

**An Exploratory Model of the Relationships between Empowerment,
Job Involvement, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment,
and Customer Orientation in the Hospitality Industry**

Jaekyoon Jun

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Hospitality and Tourism Management

Mahmood A. Khan, Chair
Ken W. McCleary
Suzanne K. Murrmann
Pamela A. Weaver
Kusum Singh

October 30, 1998
Blacksburg, Virginia

Keywords: Customer Orientation, Empowerment, Job Involvement,
Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment,
Structural Equation Modeling

Copyright 1998, Jaekyoon Jun

**An Exploratory Model of the Relationships between Empowerment,
Job Involvement, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment,
and Customer Orientation in the Hospitality Industry**

Jaekyoon Jun

(ABSTRACT)

The concept of customer orientation is becoming increasingly more important to managers, especially in service industries. Given the premise of the study that a customer-oriented employee has a critical role in enhancing service quality, little research has investigated the antecedents of the customer orientation construct. The objective of this study was to develop a theoretical model of customer orientation, and to test the hypothesized relationships between customer orientation and its antecedents of empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

To measure these hypothesized relationships at the individual level of analysis, 217 employee responses from a multi-unit chain restaurant were analyzed. The model was evaluated using structural equation modeling (SEM) utilizing SAS CALIS (SAS system 1989). Evaluation was conducted using a two-stage procedure, in which the construct measurements (a measurement model) were evaluated first,

and then the structural relationships (a structural model) between the constructs were evaluated.

Results indicated that empowerment and job satisfaction were found to have positive, direct effects on customer orientation, whereas job involvement had a negative, direct effect on customer orientation. Job satisfaction was found to be a positive antecedent of organizational commitment. Employee empowerment was found to be positively influence job satisfaction. Moreover, the path from empowerment to organizational commitment, which was not hypothesized in the initial model, was found to be positively significant. However, the direct relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment, as hypothesized in this study, was not supported.

The findings contribute to a better understanding of customer orientation by identifying antecedents of customer orientation among employees in the hospitality industry. The managerial implications of these research findings were discussed. The limitations of the study were explored, and suggestions were given for future research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not be complete without the support and contributions of many people. Foremost is Dr. Mahmood Khan, my committee chair, who provides guidance, patience, and support at every phase of the doctoral program. His efforts on my behalf have made my doctoral program more rewarding, both academically and personally. His contributions are gratefully acknowledged.

I would like to express my appreciation and thank the other committee members, Dr. Ken McCleary, Dr. Suzanne Murrmann, Dr. Kusum Singh, and Dr. Pamela Weaver for their invaluable assistance throughout the dissertation process. I also thank Mr. Bill Forgione and Mr. John Rollins for affording me the opportunity to collect data in such an ideal setting.

I want to thank my friends, colleagues who taught me so much about life, without them this process would have been much more difficult and lonely. I also owe a special debt of gratitude to my wife and children. Without their love and patience, the completion of the doctoral degree would not have been possible. Finally, this dissertation is dedicated to my beloved parents, whose unwavering love and unconditional devotion made this possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	<u>Page</u>
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Objective of the Study	4
Research Questions	4
Contribution of the Study	5
Definitions of Terms.....	6
Organization of the Study	7
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
Introduction.....	8
Customer Orientation.....	8
Empowerment	19
Empowerment and Customer Orientation	26
Empowerment and Job Satisfaction.....	28
Job Involvement.....	29
Job Involvement and Customer Orientation	32
Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment	34
Job Satisfaction	36
Job Satisfaction and Customer Orientation.....	37
Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.....	41
Organizational Commitment	43
Organizational Commitment and Customer Orientation	45
Summary.....	47
III. METHODOLOGY	48
Introduction.....	48
Research Framework	48
Research Hypotheses	54
Sample	55
Data Collection.....	55
Measures.....	58
Measurement of Customer Orientation.....	58
Measurement of Empowerment.....	61
Measurement of Job Involvement.....	64
Measurement of Job Satisfaction	67

Measurement of Organizational Commitment.....	69
Statistical Analysis	71
Application of Structural Equation Modeling	71
Structural and Measurement Models.....	73
Summary.....	75
IV. RESULTS	76
Introduction.....	76
Sample Characteristics	76
Descriptive Statistics of Customer Orientation	79
Reliability and Validity	82
Reliability	82
Validity.....	85
Measurement Model	86
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Empowerment	86
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Involvement.....	92
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Satisfaction	92
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organizational Commitment	95
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Customer Orientation.....	97
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Model of Customer Orientation	99
Structural Model	102
Initial Theoretical Model	102
Revised Model 1.....	105
Revised Model 2.....	107
Revised Model 3.....	110
Analysis of the Hypotheses	115
Summary.....	122
V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....	123
Introduction.....	123
Discussion.....	123
Customer Orientation	124
Organizational Commitment	126
Job Satisfaction.....	128
Implications.....	129
Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research	132
REFERENCES.....	134
APPENDIX	148
VITA.....	155

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES	<u>Page</u>
3.1. Customer Orientation Scale	60
3.2. Empowerment Scale	63
3.3. Job Involvement Scale	66
3.4. Job Satisfaction Scale	68
3.5. Organizational Commitment Scale	70
4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	78
4.2. One-way ANOVA: Customer Orientation by Level of Education	80
4.3. Reliability	83
4.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis for Empowerment	87
4.5. First-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Empowerment	90
4.6. Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Empowerment	91
4.7. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Involvement	93
4.8. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Satisfaction	94
4.9. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organizational Commitment	96
4.10. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Customer Orientation	98
4.11. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Fit Statistics	101
4.12. Goodness of Fit for the Customer Orientation Model	113
4.13. Summary of Chi-square Tests for Model Comparisons	114
4.14. Results of the SEM Analysis	117
4.15. Summary of Hypotheses Tests	121

