The relationship between internal service components and organizational commitment in fine-dining restaurants

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERNAL SERVICE COMPONENTS
AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
IN FINE-DINING RESTAURANTS

by

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Bachelor of Arts
College of St. Benedict
1997

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Internal Service Components and Organizational Commitment in Fine-Dining Restaurants

by

Taryn M. Perry

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Due to increased competition in the restaurant industry, employers need to offer more than monetary compensation to attract quality employees. Offering these non-economic benefits, or internal services, can aid in keeping employees satisfied and committed to their organizations. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between internal service components and organizational commitment. Data was collected from three fine-dining restaurants in Las Vegas, Nevada. The original hypotheses were not supported by the research results. Yet, the study did yield evidence indicating that satisfaction with some aspects of internal services was influential in predicting organization commitment. Implications for management and future research are discussed.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For many hospitality organizations, attracting new employees is much less complicated than keeping these employees satisfied and committed to their positions. Many hospitality companies already pay a competitive wage, yet employees are seeking more than just monetary compensation. They need to also be satisfied with the organization’s internal services, which include policies and procedures, teamwork and peer-helping behavior, management and supervisor support, training and tools, communication, and rewards and recognition (Hallowell, Schlesinger, & Zornitsky, 1996). These internal services provide the employee with much more that just the reward of pay as compensation for coming to work and performing the job well. When both the economic (i.e. wages and benefits) and non-economic needs (i.e. internal services) have been met, the employee feels satisfaction with his or her position and workplace environment (Hallowell et al., 1996).

Employees who are satisfied with an organization and what it has to offer are more committed to the organization and less likely to leave. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), organizational commitment is generally positively correlated with an employee’s intent to stay with an organization. Thus, organizational commitment can be greatly improved by providing an adequate and attractive work environment for employees.
Due to the increased competition in the hospitality industry, employers today recognize commitment to the organization as a business necessity. In turn, many organizations are adapting a more employee-oriented way of thinking by focusing on internal service components (Enz & Siguaw, 2000; Hallowell et al., 1996). These components include (1) policies and procedures, (2) teamwork and peer-helping behavior, (3) management and supervisor support, (4) training, (5) tools, (6) communication, and (7) rewards and recognition. This switch in focus may help a company to improve employee satisfaction and increase organizational commitment to gain a competitive edge in the market (Enz & Siguaw, 2000).

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between internal service components and organizational commitment. This study was conducted to discover what non-economic benefits positively influence restaurant employees’ commitment to their organization and their desire to stay with their organization.

There has been previous research conducted about what causes organizational commitment to develop, yet the potential impact of human resource management practices, or internal services, on commitment has received much less attention (Meyer & Smith, 2001). Meyer & Allen (1991; 1997), Mowday, Porter, & Steers (1982); Mowday, Steers, & Porter, (1979) and Schlesinger & Heskett (1991) have all conducted research dealing with the topic of organizational commitment. They found that many aspects of the work environment, or internal services, and the job itself can strongly influence organizational commitment. Hallowell et al. (1996) have taken this research a step
further by showing a strong relationship between satisfaction with internal service quality and lower employee turnover rates. Although previous authors have been thorough in their research, there is still a need to piece together these separate ideas.

The current research is replicating a portion of a previous study conducted by Rachel Shinnar (1997) that examined the influence of individual characteristics, benefit satisfaction, and internal services received on employee satisfaction and organizational commitment in a Las Vegas casino. A portion of her study dealt with internal service components and their relationship to organizational commitment. The current study will use the portions of her survey dealing with internal service components, but will use Meyer and Allen's (1991) survey instead of the Mowday et al.'s (1979) survey used in her study to measure organizational commitment.

Significance of Study

This paper proposes to continue commitment research in an unexplored employment area, fine-dining restaurants, by measuring the relationship between internal services and organizational commitment. Previous research has measured workplace issues in relation to organizational commitment in many industries, including hospitality. Yet, these researchers measured different variables within the work environment than what I am using in this study. Also, some researchers have measured one or several of the internal service components in regards to organizational commitment, but no researcher has examined all of these items together in the restaurant industry.

The exploration of the relationship between internal service quality and organizational commitment in restaurants may lead to ideas about how to improve the
employee work experience, thus increasing commitment to the organization. More awareness by restaurant managers of how to better serve their 'internal customers' is needed in order to improve the overall work environment. These results may help managers and industry officials to create programs that utilize some or all of the internal service components in order to attract and retain committed employees.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine employee's satisfaction with internal service components and how this satisfaction in turn relates to their commitment to the organization. An understanding of these components may lead employers to ideas about how to improve the employee work experience in order to increase organizational commitment and not only attract, but retain quality employees.

Chapter Two is a literature review of the many materials dealing with the above issues, along with definitions of the constructs and stated hypotheses. Chapter Three, the methodology section, is a discussion of the questionnaire design, survey administration and methods used to analyze the data to test the hypotheses. Chapter Four addresses the anthropomorphic results of the surveys and statistical analysis. Chapter Five includes conclusions of the findings and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Many researchers have recognized organizations within and outside the hospitality industry that have successfully trained and maintained their employees, which in turn has improved employee commitment and service quality (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991; Enz & Siguaw, 2000; Garvin, 1988; Hallowell, Schlesinger, & Zornitsky, 1996; Hart & Bogan, 1992; Heskett, Sasser, & Hart, 1990; Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1990; and Zemke & Bell, 1989). These organizations have been the pioneering force behind increasing internal service quality to employees in order to increase commitment to the organization. Yet, many hospitality industry managers still hold the attitude of simply filling frontline positions with warm bodies and not investing the training and care needed to develop them into winning employees. Hallowell et al. (1996); Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982); Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979); and Schlesinger and Heskett (1991), all argue that by investing in an employee through training and commitment building activities, an organization can help to guard against an employee leaving to pursue a better opportunity elsewhere. This idea could be applied in hospitality settings where employee retention seems to be an ongoing problem (Milman, 2002).
Many characteristics in the environment, the job itself, and the employee can influence organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982; and Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991). Monetary satisfaction alone does not guarantee the retention of good employees. In order to retain top performing employees, employers need to also offer a positive work environment, which feeds employee satisfaction, thus increasing commitment. Offering internal services to employees can satisfy this non-economic need. Internal services are made up of elements such as room for advancement, organizational support, communication and tasks (Hallowell et al., 1996). This literature review will define and show the relationship between the seven internal service components, (1) policies and procedures, (2) teamwork and peer-helping behavior, (3) management and supervisor support, (4) training, (5) tools, (6) communication, and (7) rewards and recognition; and organizational commitment.

Internal Service Components

Internal services are defined as the services, or components, provided by a company to satisfy an employee's non-economic needs. Internal service quality is the level at which an employee is satisfied with the services received from these internal service providers (Hallowell et al., 1996).

Much of the past literature dealing with internal service components has measured them in terms of how they affect service quality. If an organization wants to improve its employees' commitment and service quality to 'external customers', it must start by satisfying the needs of 'internal customers' or employees (Hallowell et al., 1996). One way in which management can address the needs of its internal customers is by offering
additional benefits to increase employee satisfaction, which may lead to a higher external
service quality (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991; Garvin, 1988; Hart & Bogan, 1992; Heskett
et al., 1990; Zeithaml et al., 1990; and Zemke & Bell, 1989). Satisfaction can stem from
an employee fulfilling both economic (i.e. wages) and non-economic needs (i.e. internal
services). "The most significant retention predictors are associated with intrinsic
fulfillment and working conditions rather than monetary rewards" (Milman, 2002, p.49).

