.350$), Promotion and ‘this organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance,’ ($r=.314$). The following items demonstrated a small correlation: Promotion and ‘I know what is expected of me at my job,’ ($r=.260$), Promotion and ‘I would accept almost any job to

keep working for this organization,' ($r=.186$), and Promotion and 'I am able to do what I do best every day,' ($r=.105$).

Table 21: Pearson (r) Promotion and Career Development

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Correlation Rating
Promotion/accept almost any job with organization	.186	small
Promotion/values and organization's values are similar	.462	medium
Promotion/proud I am part of this organization	.460	medium
Promotion/inspires the best in me in job performance	.314	medium
Promotion/glad that I chose this organization to work	.405	medium
Promotion/care about the fate of this organization	.460	medium
Promotion/best of all organizations to work	.350	medium
Promotion/I know what is expected of me at my job	.260	small
Promotion/I am able to do what I do best every day	.105	small

Note: Pearson Correlation (r): $r = \pm .10$ to $\pm .29$ is small, $r = \pm .30$ to $\pm .49$ is medium, $r = \pm .50$ to ± 1.0 is large (Cohen, as cited in Pallant, 2003).

Table 22 highlights the findings from Table 17, chapter 4, in the employee motivation variable good working conditions. The strongest relationships in this variable were between Good working conditions and 'I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, which had a medium correlation ($r=.474$), Good working conditions 'I find that my values and organization's values are very similar,' which had a medium correlation ($r=.407$). The following items also had a medium correlation: Good working conditions and 'I really care about the fate of this organization,' ($r=.373$), Good working conditions and I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined,' ($r=.350$), Good working conditions and 'this organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance,' ($r=.323$). The following demonstrated small correlations: Good working conditions and 'For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work,' ($r=.237$), Good working conditions and 'I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization,' ($r=.147$), Good working conditions and 'I know what is expected of me at my job,'

($r=.109$), Good working conditions and ‘I am able to do what I do best every day,’
 ($r=.048$).

Table 22: Pearson (r) Work Conditions

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Correlation Rating
Work conditions/accept almost any job with organization	.147	small
Work conditions/values and organization’s values are similar	.407	medium
Work conditions/proud I am part of this organization	.474	medium
Work conditions/inspires the best in me in job performance	.323	medium
Work conditions/glad that I chose this organization to work	.350	medium
Work conditions/care about the fate of this organization	.373	medium
Work conditions/best of all organizations to work	.237	small
Work conditions/I know what is expected of me at my job	.109	small
Work conditions/I am able to do what I do best every day	.048	small

Note: Pearson Correlation (r): $r= \pm .10$ to $\pm .29$ is small, $r= \pm .30$ to $\pm .49$ is medium, $r= \pm .50$ to ± 1.0 is large (Cohen, as cited in Pallant, 2003).

The above tables have demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between employee motivation and organizational commitment. In order to have enhanced employee motivation there has to be enhanced organizational commitment. The factors of job security, promotion, and good working conditions had a sound relationship with ‘I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.’ This is a positive finding because it reveals these participants’ feelings toward their organization. This analysis confirms (at a moderate level) that employee motivation correlates with organizational commitment.

Limitations of Study

Further research is necessary to understand tipped and non-tipped employee motivations. A number of issues were not explained by this study due to limitations. First, this study utilized a convenience sample in three restaurants of a single brand in Orlando, Florida because of the restricted time, skills, and resources given to the researcher. Surveying more restaurants of this brand would provide much richer data and examine and compare the employee motivation and organizational commitment of one brand to another within the same company.

Although the sample size was adequate, however, much richer data could be collected by gathering a larger sample. A larger sample would provide more diversity in age, job types, and experience levels. Different sampling techniques such as random sampling, clustered sampling, or stratified sampling could be employed. Gathering all of the employees in one metropolitan area would be able to provide a larger sample and investigate demographic variables, such as race, as most of the employees were white in this thesis study. This was a chain casual dining restaurant so the results cannot be generalized for a geographic area or segment of the industry.

Recommendations for Future Study

Future studies should focus on the examination of the role of gender in employee motivation and organizational commitment. A larger sample should be used with more than one restaurant type in the restaurant industry, as this study focused on one brand of a casual dining chain.

The researcher could not measure the individual needs of employees in this study. In future research, open-ended questions or interviews could be supplemented in order to create a richer qualitative piece to the research and better understand what motivates workers at a particular location.

A longitudinal research approach within one company may understand how employees needs change over time in motivation and commitment. This longitudinal approach could develop a set of motivation factors that are company specific and explore the changes that occur over time and implications necessary for the company and best practices could be shared.

APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL



Office of Research & Commercialization

September 16, 2005

Catherine Johnson, Graduate Student
Rosen College of Hospitality Management
9907 Universal Blvd.
Orlando, FL 32819

Dear Ms. Johnson:

With reference to your protocol #05-2872 entitled, "**Employee Motivation: A Comparison of Tipped and Non-Tipped Hourly Employees,**" I am enclosing for your records the approved, expedited document of the UCFIRB Form you had submitted to our office. **This study was approved by the Chairman on 9/13/05. The expiration date for this study will be 9/12/06.** Should there be a need to extend this study, a Continuing Review form must be submitted to the IRB Office for review by the Chairman or full IRB at least one month prior to the expiration date. This is the responsibility of the investigator. **Please notify the IRB when you have completed this study.**

Please be advised that this approval is given for one year. Should there be any addendums or administrative changes to the already approved protocol, they must also be submitted to the Board through use of the Addendum/Modification Request form. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur.

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors.

Cordially,

Barbara Ward

Barbara Ward, CIM
UCF IRB Coordinator
(FWA00000351, IRB00001138)

Copy: IRB file
Randall Upchurch, Ph.D.

BW:jm

APPENDIX B: STUDENT CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

You are being asked to take part in this study by completing a survey on motivation. This will take between 3-5 minutes of your time. You are not required to participate in this research and you may discontinue anytime without penalty. You may also withdraw from this study at any time without consequence. You will not receive any direct benefits or compensation by completing this survey. You may also omit any items on the survey that you do not wish to answer.

There are no anticipated risks associated with participation in this study. In addition, you as a participant are not expected to answer every question if it makes you feel uncomfortable. You will not be penalized for refusing to answer a question. As a research participant you will not benefit directly from this research, besides learning about how research is conducted. Your responses will be analyzed and reported anonymously. This means that there will be no unique identifiers to track any of the surveys. The consent forms will be kept separately locked in a file cabinet for a period of three years, after which they will be destroyed. If you agree to voluntarily participate in this research study, please indicate your agreement by signing this consent form. By signing this form you are certifying that you are at least 18 years of age.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study: Catherine Johnson, Graduate Student, Rosen College of Hospitality Management, 9907 Universal Blvd, Orlando, FL 32819; (407) 903-8070. Dr. Upchurch, Faculty Supervisor, Rosen College of Hospitality Management, The telephone number is: (407) 903-8048.

Whom to contact about your rights in the study: UCFIRB Office, University of Central Florida Office of Research, Orlando Tech Center, 12443 Research Parkway, Suite 302, Orlando, FL 32826. The telephone number is (407) 823-2901.

_____ I have read the procedure described above.

_____ I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure.

Name: _____ Date: _____

____ I would like to receive a copy of the final "interview" manuscript submitted to the instructor.

____ I would not like to receive a copy of the final "interview" manuscript submitted to the instructor.

Principal Investigator: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

Employee Motivation Survey

Please read this short survey about employee motivation. Read each question carefully before responding, then circle the appropriate answer in the designated space. Please answer to the best of your ability and save any additional comments for the back page. Thank you for your help.

To understand what is most important to you, please read each statement and rank its importance on a scale from 1-5, where 1=Very Unimportant (VU), 2 = Unimportant (UI), 3=Neutral, 4=Important (I), and 5=Very Important (VI).

Please circle only one choice for each item.

	VU	UI	N	I	VI
A feeling of being involved	1	2	3	4	5
Job security	1	2	3	4	5
Supervisor's help with personal problems	1	2	3	4	5
Good Wages	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting work	1	2	3	4	5
Tactful discipline	1	2	3	4	5
Promotion or career development	1	2	3	4	5
Good working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
Management/Supervisor loyalty to employees	1	2	3	4	5
Gratitude for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5
Monetary Incentives for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5
Public celebration for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5

To understand your commitment to an organization, please read each statement and circle the number which most closely matches your opinion on a scale from 1-5, where 1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4=Agree (A), and 5=Strongly Agree (SA).

Please circle only one choice for each item.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
I would accept almost any job to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
I find that my values and organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5
I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5
I know what is expected of me at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to do what I do best every day.	1	2	3	4	5

Your Profile

This last section asks some general questions about you and your job. This information will be kept in the strictest confidence and used for statistical purposes only.

Are you? Please select one.

Female

Male

Which of the following best describes your age? Please √ one.

16 – 20

21-25

26-30

31-35

36 and above

Which best describes your race? Please √ one.

African-American

Asian

Hispanic

White

Other

What is your marital status? Please √ one.

Single

Couple

What is your highest level of education completed? Please √ one.

GED

4-year college program

High school diploma

Master's degree

1-2 years past high school

Other (Describe _____)

How long have you been at your current job? Please √ one.

Less than one year

6-9 years

1-3 years

more than 9 years

3-6 years

How long have you been in this industry? Please √ one.

Less than one year

6-9 years

1-3 years

more than 9 years

3-6 years

Which department is your full time job? Please √ one.

Server

Bartender

Hostess/Greeter

Other _____

Thank you for your participation in this study.

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