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES	<u>Page</u>
2.1. Relationship of Customer-Oriented Selling to Sales Performance.....	11
2.2. Steps in Developing a Customer-Orientation Scale.....	12
2.3. Model of Customer Orientation	40
3.1. Proposed Model of Customer Orientation	49
4.1. A Path Diagram for the Initial Theoretical Model.....	104
4.2. A Path Diagram for the Revised Model 1.....	106
4.3. A Path Diagram for the Revised Model 2.....	109
4.4. A Path Diagram for the Revised Model 3.....	112
4.5. A Path Diagram of Structural Relationships	116

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In many service organizations, customer-contact employees are the source of competitive advantage, in that they create favorable image of the organization by providing better service than the competition (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Bowen & Schneider 1985; Fisk, Brown, & Bitner, 1993; Schneider & Bowen, 1993). Due to the unique characteristics of services, service employees have a critical effect on the formation of customer expectations and experiences and in evaluating the service received by customers (Bateson, 1992; Berry, 1980; Shostack, 1977; Lovelock, 1981).

According to Bowen and Schneider (1985), “employees not only deliver and create service, but are actually a part of the service in the customer’s view” (P. 129). Customer satisfaction, service quality perceptions, and decisions to remain loyal or to switch service providers are significantly influenced by the attitudes of service employees (Bitner et al., 1990; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988; Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996).

Many studies have suggested that certain employee attitudes can influence customer attitudes in the service industry (Bitner, 1990; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Reynierse & Harker, 1991; Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Wiley, 1991). For example, Schneider and Bowen (1985) found that there is a significant positive relationship between bank employees' perceptions of human resources practices and branch customers' attitudes about the service received. According to Bitner (1990), the attitudinal responses of customer-contact employees have a major impact on customers' perceptions of service quality. Exploratory research by Wiley (1991) also reveals that customers favorably describe a retail chain that is perceived favorably by employees.

In this regard, one important employee attitude, customer orientation, has received much attention in service industries. Customer orientation has been defined as the degree to which employees are oriented toward meeting customer needs, creating customer satisfaction, and solving customer problems (Hogan, Hogan, & Busch, 1984; Kelley, 1992; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). By being customer-oriented, an employee is more likely to engage in behaviors that increase the satisfaction of their customers (Dunlap, Dotson, & Chambers, 1988).

Customer orientation has been positively related to organization performance (Deshpande, Farley, & Webster, 1993; Dunlap et al., 1988; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Narver & Slater, 1990; Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Slater & Narver,

1992). This finding suggests that customer-oriented employees can positively influence the organization's performance by establishing long-term relationships with customers. Consequently, studies have shown that customer-oriented behavior of employees is critical to business profitability (Donaldson, 1993; Hall, 1992; Narver & Slater, 1990).

In addition, high customer-oriented employees avoid behaviors that might result in customer dissatisfaction. Thus, they are consistently attentive, pleasant, and courteous; they are responsive to customers' needs as well as being likeable; and they avoid actions that sacrifice customer interest for short-term gain (Hogan et al., 1984; Kelley, 1992; Kwan, Hom, & Gregory, 1993; Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

The basic premise underlying this study is that a customer-oriented employee has a major role in improving service quality and customer satisfaction. Although many researchers have emphasized the importance of customer-oriented behaviors, little research has investigated the antecedents of the customer orientation construct in service industries. In particular, the customer orientation literature contains very little empirical research that examines the effects of empowerment and job attitudes on customer orientation. Moreover, customer orientation of employees has not received much attention in the hospitality industry. Therefore, the objective of this study is to propose and test a conceptual model of customer orientation in the restaurant industry.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The major objective of the study is to develop a theoretical model of customer orientation. This study investigates the relationships between the customer orientation construct and its possible antecedents. Specifically, perceptions concerning empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are investigated with respect to their interrelationships and their effects on employee customer orientation.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study will examine the following research questions:

1. Is employee empowerment a significant antecedent of customer orientation?
2. Is job involvement a significant antecedent of customer orientation?
3. Is job satisfaction a significant antecedent of customer orientation?
4. Is organizational commitment a significant antecedent of customer orientation?
5. Which of the antecedent constructs investigated in this study, including empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment is most important in influencing customer orientation?

CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study attempts to increase the current level of knowledge of the existing organizational behavior literature by proposing and empirically testing a structural model of customer orientation. First, a proposed model of customer orientation was developed for the hospitality industry, which provides theoretical implications for advancing knowledge that researchers can apply to a wider range of service organizations. Second, the model provides a better understanding of customer-oriented behaviors of employees in the hospitality industry. While much attention to customer orientation has been paid in the service industries, little research has focused on the nature of customer orientation in hospitality field. Third, the findings of the research provide insights into managerial efforts to create a more customer-oriented employee. In other words, the model explains which factors, including empowerment and job attitudes (job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment) are the most important in increasing the level of customer orientation. Finally, this study illustrates the usefulness of structural equation modeling, which is an appropriate statistical technique for testing a theoretical model to examine the relationship between constructs.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Customer orientation is the degree to which employees are oriented toward meeting customer needs, creating customer satisfaction, and solving customer problems (Kelley, 1992; Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

Empowerment is an intrinsic motivation manifested in the four cognitions of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996).