**Hypothesis 1:** A higher level of employee satisfaction with internal
services received will positively correlate with the employee's level of
organizational commitment.

Internal Service Component Definitions

For the purpose of this study, seven internal service components will be defined and
measured: (1) policies and procedures, (2) teamwork and peer-helping behavior, (3)
management and supervisor support, (4) training, (5) tools, (6) communication, and (7)
rewards and recognition.

Policies and Procedures

Policies and procedures refer to the overall rules and regulations that guide an
organization. An example would be a sexual harassment policy or procedures for dealing
with tardiness or absenteeism in the organization. Generally, policies and procedures are
outlined in an employee handbook. Roehl and Swerdlow (1999) found that employees'
awareness and acceptance of company rules increases their consistency of service and
identification of their values with the organization's values. On the other hand, if there
are too many policies and procedures to deal with, an employee may become confused and frustrated as to what exactly to follow in terms of performing his/her job correctly (Zeithaml et al., 1990).

**Hypothesis 2:** A higher level of employee satisfaction with an organization's policies and procedures will positively correlate with the employee's level of organizational commitment.

Teamwork and Peer-Helping Behavior

Teamwork and peer-helping behavior refers to the interactions that employees have with their coworkers. The extent to which employees or peers help one another through support and direction in the workplace can lead to a feeling of empowerment and provide other employees with the opportunity to reciprocate these actions. These behaviors seem to nourish an environment perceived as supportive, trusting, caring, participative and for the most part relationship-oriented (Corsun & Enz, 1999). Also, peer-helping behavior creates a sense of community among employees, which is a valued asset to an organization.

Teamwork is essential in the hospitality industry where almost all employees engage in frequent customer interaction and the job burnout rate is high (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991). Positive coworker interactions in an organization can help the employee to deal with stress, cut down on the burnout level and provide better service to customers. Employees have a desire to be part of the team. The respect of teammates can be a huge motivating factor and an employee may feel that letting down the team is worse than letting down the organization. Also, teamwork and peer-helping behavior helps to
enhance an employee’s ability to serve his or her customer. Through their research.
Berry and Parasuraman (1991) found that teamwork was central to delivering excellent
customer service.

**Hypothesis 3:** A higher level of employee satisfaction with an
organization’s teamwork and peer-helping behavior will positively
correlate with the employee’s level of organizational commitment.

Management and Supervisor Support

Management and Supervisor support is defined as an employee’s belief that his or her
superiors are willing and able to assist in the execution of work-related duties (Susskind,
Borchgrevink, Brymer, & Kacmar, 2000). Management and supervisor support also
refers to the satisfaction employees have with their supervisor’s support of them and their
work. Supervisor support can be classified as moral, physical, or managerial.

Similar research dealing with perceived supervisory support emphasizes the
importance of the management and supervisor support component. Perceived
supervisory support is the perception that the employee forms about the degree to which
supervisors value his or her contributions and are concerned with his or her well being
(Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). The concept
of perceived supervisory support is suggested to increase obligations to the supervisor
and the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

Employees form perceptions of how they are viewed and treated by their supervisors
within the entire organization, which in turn affects their commitment to the organization.
Eisenberger et al. (1990) studied perceived organizational support and how it related to
employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. They found that employees with higher perceptions of supervisory support expressed stronger feelings of affiliation and loyalty to the company. In another study, Eisenberger et al. (2002) investigated the relationships between employees’ perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and employee turnover. They found that employees who believed that their supervisors valued their contributions and supported them in their positions showed increased organizational commitment. These results are congruent with the idea that employees who felt their contributions were highly regarded by management showed greater emotional involvement with the organization.

Supervisors, as ambassadors of the organization, are the ones who convey positive valuations and caring to the employees and also report to management about the employees’ work (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Since supervisors act as agents of the organization, employees view the way they are treated by their supervisors as an indication of whether the organization favors or disfavors them. Roehl and Swerdlow (1999) found that, “A belief that their supervisors play supportive roles in their jobs permits employees to use management’s expertise and procedures to reach company goals” (p.190). Since frontline managers and supervisors have more daily contact with the lower level employees of a company than does upper management, management or supervisor support, as opposed to organizational support, seems to be more effective in increasing organizational commitment.

Although there are many reasons why people join a company, such as benefits, pay, and world-class training programs, the reason they are productive and stay with the company is because of their relationship with their supervisor or management (Milman,
A good manager sets clear goals and helps to clarify job expectations, which can increase an employee's felt job responsibility. Also, by allowing active employee interaction and feedback on certain decisions within the organization, management can help to increase commitment to the job and organization (Mowday et al., 1982).

In the hospitality industry, a manager's job is much more difficult than that in non-service industries, since they have to ensure that both the technical and interpersonal part of the employee's jobs are done correctly (Zemke & Bell, 1989). There is a strong tie between good service management and quality customer service. Also, because there is so much interaction in service industries between management and employee, management needs to ensure that it is practicing what it preaches. Management can lose credibility if its actions are not congruent with what is told to employees or with what the organization stands for (Zemke & Bell, 1989).

**Hypothesis 4:** A higher level of employee satisfaction with an organization's management and supervisor support will positively correlate with the employee's level of organizational commitment.

**Tools**

Tools refer to the materials and information that are provided to the employee by the organization to assist the employee in performing his or her job. An example of a tool would be implementing new computer systems in a bar to make it more efficient for employees to ring in orders and keep track of sales. Price (2001) claims that one type of job stress associated with turnover is that of resource inadequacy, or not giving the employee enough tools to perform his or her job in a correct manner.
Zeithaml et al., (1990) claimed that provision of high quality service depended on the appropriateness of tools and technology provided to employees by the organization to perform the job. Companies can enhance their employee’s performance by supplying adequate and reliable equipment and information to perform the job, or improving the ‘technology - job fit’ (Zeithaml et al., 1990). A poor technology - job fit can result in failure in service and employee job frustration, thus ending in turnover.

Hypothesis 5: A higher level of employee satisfaction with an organization’s provided tools will positively correlate with the employee’s level of organizational commitment.

Training

Training refers to the instruction and orientation the employee receives in accordance with the job he or she is to perform. In reviewing previous literature, Roehl and Swerdlow (1999) suggested a strong relationship between training, job performance and satisfaction, and commitment to the organization. The results of their study showed that training appeared to drive an employee’s organizational commitment regardless of his or her background. Roehl and Swerdlow stated that, “Although the effect was indirect through morale, awareness of the rules, and perception of management quality, it nevertheless has a powerful impact on commitment behaviors, such as acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, willingness to work, and intent to stay” (p.190). They also added that although this research was conducted in a hospitality setting, the patterns were similar to results from research conducted in other industries. In short, although the
hospitality industry has unique characteristics, the successful training programs that are being implemented in other industries may be suitable for hospitality, or vice-versa.

When management does not supply the proper training and tools essential to adequately perform the job, employees may experience role ambiguity. They are uncertain of what is expected of them and they do not have the training or skills necessary to meet customer demands (Zeithaml et al., 1990). Role ambiguity can be frustrating to a new employee and can lead to him or her leaving the company.

Other research has also suggested that training may result in more qualified employees with better attitudes and increased teamwork. Training increases an employee’s ability to cope with his or her job and decreases the stress associated with the position (Saks, 1996). Since the organization invests time and care in employees through training, they may perceive training as an indicator of organizational support, thus adding to their commitment to the organization.