Job involvement is defined as: (1) the degree to which one psychologically identifies with one's job, and (2) the degree to which one considers job performance important to one's self-esteem (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965).

Job satisfaction is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300).

Organizational commitment is the degree to which one internalizes the organization's goals, exerts a greater effort for the organization, and intends to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The remaining chapters of this study discuss the specific research and analyses concerning the issues presented thus far. Chapter II will selectively review the literature on empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, focusing on the relationship between these constructs and customer orientation. Issues and controversies surrounding these concepts will be discussed as they relate to this study.

Chapter III presents the methodology of the study. It describes how the sample used in the study was chosen. It also reviews the specific measures that were used to assess empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and customer orientation. Finally, it describes the statistical techniques that were used in analyzing the data and testing the hypotheses.

Chapter IV presents the results of the SEM analyses of the data. In addition, the theoretical model presented in this study is investigated. Chapter V presents the findings of the study in relation to the hypotheses and provides implications derived from the findings. The limitations of the study and several suggestions for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the theoretical bases for this study are supported by examining the literature related to the constructs of interest in the study. It contains a discussion of the relationships that exist between customer orientation, empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. This discussion provides the justification for the model and the hypotheses that guide the study. Empowerment is reviewed for insights into its relationship with job attitudes and customer orientation. The job attitude constructs are then reviewed for insights into their relationship with customer orientation.

CUSTOMER ORIENTATION

In the early 1980s, customer orientation studies concentrated on defining the construct and developing ways of measuring it. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, replication of prior studies began in various contexts (e.g., industrial, retail, and service) and from different perspectives (e.g., customer and salesperson). As

this decade continues, the value of customer orientation has expanded into areas not normally thought of in this context, such as health care and other service industries.

According to Saxe and Weitz (1982), customer orientation can be described as “the practice of the marketing concept at the level of the individual salesperson and customer” (p. 343). In the marketing concept, the organization’s activities are oriented toward: (1) solving customer problems, (2) fulfilling customer needs and wants, (3) providing customer satisfaction, and (4) establishing long-term relationships with its market (Kotler, 1980; Kurtz, Dodge, & Klompaker, 1976). Saxe and Weitz (1982, p. 344) integrated prior research findings with a series of interviews to develop a comprehensive list of attitudes and behaviors common in customer orientation. They developed the SOCO (Selling Orientation Customer Orientation) scale to measure the degree to which a salesperson engages in customer-oriented selling. More specifically, customer-oriented selling is defined as “the degree to which salespeople practice the marketing concept by trying to help their customers make purchase decisions that will satisfy customer needs” (1982, p. 344).

Highly customer-oriented salespeople do the following: (1) engage in actions aimed at increasing long-term customer satisfaction, (2) avoid actions which would result in customer dissatisfaction, and (3) avoid behaviors which

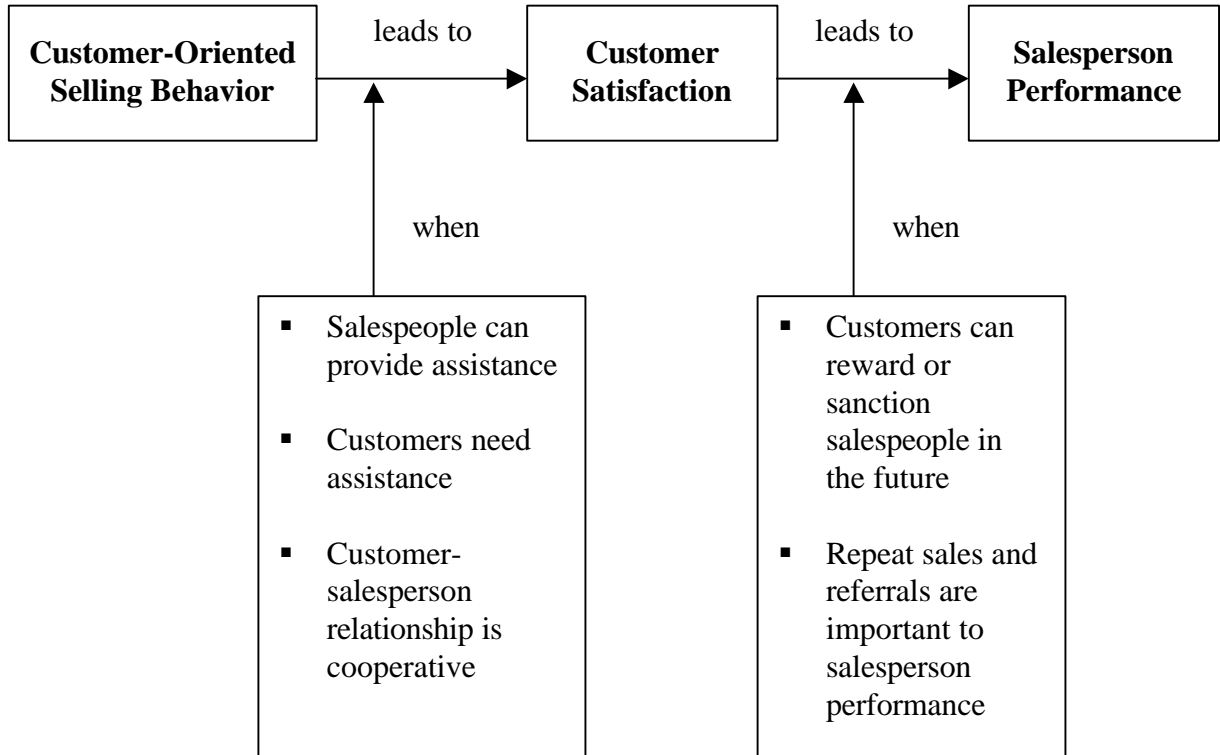
would sacrifice customer interest to increase sales. The SOCO measures six behavioral components of customer orientation:

- (1) a desire to help customers make good purchase decisions,
- (2) helping customers assess their needs,
- (3) offering products that will satisfy those needs,
- (4) describing products accurately,
- (5) avoiding deceptive or manipulative influence tactics, and
- (6) avoiding the use of high pressure (Saxe & Weitz, 1980, p. 8).

Saxe and Weitz (1980) proposed a model of customer orientation, moderating situational variables, customer satisfaction, and performance (see Figure 2.1). It is hypothesized that customer-oriented selling leads to effective salesperson performance when a customer-oriented selling influences customer satisfaction, and when that satisfaction results in enhance salesperson performance. The results of this study indicated that the customer orientation is most significantly related to performance when salespeople have an ability to help customers satisfy their needs and when salespeople have long-term and cooperative relationships with their customers.

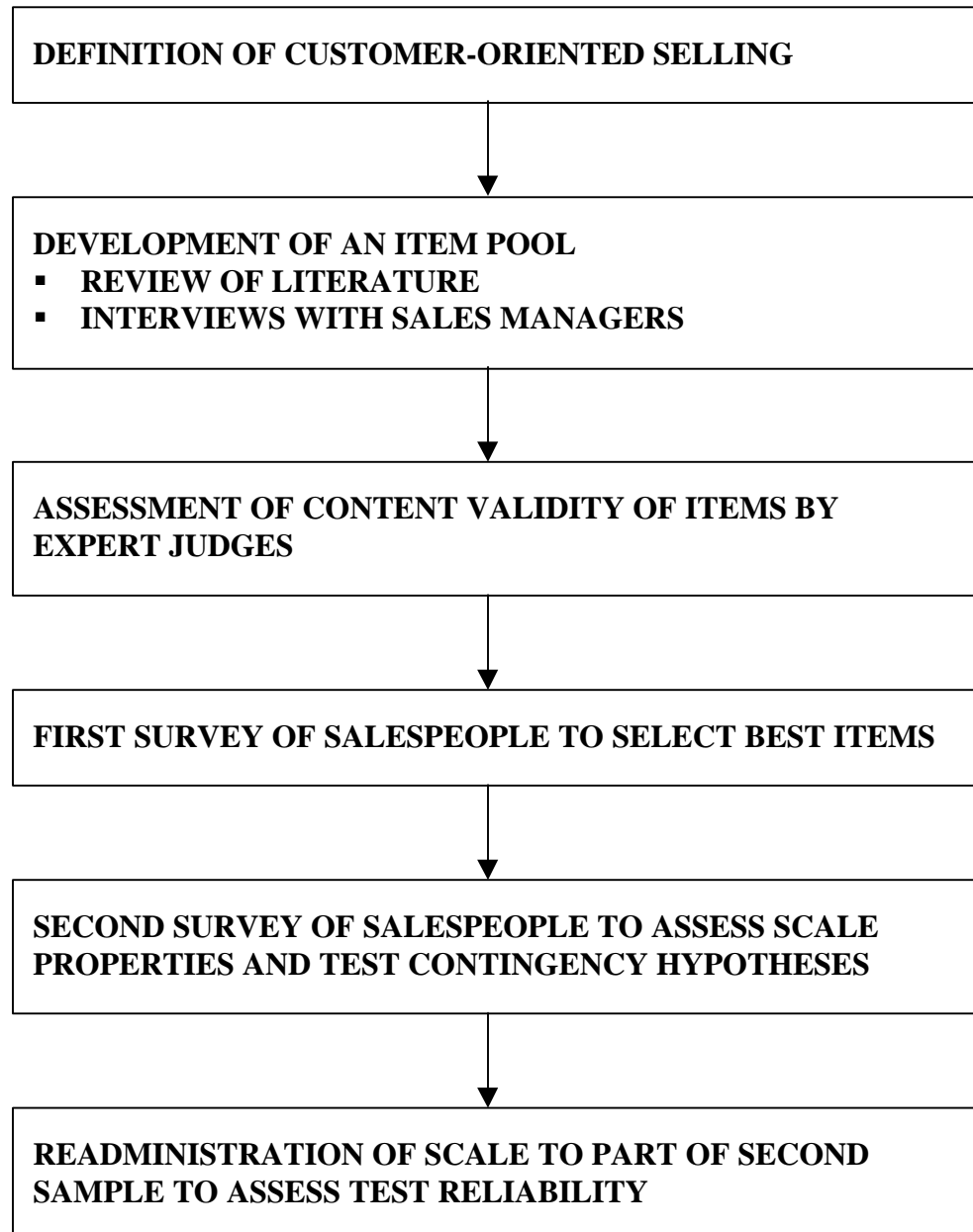
Saxe and Weitz (1982) developed the SOCO scale based on the guidelines suggested by Nunnally (1978) and Churchill (1979) (see Figure 2.2). They initially reviewed the literature and interviewed 25 salespeople and 5 sales manager to

Figure 2.1
Relationship of Customer-Oriented Selling to Sales Performance



Source: Saxe and Weitz (1980)

Figure 2.2
Steps in Developing a Customer-Orientation Scale



Source: Saxe and Weitz (1982)

investigate the concept of customer orientation. The second step in the process was to assess the content validity of items. A panel of expert judges that consisted of 11 sales managers and 13 marketing academics did the assessment. They conducted the first survey on salespeople in retail vehicle sales, wholesale food sales, retail clothing sales, industrial packaging sales, and retail salesclerks. The 70-item scale used in this survey was reduced to 24 items based on their responses. A second survey was conducted by sending the scale to 133 sales representatives in order to evaluate scale properties and to test the hypotheses. Then the questionnaire was re-administered to part of the second sample to assess the reliability of the instrument.