An example of effective training is the training program at Disney’s Polynesian Resort, “Magic of Polynesia”. This program was designed specifically to help the employees, or cast members, gain an understanding of and commitment to the business. The training included three modules that helped employees to learn about Polynesia and to align the employee’s values with those of the resort (Enz and Siguaw, 2000). The first module dealt with the business of hospitality and what Polynesian hospitality entailed. Module two was designed to align the employee’s personal values with those of the resort. Module three focused on Kinaole, or a high degree of flawless excellence, product and service to the guest. Even after the initial training, the training values are
reinforced and integrated into the resort's reward, accountability, and coaching programs (Enz and Siguaw, 2000).

**Hypothesis 6:** A higher level of employee satisfaction with an organization’s training will positively correlate with the employee's level of organizational commitment.

**Communication**

Communication refers to the information sharing that the employee receives from upper management or via his or her supervisor about what is going on in the organization. Verona (1996), through the use of commitment and communication surveys, found that there was a generally positive relationship between organizational communication and commitment. In another study, Ferris (1985) observed relationships between nurses and their supervisors in a Midwest hospital and how the communication patterns affected the nurses' intent to leave. Employees with higher leader-member exchange scores, or more interactive communication with their supervisors, were less likely to leave their current position than those employees with low leader-member exchange scores (Ferris, 1985).

Positive relations between an employee and his or her supervisor depend on competent leadership skills, many of which are grounded in communication abilities including listening/feedback, coaching, and information sharing (Goleman, 1998).

Jablin (1987) was one of the first scholars to explore the relationship between communication and turnover intent. He divided communication into eight antecedent categories: organization-wide communication, organizational structuring characteristics, integration in emergent communication networks, supervisor communication
relationships, coworker communication relationships, communication-related
expectations, perceived role ambiguity and conflict, and communication-related traits and
competencies. Jablin explains these communication variables, as antecedents to an
employee's affective responses, such as organizational commitment, that in turn are
predictors of turnover intent. Organization-wide communication such as newsletters and
management memos dealing with issues that affect the employee, are a way to bridge a
gap between the organization and its employees. This type of communication helps to
reinforce employee feelings of organizational identification and also may reduce the
uncertainty and equivocality the employee feels toward the organization, making him or
her want to stay.

Scott et al. (1999) found that supervisor and coworker relationships have a strong
relationship with intent to leave. Based on the results of their study, they believe that
adequate communication helps to reduce workplace uncertainty, in turn adding a sense of
stability to an employee's position. The authors go on to state that quality
communication relationships may create a work climate that encourages one to continue
with the organization. "Improving communication, both in terms of adequacy of
information sent/received and the relationships between employees, seems likely to
reduce turnover intent" (Scott et al., 1999, p.415). If employees are able to link negative
or problematic communication with intent to leave the organization, they may also
associate healthy communication with a willingness or desire to stay with the
organization.

Leader communication is especially important, since much of the communication
between organization and employee is via a direct supervisor. According to Mayfield
and Mayfield (2002), “Communication is a powerful catalyst for establishing and sustaining trust, the emotional state that is shared by highly committed workers and leaders” (p.91). Behavior that is congruent with leader communication, such as active listening and feedback, can help to foster loyalty and encourage organizational commitment. Management needs to establish formal and informal lines of communication between itself and its staff, such as conducting meetings that encourage feedback and simply talking to employees to evaluate their attitudes toward their jobs (Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999).

**Hypothesis 7**: A higher level of employee satisfaction with an organization’s communication will positively correlate with the employee’s level of organizational commitment.

**Rewards and Recognition**

Rewards and recognition refer to the ways in which an employee’s work is acknowledged and/or remunerated by the organization or supervisor. Rewards and recognition are used as a motivational tool for employees to confirm their accomplishments and to reinforce their commitment to the organization (Zemke & Bell, 1989). Offering employees rewards or acknowledgment for their contributions to the organization may be a more effective motivational tool than monetary compensation alone.

According to the organizational support theory, opportunity for employee reward serves as a positive communication to the employee that the organization values him or her and his or her contributions to the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).
Expected reward for high effort could strengthen an employee's perception that the organization values his or her contributions, which in turn would encourage the incorporation of organizational membership (Eisenberger et al., 1990). This behavior helps to nurture the employee's personal need for accomplishment and his or her overall affective commitment to the organization (Mendes, 1996).

The hospitality industry is new to the concept of variable pay or bonuses as a way to reward line-level employees for meeting exceptional performance standards and company goals (Enz & Siguaw, 2000). In the past, the only personnel benefiting from company bonuses were management level and above. Recently, many hospitality companies were faced with low local unemployment rates or a shortage of competent and talented employees to fill their lower level positions. In order to fill positions they offered rewards above and beyond that of regular base pay (Zemke & Bell, 1989).

Among the hospitality pioneers of this concept is Motel Properties, Inc., which developed and implemented an employee-recognition program that provides rewards from the initial interview throughout the individual's employment term. The recognition program is sustained by constant evaluation and modification of the rewards and by integrating recognition with the company's operations and culture (Enz & Siguaw, 2000). Another company, Mississippi Management Corporation, a successful hotel management company in Jackson, MS, pays out regular bonuses for basic tasks, such as making an unusually large number of beds correctly in one day or carving the prime rib properly in the buffet line. Though these are not large tasks, the bonuses serve the purpose of keeping employees fulfilled and feeling satisfied with the work that they are doing (Zemke & Bell, 1989).
Not only do reward and recognition programs help increase satisfaction, they also increase the bottom line. A program developed by Rodeway Inn in Orlando provides the traditional practices of employee of the month/year, but also gives special gifts and star award pins for exceptional performance at all employment levels. Although these types of rewards are not large, the payoff of such recognition is priceless with the increase of employee satisfaction and retention. Also, most notable, is the 99% occupancy rate, which they have claimed to sustain since implementing the program because of their satisfied employees (Enz & Siguaw, 2000).

**Hypothesis 8:** A higher level of employee satisfaction with an organization's rewards and recognition will positively correlate with the employee's level of organizational commitment.

**Definition and Background of Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment is the emotional obligation or attachment that is felt by the employee for the organization, which enforces his or her decision to continue working in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982; and Mowday, et al., 1979). In theory, employees who are committed feel connected to the organization and are motivated to maintain that connection.

This definition is derived from previous researchers who have studied the topic of organizational commitment extensively. There does not seem to be much consensus in literature on a solid definition of what 'commitment' means. Mowday et al. (1982) noted, "Researchers from various disciplines ascribed their own meanings to the topic,
thereby increasing the difficulty involved in understanding the construct” (p.20).

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) explain commitment as an individual’s psychological attachment. Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment as consisting of three factors of a single construct, “(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” (p.226). According to Meyer and Allen’s (1991) definition, organizational commitment is “...a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization” (p.67). Their model consists of three-components, or rather three separate concepts, that define and measure commitment:

1. Affective commitment: being committed to the organization based on emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, or because the employee ‘wants to’.

2. Normative commitment: based on the employee having a feeling of obligation to continue employment with the organization, or because the employee ‘ought to’.

3. Continuance commitment: being committed to an organization due to the high cost of leaving, or because the employee ‘needs to’ (p.67).

Until recently, Mowday et al.’s (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) has been the leading survey instrument in measuring commitment. In more recent years, there has been an influx of debate about the validity of the OCQ instrument in measuring commitment. Benkoff (1997) wrote an article aiming to gather evidence on
the homogeneity of the OCQ and to demonstrate the negative consequences of ignoring the subject. It was Benkhoff's belief that if the commitment aspects of the OCQ were not disentangled, there was no way of knowing what was actually being measured, since the OCQ deals with one construct containing three dimensions. Through his research, Benkhoff found that based on his analysis, "one has to reject the hypothesis that the three dimensions of the OCQ represent aspects of the same underlying concept" (p.128). To make progress in commitment research he suggests two approaches for future research, (1) to abandon Mowday et al.'s definition and explore the three dimensions separately along with alternative definitions of commitment, and (2) "researchers could use Allen and Meyer's scales which are based on a different commitment concept and have been tested for homogeneity" (Benkhoff, 1997, p.128).

Commeiras and Fournier (2001) also conducted a critical evaluation of the OCQ. Their study evaluated the dimensionality of the OCQ in hopes of finding the best way to measure the construct of commitment. Through their analysis, they found that the OCQ only effectively measured the affective dimension of organizational commitment. If a researcher was only looking at this one aspect of commitment, then the OCQ may be appropriate. In many cases, researching only one facet of commitment is insufficient. For a more effective measurement, researchers would be encouraged to use a more multidimensional instrument to measure organizational commitment (Commeiras & Fournier, 2001).

Many recent studies have used and validated Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Heffner & Rentsch, 2001; Meyer & Smith, 2001; Meyer, Stanley,
Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; and Powell & Meyer, in press). These authors have successfully utilized Meyer and Allen's (1991) survey to measure commitment and research its antecedents and consequences within the work environment. Some even used the instrument to explore its generalizability outside of North America (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Meyer et al., 2002).

Cheng and Stockdale (2003) measured the construct validity of the three-component model in a Chinese context and compared the Chinese levels of organizational commitment to those of previously published data from Canada and South Korea. They found the three-component model to have a reasonably good fit into the Chinese context. They also found that the affective and normative commitment levels were higher in the Chinese sample than in the Canadian and South Korean samples. Continuance commitment was found to be lower in the Chinese sample than the Canadian and South Korean Samples.

Meyer et al. (2001) conducted a meta-analysis investigation to estimate and compare the strength of true correlations between variables in Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment. They found that the three forms of commitment correlated as predicted. They were related, but could still be distinguishable from one another. This study further supported the three-component model as a reliable multidimensional tool to measure organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2001).

Heffner and Rentsch (2001), among other researchers, explored how certain variables in the work environment related to organizational commitment. They proposed that social interaction influenced affective commitment. By using a multiple constituencies approach, they looked at how work group social interaction, department social interaction
and organizational social interaction would influence affective commitment. Their results supported the hypothesized relationships between social interaction and affective organizational commitment. To increase affective commitment, organizations may encourage positive social interaction among employees. A way to accomplish this is by providing opportunities for employees from different areas to interact in training, company events or different team assignments (Heffner & Rentsch, 2001).

Internal Service Components and Organizational Commitment

The goal of many organizations in offering a high quality work environment is to improve organizational commitment and maintain skilled employees, which in turn greatly increases their competitiveness. In order to create and sustain a competitive advantage in the market, firms depend on their employees to be highly trained and talented (O'Malley, 2000). This competition for qualified employees has forced organizations to offer incentives, other than monetary compensation, to retain qualified, talented and loyal employees. These seven components of internal service quality, (1) policies and procedures, (2) teamwork and peer helping behavior, (3) management and supervisor support, (4) training and tools, (5) communication, and (6) rewards and recognition, help to satisfy an employee's non-economic needs, which in turn helps to strengthen the bond of trust between the employee and employer (Hallowell et al., 1996).

Meyer and Smith (2001) conducted a study on human resource practices (HRM) and their impact on organizational commitment. They found that HRM practices, such as training and promotion, might serve as one way in which companies can show support
for, or commitment to, their employees. Their results suggested that, “employees’ organizational commitment is related to their perceptions and evaluations of the HRM policies and practices of these organizations” (Meyer & Smith, 2001, p.329).

Several companies have started to implement internal service principles in hopes of increasing their employees’ commitment to the organization. For example, when faced with the problem of management not spending enough time training employees and providing customer service, Taco Bell developed a tool to cut out approximately 16 hours of paperwork from the general management position. The tool is named TACO, which is an acronym for ‘Total Automation of Company Operations’. This tool helps management tackle job tasks much more efficiently with computerized employee scheduling, food ordering, and communication functions. With the reduction of paperwork because of the implementation of TACO, management service capability and service to employees has improved, which has helped to achieve a dramatic increase of employee commitment and improved customer service (Hallowell, et al., 1996).

The experience of new employees to the organization is especially crucial in the development of lasting commitment (Mowday, et al., 1982). A company offering internal services from the start may help to foster a new employees commitment early on in employment. Simpson House Inn, a Santa Barbara, California bed and breakfast, illustrates this by devising what they call the “Simpson House University” as part of their initial training curriculum (Enz & Siguaw, 2000). Their training consists of three modules using inventive activities that encourage understanding, improve staff communication and self-understanding, along with enhancing self-esteem. Communication enhancement and conflict resolution is also addressed in staff meetings.
and other human resource policies. Their idea is simply that good service can only be given by employees who are committed to the company and are intrinsically motivated by their own competence.

Conclusion

The rising competition for quality employment in the hospitality industry has driven employers to start offering more than just monetary benefits to recruit competent candidates. To recruit and retain these employees, some organizations have strategically created a high-quality work environment by offering internal service components. In implementing these components, a number of hospitality companies have experienced a positive correlation with employee longevity and commitment to the organization.

The purpose of this study is to examine how an employee's satisfaction with each of the six internal service components is related to their level of organizational commitment. The exploration of the relationship between internal service quality and organizational commitment may lead to ideas on how to improve the employee work experience, thus increasing commitment to the organization.

This chapter described the survey variables, supported them through a review of literature and stated the hypotheses. Chapter Three will outline the questionnaire design, survey administration and analysis methods used to test the hypotheses. Chapter Four will address the results of the results of the surveys and statistical analysis. Chapter Five will include the conclusions and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Population of Interest

The population of interest for this study was fine-dining, line-level restaurant employees. To test the hypotheses, surveys were conducted in three fine-dining restaurants in the Las Vegas, Nevada area. These three restaurants were open during the evening dinner shift, seven days a week. Prior to administering the survey, I spoke directly to management of all three restaurants to explain the basis of the current research and receive permission from them to conduct the study. A pre-test was conducted among William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration graduate students with fine-dining restaurant experience to test the readability and timing of the survey.

Selected Restaurants

The three restaurants are each part of nationwide fine-dining chains. Each restaurant location has approximately 50 line-level employees. These employees include food servers, bartenders, server assistants, food runners, host persons, chefs and dishwashers. Location A opened June 2002. Location B opened November 2002. Location C opened January 2002. Some of the employees had worked within the company at previous locations in the U.S. and moved to this area to specifically work for the company at these locations.
Sampling Procedures

A self-administered survey was used to collect the human subject data. Prior to data collection, a protocol explaining the study was submitted to the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS). Approval was granted by the OPRS to conduct research involving human subjects (see Appendix C). Also prior to collecting data, a follow-up phone call was made to each restaurant requesting that management explain my presence on the property so that the employees were aware of who I was and why I was there. This was done to encourage more cooperation from the employees in completing the surveys and eliminate any misunderstandings that might have arisen.

The participants were given the pen-and-paper survey. They also received an informed consent cover letter explaining; the purpose of the study, the survey was voluntary, and the survey was completed anonymously (see Appendix A). I also supplied a pen for the participants to keep after they finished completing the survey.

Surveys were handed out to the employees at the beginning of their shifts directly by me or later by management if the employee was busy. The survey was administered on two separate days at each restaurant. The employees returned the surveys directly to me when finished. If they were unable to finish the surveys until later in the evening, the employees placed their completed surveys in a large manila envelope labeled “Completed Surveys”, thus eliminating contact between the completed surveys and the restaurant’s management staff. Since many of the employees had staggered start and end times, surveys were left with management for these employees to complete and place in the “Completed Surveys” envelope. Although management minimally helped in the data collection process, anonymity was still present since each participant used the same type
of pen to complete the survey and the participants personally placed the completed surveys in the envelope upon completion. At the end of each night, the envelope was sealed and placed at the front desk for an evening pick-up or locked in the office for a morning pick-up.