The coefficient alpha for the scale was .86 with the first sample and .83 with the second, indicating a high level of internal consistency (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). In addition, they reported test-retest reliability of .67. In terms of content validity, 79% of the judges called an item “clearly representative” of the concept of customer orientation (Saxe & Weitz, 1980). They examined convergent and discriminant validities using second sample data. This scale showed acceptable levels of validities.

Michaels and Day (1985) replicated the SOCO scale to give industrial buyers the opportunity to assess the degree of customer orientation of salespeople with whom the buyers interacted. The authors assumed that the buyers’ assessment

of salespeople might provide a more objective vantage point from which to measure customer orientation than self-assessment by salespeople. However, the mean SOCO ratings by the buyers were much lower than the salespeople's mean ratings. Michaels and Day (1985) explained:

The discrepancy results from an upward bias in self-assessed ratings of the salespeople samples which was not present in the more objective evaluations of salespeople made by professional buyers. However, a variety of competing explanations could be offered. One might argue that buyers are negatively biased in their evaluations of sales representatives. . . It is possible that there are biases in both directions, upward for salespeople and downward for buyers. (p. 444)

Although Michaels and Day (1985) did not test the validity of the scale, internal consistency reliability and factor solution were examined. The two-factor structure found by Saxe and Weitz (1982) was clearly replicated in the Michaels and Day study. Moreover, the coefficient alpha for this replication study was somewhat higher than that in the Saxe and Weitz samples. Thus, they conclude that the SOCO scale was very convincingly replicated in regard to its measurement properties.

Dunlap et al. (1988) used the SOCO scale to investigate the extent to which real estate brokers use customer-oriented selling techniques. In this study, they developed and used two questionnaires. In the first questionnaire, buyers were asked to rank the degree to which they perceived real estate brokers as being customer-oriented, and in the second, brokers were asked to rate their own

customer-orientation. According to the authors, the SOCO scale seemed to be a useful and robust measure. The coefficient alphas of .88 and .91 were higher than those reported by Saxe and Weitz (1982), and there was support for the unidimensionality of the construct. Significant differences were noted in the results of this study between the perceptions of buyers and brokers of brokers' customer orientation.

O'Hara, Boles, and Johnston (1991) studied possible antecedent variables to customer orientation in sales. Their study used two different sales personnel samples. The variables identified were: gender, job tenure, organizational commitment, supervisory support, and work involvement. Organizational commitment was found to have a significant relationship to selling style. Different results were discovered for the remaining four variables when the two studies were analyzed separately. The first sample of salespeople, in an advertising firm, revealed that female salespeople demonstrated a greater degree of customer orientation than did males.

The second sample involved salespeople of industrial products. In this sample, organizational commitment was found to be positively related to supervisor-employee relations, and job tenure was found to be related negatively to customer-oriented selling. Gender was not found to be of significance in this sample. According to the authors of the study, the nature of the product or service,

the job itself (selling environment), or some combination of these might influence the antecedents of customer orientation.

A sample of customers was used by Brown, Widing, and Coulter (1991) to replicate the SOCO scale, in this case, using customer evaluations of retail salespeople. The authors modified the SOCO scale items somewhat, in order to make them appropriate for the setting and for the customer evaluation of salespeople. These modifications included reducing the scale points from nine points to six points, and also, due to the method of data collection, the corresponding verbal anchors were adjusted. The study's results had a positive correlation with the results of previous studies. The authors were of the opinion that the SOCO scale was of use as a supplemental measurement for evaluating performance in retail selling.

Kelley (1992) investigated service personnel's' customer orientation through the use of a sample, from the financial service industry, of employees who had customer contact. It was found that there was a correlation between the higher levels of customer orientation among service personnel and more favorable perceptions of the organization's service climate, and also there was a greater degree of motivational direction and commitment to the organization. Kelley (1992) stressed that encouraging service personnel to develop a higher degree of customer orientation gave favorable results, and concluded that: "how effectively

an organization conveys its values and expected behaviors to its employees impacts the satisfaction of its customers, the long-term relationship between the organization and its customers, and the profitability of the organization” (p. 34).

The relationship between corporate culture, customer orientation, innovativeness, and business performance was the topic of an exploratory study by Deshpande et al. (1993). The study involved the use of 50 quadrads (two buyer-seller dyads) from Japanese vendor firms and Japanese customer firms’ purchasing executives. Customer orientation was defined by the authors as “the set of beliefs that puts the customer’s interest first, while not excluding all of those other stakeholders such as owners, managers, and employees, in order to develop a long-term profitable enterprise” (p. 72). They found that customer-oriented organizations do perform better.

The conclusion of a study by Williams and Attaway (1996) was that salespeople who have customer-oriented skills are able to develop and maintain more positive relationships with buyers than salespeople who lack these skills. In addition, customer orientation mediates the effects of selling firms’ organizational culture on buyer-seller relationship development. Interpersonal communication and behavior skills related to customer orientation are most effectively developed through various training programs.

Through these studies, the construct validity of customer orientation has been firmly established. The front-line employees are critical to the success of any hospitality organization. Since employees interact directly with customers, it is reasonable to believe that employees will greatly influence customer's perception. In this regard, the level of customer orientation exhibited by employees is very important in creating customer satisfaction in the hospitality industry. However, little empirical research has investigated the factors that affect the extent to which hospitality employees engage in customer-oriented behaviors. Research is needed to expand the model of customer orientation and to identify other individual and organizational factors that may influence employee customer orientation.

EMPOWERMENT

The conceptualization of empowerment and its role within the workplace has been a topic of increasing interest to researchers in recent years. Also, there has been an increasing use of empowerment strategies within organizations to improve performance, satisfaction, and communication. Empowerment has been used to capture a variety of meanings and organizational interventions, but the term has not been consistently defined (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

An investigation of the ways in which empowerment is defined in the literature may aid in understanding the empowerment process. Conger and Kanungo (1988) have identified two different ways in which the term is defined. First, empowerment has been viewed as a relational construct utilized to describe power-sharing by a supervisor. Second, empowerment can be seen as a motivational construct that assumes that empowerment is a process by which employees become intrinsically motivated in their job performance. In order to more fully define and integrate these two conceptualizations of empowerment, the relevant literature will be reviewed.

Empowerment as a Relational Construct

In the literature, the primary means of viewing empowerment is as a relational construct that defines the empowerment process according to the relationships of individuals within organizations. Within this broad framework, empowerment has been defined as a process by which one individual or group grants power to another individual or group. Kanter's (1977) research is representative of this traditional approach to empowerment. Besides increased employee participation, the empowering strategies described by Kanter (1977) include flattening the hierarchy, decentralization, reducing the number of veto barriers for decisions, opening communication channels, making system knowledge and information widely available, mentorship, and training programs.

Another definition of empowerment as a relational construct takes the viewpoint that empowerment is an issue concerning the control of resources. Viewed in this light, empowerment can be seen as a means through which the members of an organization achieve a higher degree of power by gaining access to the control of organizations' critical resources (Astley & Sachdeva, 1984).

In addition to this, empowerment can be seen in relationship to delegation and participative decision-making (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), and can thus be defined as a process by which supervisors share decision-making authority with individuals through either delegation or participative decision-making practices.

If seen as a relational construct, empowerment can be defined, in general, as the process by which a supervisor shares power with employees, and employees gain power in an organization. More recently, the motivational aspects of empowerment have been emphasized in definitions of empowerment.

Empowerment as a Self-efficacy

Conger and Kanungo (1988) proposed that empowerment can be conceptualized as a motivational construct. This approach is consistent with McClelland's (1975) view that empowerment should be viewed as an enabling process, rather than as a delegating one. To conceptualize empowerment in motivational terms, Conger and Kanungo (1988) employed Bandura's (1982) self-efficacy model. He defines self-efficacy as, being "concerned with judgements of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (1982, p. 122). According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), empowerment is the outcome of "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information" (p. 474).

The authors have proposed a five-stage model for the process of empowerment. (Stage 1) Following identification of organizational conditions

leading to employee powerlessness, interventions by management can be introduced (Stage 2) that serve to (1) eliminate external conditions that lead to powerlessness, and (2) provide information about self-efficacy (Stage 3). After receiving self-efficacy information, it is likely to feel empowered (Stage 4) and therefore there will be a continuation of the behavior leading to the accomplishment of task objectives (Stage 5).

Empowerment as a Psychological State

In contrast to Conger and Kanungo's (1988) approach that empowerment is an objective state in an organization, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) conceptualized empowerment as a psychological state of increased intrinsic task motivation which comes from the perceptions of the individual employee. Specific management practices may facilitate this psychological state. However, the employee may be psychologically empowered irrespective of the implementation of such empowerment programs.

Consistent with Conger and Kanungo's (1988) treatment of empowerment as a motivational construct, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) operationalized empowerment in terms of increased intrinsic task motivation, which results from task assessments. They identified task assessments as four cognitions: impact (degree to which the behavior "makes a difference"); competence (degree to which

the person can perform the task activities skillfully); meaningfulness (value or degree of importance of the task goal to the person); and choice (the extent of personal causation for the behavior). These four dimensions were supported by the empirical work of several authors (Fulford & Enz, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996). Therefore, the higher the individual's assessment of these dimensions, the greater the empowerment.

Another model based on intrinsic task motivation is Spreitzer's (1995) formulation. This model is very similar to the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model and its four dimensions of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact, closely parallel that of the Thomas and Velthouse model. Each of the four dimensions, as outlined by Spreitzer (1995, 1996) is discussed below.

Meaning is the value of a task goal or purpose, judged in relation to the individual's own values, ideas, and beliefs (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Meaning involves a fit between an individual's value system and the goals of a task role (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). An individual feels a sense of meaning when job tasks are consistent with his or her personal values, ideas, and beliefs. Thus, an empowered individual believes in and cares about the task itself, and consequently, is more likely to perform tasks well.