Questionnaire Design

The current study's design was intended to measure internal service components and their relationship to organizational commitment among employees of two full-service, fine-dining restaurants in Las Vegas, NV. The survey questions measuring internal service components and organizational commitment were based on a variety of instruments proven to be reliable and valid.

Internal Service Components

Questions from a previous study conducted by Rachel Shinnar (1997) were used to measure employee satisfaction with internal service components. Her study examined the influence of individual characteristics, benefit satisfaction, and internal services received on employee satisfaction and organizational commitment in a Las Vegas casino. A portion of the current survey used Shinnar's (1997) worded questions measuring the seven internal service components.

Questions 1-10 in section C of the survey measured employee satisfaction with the seven internal service components. Items 1-6 each evaluated a different service component, (1) tools, (2) policies and procedures, (3) teamwork and peer-helping behavior, (4) management or supervisor support, (5) training, and (6) communication. Items 7-10 assessed the employees' satisfaction with the final component, rewards and
recognition. Respondents were asked to rate these items from “1 – very dissatisfied” to “5 – very satisfied” (see Appendix B).

Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen’s (1997) three-component scale was used to measure organizational commitment. Question numbers 1-22 in section B assessed the employees’ commitment to the organization. Questions 1-8 measured affective commitment. Questions 5, 6 and 8 were all reversed scored. Questions 9-14 measured normative commitment, with question 9 being reversed scored. Questions 15-22 measured continuance commitment, with questions 15 and 18 being reversed scored. Respondents were asked to rate these questions of the survey from “1— strongly disagree” to “5 – strongly agree” (see Appendix B).

Instrument Reliability

Reliability and internal consistency of the survey instruments was assessed using Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. Cronbach’s alpha estimates the proportion of variance that is consistent in a set of survey scores. Alpha coefficients above .70 are sufficiently acceptable levels at which to conduct exploratory research (Traub, 1994). The survey instrument used to measure internal service components was found to have a reliability coefficient of .82, which is well above the accepted .70 level (Table 1).

Meyer and Allen’s (1997) survey instrument measuring the three dimensions of organizational commitment was also assessed using Cronbach’s alpha. The alpha scores of the measuring scales for affective, normative and continuance commitment were .79, .80, and .76, respectively, and are above the .70 level (Table 1). The total commitment score of all three dimensions was .88, again well above the .70 cut-off. These scores are
consistent with Meyer and Allen's (1997) survey reliabilities, for the affective, normative, and continuance commitment scales that were shown to be .85, .79, and .73, respectively.

Table 1. Reliability for Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal Service Components</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Commitment</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demographics

Age

Age was measured by asking the respondents to state their actual age (see Appendix B, section A, item 1).

Education Level

Level of education was divided into six categories, ranging from "less than high school" to "graduate degree" (see Appendix B, section A, item 2). Respondents were asked to check or fill in the blank box next to their corresponding education level.
Gender

Gender was coded as “1-female” and “2-male”. Respondents were asked to indicate their gender by filling in or checking the blank next to the corresponding label (see Appendix B, section A, item 3).

Organizational Tenure

Organizational tenure was presented in a fixed response format. Respondents were asked to check or fill in the blank box next to their corresponding numbers. The choices ranged from “under 90 days” to “over 5 years” (see Appendix B, section A, item 4).

Work Status

Work status was measured by the respondent checking or filling in the appropriate box next to either “full time employee” or “part time employee” (see Appendix B, section A, item 6).

Race

Race was presented in a fixed response format. The respondent was asked to choose between, “Indian or Native American”, “Asian or Pacific Islander”, Black or African American”, “Spanish / Hispanic / Latino”, “White (not of Hispanic origin)”, and “Multi-racial or Bi-racial” (see Appendix B, section A, item 7).

Current Position

Current position was presented in a fixed response format. The respondent was asked to choose between “food server”, “bartender”, “food runner”, “server assistant”, “chef”, “dishwasher”, “hostess” (see Appendix B, section A, item 8).
Data Analysis Procedures

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data (Norusis, 2000). First, descriptive statistics were used to compare means and determine normality. The histograms for the survey data were shown to be approximately normal, allowing for data analysis to continue. Descriptive statistics were also used to analyze the demographic data. Then, survey instrument reliability was analyzed using Cronbach's alpha.

Principle component factor analysis was used to identify and classify similar questions from the survey instrument and group them into new summed variables in order to reduce the data set. Data reduction is essential in simplifying the correlational relationships between a number of continuous variables (Miller, Acton, Fullerton, & Maltby, 2002). Descriptive statistics were then used to compare means and determine normality on these newly formed factors, or variables. The histograms produced from the data showed that the new variables were approximately normally distributed, permitting data analysis to continue. Cronbach’s Alpha was used to determine the reliability of the new variables.

Linear regression was used to analyze the relationships between the new variables. Linear regression was appropriate for data analysis since the variables were measured on an ordinal or metric scale and certain assumptions had been met. These assumptions include having a random sample with independent observations, a linear relationship between variables, approximately normal distribution of values of the dependent variables, and dependent variables with distributions of constant variance (Norusis, 2000).
Multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationships between individual demographics, or moderating variables, and the new study variables. Multiple regression analysis is used to investigate two or more variables simultaneously and the scales can be nominal, ordinal, or metric (Norusis, 2000). This was an appropriate statistical method to use since there were several demographic variables to look at in regards to the variables and some of the questions were measured on a nominal scale, such as gender (female=1, male=2).

Summary

This chapter described the method of questionnaire design, survey administration and data analysis methods used to test the hypotheses. The findings will be presented in chapter four and the conclusions and recommendations in chapter five.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

 Demographic Profile of the Participants

Responses from 88 participants were collected over the seven-day collection period. Of these, only one was discarded because it was more than 50% incomplete. This resulted in 87 usable surveys for the study or a 58% overall response rate. The individual response rate for Property A was 46%, for Property B was 30%, and for Property C was 24% (Table 2).

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze each demographic variable using the SPSS software. Of the 87 participants, the majority were male. Property A respondents were 60% male and 40% female. Property B respondents were 62% male and 38% female. Property C respondents were 73% male and 27% female (Table 2).

The majority of the respondents were in their late 20’s. In the overall sample, the average age was 28.1 years. Property A’s average age of employed workers was 27.8 years. Property B’s average age was 27.7 years. Property C’s average age of respondents was 29 years (Table 2). Out of all the demographic questions, this category was the only one that had a missing value. One participant chose not to give his age or simply skipped over the question.
In terms of organizational tenure, 46% of the overall respondents were employed by their restaurant companies for 1 to 2 years. The tenure distribution is presented in Table 2. Of Property A participants, 47.5% were employed for 1 to 2 years. Of Property B respondents, 61.9% were employed for 90 days to 1 year. Of Property C participants, 61.5% were employed for 1 to 2 years.

Table 2. Average Age, Gender, and Organizational Tenure of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Property A</th>
<th>Property B</th>
<th>Property C</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Age</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Tenure:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 90 Days</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 Days to 1 Year</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 Years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3 Years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 Years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 5 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Participants (N)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The participants were asked to report their current work status. Of the overall participants, 73.6% were full-time employees and 26.4% worked part-time. Property A had 70% full-time employees and 30% part-time employees. Property B had 90.5% full-time employees and 9.5% part-time. Property C had 65.4% full-time employees and 34.6% part-time (Table 3).

The participants were also asked to provide their current position. Of the position titles given, 34.6% of the overall 87 participants were food servers and 19.5% were chefs. The position distribution is presented in Table 3. Of the Property A responses, 35% were food servers and 17.5% were chefs. Of the Property B responses, 23.9% were food servers and 33.3% were chefs. Property C participants were 42.3% food servers and 23.1% bartenders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Property A</th>
<th>Property B</th>
<th>Property C</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Status:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-Time</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-Time</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Position:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Server</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartender</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Runner</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Server Assistant</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chef</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishwasher</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostess</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Work Status and Position Distribution of Participants

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The participants were also asked to report their highest level of education completed. In the overall sample, 37.9% had completed some college and 21.8% had completed a technical or vocational school. The education distribution is presented in Table 4. Of the Property A respondents, 40% of respondents had completed some college and 22.5% had a college degree. Of the Property B participants, 57.1% had finished some college and 28.6% had completed technical or vocational school. Of the Property C participants, 26.9% had completed high school and 23.1% had completed high school.

Table 4. Education Distribution of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Property A</th>
<th>Property B</th>
<th>Property C</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Than High School</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed High School</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical or Vocational School</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Degree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>87</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants were asked to report which race category they most closely identified with. Of the entire 87 participants, 47.1% were White (not of Hispanic origin) and 25.3% were Asian or Pacific Islander. The race distribution is presented in Table 5. Property A respondents were 37.5% Asian or Pacific Islander and 32.5% White (not of Hispanic
origin). Property B participants were 42.9% White (not of Hispanic origin) and 28.5%
Asian or Pacific Islander. Property C participants were 73.1% White (not of Hispanic
origin) and 15.5% Spanish / Hispanic / Latino. The high percentage of Asian or Pacific
Islander employees in both Property A and Property B and the overall sample is
understandable since the type of cuisine is Hawaiian fusion.

Table 5. Race Distribution of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Property A</th>
<th>Property B</th>
<th>Property C</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indian or Native American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or African American</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish / Hispanic / Latino</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (not of Hispanic origin)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-racial or Bi-racial</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>87</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, the majority of the sample was White (not of Hispanic origin), male,
averaged 28.1 years of age, and had completed some college. These participants were
mostly full-time employees working as food servers (34.6%) or chefs (19.5%) and had
been working for their restaurant companies for 1 to 2 years.
Data Analysis Results

Principle Component Analysis

Originally, it was determined that the three dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) could be summed to create one overall organizational commitment score. It was also determined that all 7 internal service components could be summed to form one single variable. Principle component analysis was used to analyze both the 22 commitment questions and the 10 internal service questions from the survey to find out if this was possible.

The results showed that in this study the original groupings did not hold together as originally hypothesized. The principle component analysis grouped similar questions together forming new variables. One of these new variables contained questions on both commitment and internal service components, so summing the factors to make one commitment score would not work. One of the new variables only contained 5 of the 10 internal service component questions, so summing the factors to formulate one internal service component score also would not work.

Four new factors were formed from this principle component analysis. Table 6 presents the new variables and their corresponding questions. Factor 1, renamed “Loyalty”, grouped questions B1, B7, B11, B12, B14, and B16 together. In this new variable there were two questions from the affective dimension of commitment (B1 and B7), three questions from the normative dimension (B12 and B14), and one question from the continuance dimension of commitment (B16), thus making it a dependent variable. This variable contains questions that assess an employee’s loyalty and personal feelings towards the restaurant.
Factor 2, renamed “Internal Services”, grouped C6, C7, C8, C9 and C10 together. This new variable was comprised of all internal service questions, thus constituting it the independent variable. It is understandable that questions C7 through C10 were grouped together, since they originally measured the internal service component of “rewards & recognition”.

Factor 3 was renamed “Family & Belonging” and grouped questions B5, B6, B8 and C3 together. This new variable was comprised of three questions from the affective commitment dimension (B5, B6, and B8) and one question dealing with coworker support from the internal services section (C3). It was surprising to have a question that originally measured internal services now being grouped with commitment questions in the same factor. After reviewing the question (C3) on coworker interaction, it seemed that feeling satisfied with one’s “interactions with coworkers” could contribute to the “sense of belonging” or feeling as if one was “part of the family”. All of these questions deal with a feeling of belonging or attachment to the organization, thus making it a second dependent variable.

Factor 4, renamed “Obligation & Sacrifice”, grouped questions B2, B3, B13, B21, and B22 together. This new variable was made up of two questions from affective commitment (B2 and B3), one question from normative commitment (B13), and two questions from continuance commitment (B21 and B22), thus making it a third dependent variable. This variable contains questions that deal with obligation to the organization and the level of sacrifice it would take to leave the organization.
Table 6. **New Variables and Corresponding Questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Variable:</th>
<th>Question:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Loyalty (Factor 1)  
Dependent variable | (B1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this restaurant.  
(B7) This restaurant has a great deal of personal meaning for me.  
(B11) I would feel guilty if I left my restaurant now.  
(B12) This restaurant deserves my loyalty  
(B14) I owe a great deal to this restaurant.  
(B16) It would be very hard for me to leave my restaurant now, even if I wanted to. |
| Internal Services (Factor 2)  
Independent variable | (C6) The amount of information you receive from management about what is going on in your restaurant.  
(C7) Advancement opportunities at your restaurant.  
(C8) The recognition you receive for doing a good job.  
(C9) The reward system in place.  
(C10) The way your performance is evaluated. |
| Family & Belonging (Factor 3)  
Dependent variable | (B5 recoded) I do not feel like “part of the family” at my restaurant.  
(B6 recoded) I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this restaurant.  
(B8 recoded) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my restaurant.  
(C3) Interactions with your coworkers. |
| Obligation & Sacrifice (Factor 4)  
Dependent variable | (B2) I enjoy discussing my restaurant with people outside of it.  
(B3) I really feel as if this restaurant’s problems are my own.  
(B13) I would not leave my restaurant right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.  
(B21) One of the few serious consequences of leaving this restaurant would be the scarcity of available alternatives.  
(B22) One of the major reasons I continue to work for this restaurant is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another restaurant may not match the overall benefits that I have here. |

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Analysis of Hypotheses

Due to the principle component analysis results, the previously stated hypotheses could not be supported as uni-dimensional constructs. Thus, hypotheses one through eight were not statistically tested since the variables did not hold together as originally planned. Instead of summing to form an overall commitment variable and an overall internal service component variable, the factor analysis grouped the survey questions as four new variables. The new independent variable, “internal services”, now represents internal service components. The new dependent variables, “loyalty”, “family & belonging”, and “obligation & sacrifice”, represent organizational commitment. Since the previously stated hypotheses could not be analyzed due to the factor analysis results, regression analysis was instead used to examine the four new variables.

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to compare the means and determine normality of the four new factors (Table 7). The histograms of the new variable data were approximately normally distributed, permitting data analysis to continue.