Competence is an individual's belief in his or her capability to perform the task activities skillfully (Gist, 1987). This concept derives from Bandura's (1977)

self-efficacy construct. Conger and Kanungo (1988) described self-efficacy as the development of a “can-do” attitude. Increased competence beliefs lead to an increased amount of effort by individuals, because they believe they can put forth the effort required to master the level of performance desired by the organization. As a result, this dimension of empowerment may be more strongly related to performance.

Self-determination is the extent to which an individual has a sense of choice concerning his or her own actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Those employees who believe they control their own work behaviors would rank high on self-determination, while those who believe their behavior is controlled by management would be low on this dimension. Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested that low self-determination leads to tension, negative emotional tones, and decreased self-esteem.

Impact is defined as a sense of personal control over organizational outcomes. Ashforth (1989) suggested that it concerns the degree to which an individual can influence operating decisions in the organization. The distinction between competence and impact is that competence refers to the effort-performance relationship, while impact involves the performance-outcome relationship. In addition, impact differs from self-determination in its attention to organizational, not individual, outcomes. In the context of restaurant service, this

dimension captures the degree to which employees can control the customer's experience of service as an organizational outcome, not just their own jobs as a self-determination outcome.

Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) conceptualization has received some empirical support. The findings by Spreitzer (1995) led her to conclude that empowerment is a latent construct with four underlying dimensions. Spreitzer (1995) used LISREL models that provided support for both the lower-order factor structure (i.e., four distinct dimensions such as meaning, competence, self-determining, and impact) and a higher order factor (i.e., psychological empowerment). Spreitzer (1995) concluded that there was a single psychological state of empowerment having four distinct perceptual states, including the intrinsic meaningfulness of job tasks, technical and procedural competence, self-determination of decisions and processes, and impact on outcomes.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) hypothesized that organizational empowerment interventions, such as participatory decision-making interventions or job enrichment techniques, serve to increase an individual's task assessment and, in turn, motivation. To the extent that participatory management techniques do not lead to higher perceived levels of competence, meaningfulness, choice and impact, they will fail to influence the empowerment process.

Therefore, organizational interventions, such as participatory management techniques, are viewed as separate and distinct from the empowerment process itself. While these interventions may facilitate the empowerment process, they should not be equated with empowerment. From this perspective, empowerment is conceptualized as a motivational process and not as a technique or intervention.

To summarize, it can be concluded that psychological empowerment leads to several attributes. Among them is the idea that empowerment is an internal psychological state, not an organizational condition (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Also, empowerment is not a global construct that spans various job tasks, but instead is experienced subjectively. Third, perceptions of empowerment are affected by four dimensions, including meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Finally, empowerment is a continuous construct; individuals can be viewed as more or less empowered, rather than empowered or not empowered (Spreitzer, 1995).

Empowerment and Customer Orientation

Very little research has been done to examine the significant relationship between empowerment and customer orientation. In this study, customer orientation is used as a surrogate measure of performance because it has been determined to be a strong predictor of performance (Brown et al., 1991;

Deshpande et al., 1993; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Narver & Slater, 1990; Slater & Narver, 1992). According to Spreitzer (1995), some dimensions of empowerment are found to be related to behaviors conducive to managerial effectiveness. For example, competence and self-determination lead to high performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984; Spector, 1986).

Sternberg (1992) found that empowerment is widely recognized as an important method for improving employees' performance in the hospitality industry. Through changing the system regarding policies and procedures, hotels have chances to increase the empowerment of employees to make decisions without prior approval. Bowen and Lawler (1995) noted that Federal Express, with its empowered employees seemingly consumed with providing flexible and creative service to customers with varying needs, became the first service organization to win the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (1990). According to Williams and Attaway (1996), empowered employees are likely to exhibit a high level of customer-oriented behavior because they would have the authority and responsibility to meet customer needs and expectations. On the basis of this literature, the following hypothesis is advanced.

Hypothesis 1: Empowerment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

Empowerment and Job Satisfaction

Several theorists have proposed that empowerment or intrinsic motivation is positively related to job satisfaction (Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Freedman & Phillips, 1985; Fulford & Enz, 1995; Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994). Heskett et al. (1994) emphasized the importance of empowerment in improving job satisfaction because the dissatisfied employee is more likely to provide poor service. In addition, based on the observations from many companies, including Xerox, Taco Bell's restaurants, Ritz Carlton, and Federal Express, Bowen and Lawler (1995), argued that empowerment improves job satisfaction and quality of work-life. In a study of service employees in private clubs, Fulford and Enz (1995) found that perceived empowerment has a significant effect on job satisfaction. Impact is the strongest dimension of empowerment, suggesting that when employees feel a sense of personal control over organizational decisions, they are more likely to be satisfied. Therefore, employee empowerment is hypothesized to have a significant causal link to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Empowerment will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

JOB INVOLVEMENT

Researchers have been interested in studying the processes that lead employees to become involved in their jobs. A review of the literature reveals that job involvement has been conceptualized in two distinct approaches: (1) job involvement as a component of self-image, and (2) job involvement as a performance-self-esteem contingency (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Lodahl and Kejner (1965) present these two most widely used conceptualizations of job involvement in their study on the definition and measurement of job involvement.

The first conceptualization of job involvement is drawn from Dubin's (1956) work in which he defined job involvement as the degree to which the job situation is a "central life interest," i.e., the degree to which the job is perceived to be a main source for the satisfaction of important needs. This approach to job involvement is similar to the later work of Lodahl and Kejner (1965), who defined job involvement as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work to the person's total self-image" (p.24).