Survey instrument reliability was analyzed using Cronbach’s alpha. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of the new measuring scales for loyalty, family and belonging, obligation and sacrifice, and internal services was .82, .79, .80, and .76, respectively (Table 7). These alpha scores met the conventional cut-off of .70, so data analysis was continued.
Table 7. Descriptive Statistics and Scale Reliabilities for New Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Factors:</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty (5 items)</td>
<td>18.95</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family and Belonging (4 items)</td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation and Sacrifice (5 items)</td>
<td>15.09</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Services (5 items)</td>
<td>17.05</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation Analysis**

The four new variables were analyzed for correlation using Pearson's Correlation analysis (Table 8). The results confirmed that all but one variable were significantly correlated with one another. This indicated that as satisfaction with one factor increases, satisfaction with other factors increase as well. Loyalty and family and belonging variables were highly significantly correlated to obligation and sacrifice (.513, .524 respectively). This is expected since each of these factors included organizational commitment questions from each of the three commitment dimensions. When these variables were tested for multi-collinearity during regression analysis, tolerance values indicated that multi-collinearity was not a problem.
Table 8. Correlations for Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Services (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.394**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family &amp; Belonging (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.401**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation &amp; Sacrifice (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.513**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the alpha=0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the alpha=0.05 level (2-tailed).

Linear Regression Analysis

Linear regression was used to analyze the relationships between the independent variable and each of the three dependent variables. The three linear regression models were designed with loyalty, family and belonging, and obligation and sacrifice as the dependent variables and internal services as the predictor. Table 9 presents the regression results. The first regression model (loyalty) was significant at .000. Internal services explained about 14% of the loyalty variable. The second regression model (family & belonging) was significant at .045. Internal services only explained about 4% of the family and belonging variable. The third regression model (obligation & sacrifice) was not significant. Internal services did not predict the obligation and sacrifice variable.
Table 9. Internal Services Regressed on Loyalty, Family & Belonging, and Obligation & Sacrifice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient (B)</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Loyalty</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Family &amp; Belonging</td>
<td>.230</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Obligation &amp; Sacrifice</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moderating Variables

A multiple regression model was run with each of the demographics (age, education, gender, tenure, work status, current position, and race) predicting the four variables (loyalty, family & belonging, obligation & sacrifice, and internal services). Work status was the only demographic variable that was significant with any of the four variables (Table 10). This regression model was significant at .001. Work status (full-time or part-time) explained 12% of the obligation and sacrifice variable.

Table 10. Work Status Demographic Regressed on Obligation & Sacrifice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient (B)</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obligation &amp; Sacrifice</td>
<td>-.362</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

The original stated hypotheses could not be supported due to the results of the principle component analysis. Regression analysis was conducted on the four new variables that were formed by the factor analysis. Out of these four factors, "internal services" was the independent variable, and "loyalty", "family and belonging", and "obligation and sacrifice" were the dependent variables. Linear regression analysis showed that internal services explained about 14% of the loyalty variable and only about 4% of the family and belonging variable. The internal services variable was not significant in explaining obligation and sacrifice.

Through multiple regression analysis, relationships between demographics and the four variables were examined. Work status was the only demographic variable that was shown to be significant with any of the four variables. Work status, full-time or part-time, explained 12% of the obligation and sacrifice variable.

This chapter presented the survey results and statistical analysis of the data. The discussion on the findings, along with conclusions and recommendations for future research are presented in chapter five.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Limitations of the Study

A few limitations of the study should be noted.

1. The nature of the sample limits the study’s generalizability to the entire restaurant or hospitality industry.

2. The restaurants were chosen at convenience, since the researcher worked for the parent company.

3. There is a limited number of employees at each location since the restaurants are only open for dinner.

4. Some of the surveys were handed out by management rather than by the researcher.

Discussion of Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between internal service components and organizational commitment. This study proposed that satisfaction with internal services could help to increase employee organizational commitment. Originally, the idea was to sum the scores from each dimension (affective, normative, and continuance) of Meyer and Allen’s three-component model of organizational commitment to form an overall commitment score instead of three separate scores. The
seven internal service components would be summed to create an overall internal service variable. This did not happen. Instead, grouping similar survey questions together through principle component factor analysis formed four new factors. These new factors and corresponding questions differed from the original plan of having all the organizational commitment questions in one group and all of the internal service components in another.

The original hypotheses proposing that internal service components would positively influence organizational commitment were not supported by the current study. However, as the new formed factors show, there is still evidence that internal services can influence organizational commitment. The three new dependent variables, "loyalty", "family and belonging", and "obligation and sacrifice", were mostly comprised of commitment questions, with the exception of "family and belonging" that included a question from internal service components. The independent variable, "internal service" was comprised of internal service component questions.

Though the percentages were small, internal services were shown to explain two of the three dependent variables (loyalty, and family and belonging). Internal services explained about 14% of the loyalty variable. Internal services only explained about 4% of the family and belonging variable. Internal services did not predict the obligation and sacrifice variable.

Internal services predicting loyalty, and family and belonging is understandable when examining the questions that make up these variables (Table 6). The internal services questions deal with company communication, reward, recognition, and advancement. These are all characteristics that may influence an employee wanting to spend his or her
“career with this restaurant” (B1) or “owing a great deal to this restaurant” (B14). The internal service characteristics may also influence an employee’s feeling of being “part of the family” (B5) or feeling a “strong sense of belonging” (B8).

The work status demographic was shown to have a significant relationship with the obligation and sacrifice variable. Whether an employee worked full-time or part-time explained 12% of that employee’s obligation to and sacrifice for the organization. Though the percentage is small, it is understandable, since working at a restaurant full-time may make a person feel more obligated to their organization than an employee who is only working part-time. Also, if an employee is working full-time for a restaurant, it may be more of a sacrifice for them to leave, than for an employee who only works part-time.

Implications for Management

If internal services only explained 14% of the loyalty variable, what is influencing the other 86%? Also, if internal services only explained 4% of the family and belonging variable, what is influencing the other 96%? It would be in a restaurant’s best interest to find out what does influence organizational commitment and focus on this to help build employee commitment.

This study was undertaken because of my belief that there were internal services that could be offered to line-level restaurant employees which would strengthen their commitment to the organization. Though this study showed inconclusive results in terms of the original hypotheses, the final results of this study do support the idea that employees are seeking more than a paycheck or a good tip. The internal services outlined
in the four new variables, (organizational communication, rewards, recognition, advancement opportunities, performance evaluation, and coworker support), were shown to influence the new organizational commitment variables. This leads me to believe that internal services do influence organizational commitment in some form or another. Now, it is up to the employer to find out what his or her employees want in order to satisfy their non-economic work needs and how to strengthen the organizational commitment bond. By doing this, restaurants not only satisfy their employees, but also satisfy their customers. Employers can accomplish good service and retain a competitive advantage in the market by having effective and satisfied employees in front-line positions (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991).

Through my experience working in the industry, I have observed many restaurants not investing the time and care needed to produce a high-quality employee. Management should try to focus on early job experiences to help shape employee attitudes throughout the duration of employment (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991). Also, employers need to commit to employees by offering effective training and skill-building activities and recognizing employees for their accomplishments (Enz & Siguaw, 2000).

With the competition for good employees increasing, the environment that an organization provides for its employees becomes more important. In my experience, a positive work environment can help to cut down on the stress usually associated with working in the restaurant industry. A positive work environment helps to make an employee feel more committed to their organization, in turn increasing attendance and decreasing turnover (Dessler, 1999). To aid in developing a positive work environment,
management needs to stress the importance of teamwork and help to foster a strong sense of community among employees (Dessler, 1999).

Recommendations for Future Research

Hopefully, the findings of this study will not discourage others from pursuing this topic. New research with a different and larger sample could possibly reveal more conclusive results. Along with this, a more valid and reliable survey instrument to measure internal service components could yield more definitive results. Conducting this research only in the fine-dining restaurant industry may have been too limiting to the results. Future research may wish to look at these variables in regards to the entire restaurant industry or elsewhere in the hospitality industry.

Another item needing more exploration is that of trying to find one valid tool to measure an overall organizational commitment variable. Meyer and Allen’s (1997) survey instrument used in this study is reliable if measuring all three dimensions of commitment, but cannot be summed to form an overall commitment score. Finally, future researchers may want to more closely examine the new variables that were formed by the factor analysis procedure in the study. There were relationships between some of the variables that could possibly be beneficial to future commitment research.

Conclusions

This study revealed that internal services dealing with rewards, recognition and communication are determinants of some aspects of organizational commitment. These aspects or characteristics, include loyalty and family and belonging. Although there was
no support for the original hypotheses, it makes sense that employees are looking for something more from their employers. According to previous research, there is evidence that a positive work environment can lead to more satisfied employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; and Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991). The next step is to find out how to link this satisfaction with the work environment to organizational commitment. Restaurants and other hospitality organizations can look at this as a starting point to explore what it is that employees are looking for in an employer and what makes these employees commit to an organization.
REFERENCES


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APPENDIX A

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Dear Restaurant Employee,

The following survey is part of a research study designed to examine your satisfaction with workplace issues and commitment to your job. Your answers should reflect your true feelings and beliefs about the statements included on the survey. There are no right or wrong answers. This is not a test.

Please take a few minutes to respond to the survey. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Please take note that:

- Your participation in this study is completely voluntary;
- Under no circumstances will your individual responses be reported to anyone. Your answers will remain strictly confidential by the researcher.
- Your answers positive, negative or neutral will in no way affect you.
- Your responses are very important to me. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the survey and the study, please discuss your concerns with me. I would prefer to talk further with you about these concerns rather than miss the opportunity for your cooperation.

Once you have completed the survey, please give it back to me. I will be on property to answer your questions and collect surveys. Remember, I will keep your answers confidential at all times. Your name does not need to be on your survey.

Thank you for participating in the survey. I appreciate you taking time to complete the survey. Your accurate information will help make the study a success. If you have any further questions regarding the study, please contact Dr. Gail Sammons at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas at (702) 895-4462, or via email at sammon@ccmail.nevada.edu, or Taryn Perry at (702) 617-4964, or via email at tnikocian@hotmail.com. For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, you may contact the UNLV Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at (702) 895-2794. By filling out the questionnaire, you are acknowledging your understanding of the information provided and agree to participate in this study.

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Taryn Perry
Graduate Student

Gail Sammons
Associate Professor
APPENDIX B

Please complete the following three pages - Sections A, B, and C. Thank you.

Section A.

Please complete the following questions by either checking (√) the box that corresponds to the appropriate answer or filling in the blank. This information will be kept confidential.

1. What is your present age? _________ 6. What is your work status?
2. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

☐ less than high school
☐ completed high school
☐ technical or vocational school
☐ some college
☐ college degree
☐ graduate degree

3. What is your gender?

☐ female
☐ male

4. How long have you worked for this company?

☐ Under 90 days
☐ 90 days to 1 year
☐ 1-2 years
☐ 2-3 years
☐ 4-5 years
☐ over 5 years

5. Which race category do you most identify with?

☐ Indian or Native American
☐ Asian or Pacific Islander
☐ Black or African American
☐ Spanish / Hispanic / Latino
☐ White (not of Hispanic origin)
☐ Multi-racial or bi-racial

8. What is your current position?

☐ Food server
☐ Bartender
☐ Food runner
☐ Server assistant
☐ Chef
☐ Dishwasher
☐ Hostess
Section B.

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1 (strongly disagree)</th>
<th>2 (disagree)</th>
<th>3 (undecided)</th>
<th>4 (agree)</th>
<th>5 (strongly agree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I enjoy discussing my restaurant with people outside of it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I really feel as if this restaurant’s problems are my own.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another restaurant as I am to this one.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. This restaurant has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my restaurant now.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I would feel guilty if I left my restaurant now.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. This restaurant deserves my loyalty.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I would not leave my restaurant right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I owe a great deal to this restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. It would be very hard for me to leave my restaurant right now, even if I wanted to.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my restaurant now.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. It wouldn’t be too costly for me to leave my restaurant right now.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Right now, staying with my restaurant is a matter of necessity as much as desire.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section B.

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1 = strongly disagree</th>
<th>2 = disagree</th>
<th>3 = undecided</th>
<th>4 = agree</th>
<th>5 = strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this restaurant would be the scarcity of available alternatives.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this restaurant is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another restaurant may not match the overall benefits that I have here.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section C.

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1 = very dissatisfied</th>
<th>2 = dissatisfied</th>
<th>3 = neither satisfied nor dissatisfied</th>
<th>4 = satisfied</th>
<th>5 = very satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The tools/materials you receive to do your job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The overall policies and practices of your restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Interactions with your coworkers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Your direct supervisor.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The type of training that you receive.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The amount of information you receive from management about what is going on in your restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Advancement opportunities at your restaurant.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The recognition you receive for doing a good job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The reward system in place.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The way your performance is evaluated.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for completing this survey. Please return the survey to me in the envelope provided. You may keep the pen as a thank you for helping me with this research project.
Notice of Approval to Conduct Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: February 26, 2003

TO: Taryn M. Perry, Hotel Administration
    Gail Sammons (Advisor)
    M/S 6021

FROM: Dr. Fred Preston, Chair
      UNLV Social Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board

RE: Status of Human Subject Protocol Entitled: The Relationship between internal Service Components, Organizational Commitment and Intent to Turnover in Full-Service Hotels

OPRS# 600S0103-030
Approval Date: February 13, 2003

This memorandum is official notification that the protocol for the project referenced above has been reviewed by the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS) and has been determined as having met the criteria for exemption from full review by the UNLV Social Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) as indicated in regulatory statutes 45CFR 46.101. The protocol has been reviewed via the expedited review process and has been approved for a period of one year from the date of this notification. Work on the project may proceed.

Should the use of human subjects described in this protocol continue beyond February 26, 2004, it will be necessary to request an extension. Should there be ANY changes to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit those changes to the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at 895-2794.

Cc: OPRS File
DATE: October 13, 2003

TO: Taryn Perry
    Hotel Management

FROM: Dr. Michael Stitt, Co-Chair
      UNLV Social/Behavioral Institutional Review Board

RE: Status of Human Subject Protocol Entitled: The Relationship Between Internal Service Components Organizational Commitment and Intent to Turnover in Full-Service Hotels OPRS#60080203-030

This memorandum is official notification that the protocol for the project referenced above has met the criteria for exemption from full committee review by the UNLV Social/Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB) as indicated in regulatory statues 45CFR 46.110. The protocol has been submitted through the expedited review process and has been approved. The protocol is approved for a period of one year from the date of this notification. Work on the project may proceed.

Should the use of human subjects described in this protocol continue beyond October 11, 2004 it would be necessary to request an extension 30 days before the expiration date. Should there be any change(s) to the protocol, it will be necessary to request such change in writing through the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects.

If you have any questions or require assistance, please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects via email at OPRS/HumanSubjects@cemail.nevada.edu or call the office at 895-2794.

Please place a copy of this approval letter in your protocol file.

cc: OPRS File

*This letter includes approval for modification #1, submitted 10/03. Revision changed study population from Florida to Las Vegas.
VITA

Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Taryn M. Perry

Home Address:
292 Grantwood Drive
Henderson, NV 89074

Degrees:
Bachelor of Arts, Communication 1997
College of St. Benedict

Thesis Title: The Relationship Between Internal Service Components and Organizational Commitment in Fine-Dining Restaurants

Thesis Examination Committee:
Chairperson, Dr. Gail Sammons, Ph. D.
Committee Member, Dr. David Corsun, Ph. D.
Committee Member, Dr. Skip Swerdlow, Ph. D.
Graduate Faculty Representative, Dr. Daniel McAllister, Ph. D.