That is, involvement reflects the degree to which the job is central to the person's identity (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Patchen, 1970). Similarly, Lawler and Hall (1970) maintained that the psychological importance of the work should be taken as a definition of job involvement. They conclude that the job-involved individual

is influenced by the job because he or she perceives the job as an important part of his or her self-image.

The second definition considers job involvement as the degree to which an individual's job performance affects his or her self-esteem (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). The self-esteem concept is rooted in Allport's (1947) concept of ego-involvement. He argued that in order for individuals to become involved in their work they must be able to engage in "the status-seeking motive."

Vroom (1962) defined ego-involvement as the extent to which an individual's self-esteem is affected by his or her perceived performance level. In other words, involvement exists when a person's feelings of esteem are increased by good performance and decreased by poor performance. Lawler and Hall (1970) also argued that the performance-self-esteem definition implies that a job-involved person is one who is motivated internally to perform well on the job, although one could be internally motivated by things other than self-esteem.

While most researchers have adopted one of the two definitions of job involvement presented above, there is a third conceptualization involving active participation. More specifically, Saleh and Hosek (1976) defined job involvement as the degree to which an individual is actively participating in his/her job, the degree to which one has the opportunity to make decisions about one's job, and the degree to which one's job meets needs such as prestige, self-respect, and

autonomy. This definition is not widely used, because it overlaps with measures of participative leadership, and job characteristics (e.g., autonomy and skill variety) (Blau, 1985).

Research has shown that job involvement can be empirically distinguished from other work attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Mathieu & Farr, 1991). Using confirmatory factor analysis, Brooke et al. (1988) assessed the distinctiveness of job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in a sample of employees at a VA Medical Center. The authors discovered that a latent-trait model that had three factors was a better fit with the data than a one-factor model. Similar findings were obtained by Mathieu and Farr (1991) in their study that replicated the work of Brooke et al. (1988). Their samples included bus drivers and engineers, and it was found that a three factor model fit the data obtained better than a one-factor model.

Also, it has been discovered that job involvement may have a differential relationship with important organizational variables. In a study by Mathieu and Farr (1991), it was found that organizational tenure and appraisals of self-performance were more closely related to job involvement than to either organizational commitment or job satisfaction. Other variables, including job

characteristics and role stress were significantly more closely related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction than to job involvement.

For this study, job involvement involves both the performance-self-esteem contingency dimension and the psychological identification dimension. A number of studies indicate the multi-dimensional nature of job involvement, including those of Saleh (1981), and Saleh and Hosek (1976).

Job Involvement and Customer Orientation

Job involvement is defined as the extent to which an employee's perceptions about job performance are central to his or her self-esteem. Job involvement also may affect an employee's customer orientation. Performing well is important to the self-image of employees with high levels of job involvement (Kanungo, 1982). Thus, an involved employee will exhibit customer-oriented behavior because that approach can be expected to lead to higher levels of performance (Dunlap, Dotson, & Chambers, 1988; Kanungo, 1982; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

As previously mentioned, this study uses customer orientation as a surrogate measure of performance. Job involvement has been found to be a significant determinant of performance (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Kanungo, 1982). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) describe the relationship between job

involvement and job performance as complex, confusing, and inconclusive. They suggested that employees who are job-involved are more likely to have considerable effects on their job, which is a condition that leads to enhanced job performance.

Vroom (1962) also found that employees who are ego-involved in their jobs perform more efficiently on the job than employees who are not ego-involved because the self-image of ego-involved individuals is directly related to their evaluation of their level of performance. Lawler and Hall (1970) found a significant relationship of job involvement (i.e., psychological identification) to self-rated performance.

Wiener and Vardi (1980) proposed a model whereby job involvement would lead to increased effort on the job that would, in turn, lead to greater performance effectiveness. Shore, Newton, and Thornton (1990) developed and tested the theoretical model for examining the relationships between job involvement, organizational commitment, and behavioral intentions (turnover, absenteeism, and performance). They found that job involvement is significantly linked to performance intentions for their sample of state employees at a university.

Ingram, Lee, and Lucas (1991) assessed Blau and Boal's (1987) typology based on varying levels of organizational commitment and job involvement. Using

this typology, salespeople are classified as institutional stars, lone wolves, corporate citizens, and apathetics. The results of their study indicated that institutional stars with high levels of both organizational commitment and job involvement exhibited the highest levels of effort and reflected the highest performance levels. Finally, Keller (1997) found job involvement to be a strong predictor of job performance measures for scientists. Based on this discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 3: Job involvement will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment

The literature regarding job involvement and organizational commitment has indicated empirical evidence that supports the positive relationship between these two variables. Shore et al. (1990) argued that the primary reason for the strong relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment is that each emphasizes psychological identification or attachment to a specific object; job involvement attaches to the job while organizational commitment attaches to the organization.

Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that an individual with higher job involvement will have the same attitude toward organizational commitment. In fact, the direct relationship between the two constructs has been supported by

previous studies (Blau, 1986; Brooke & Price, 1989; Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975; Schneider, Hall, & Nygren, 1971; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978; Zahra, 1984).

In fact, Stevens et al. (1978) identified job involvement as the second best determinant of organizational commitment. Zahra (1984) suggested that job involvement is significantly related to organizational commitment and is influenced by the extent to which employees participate in supervisory decisions. Brooke and Price (1989) argued that the higher the employees' job involvement resulting from their active participation in supervisory decision making, the higher their level of commitment to the organization. Job involvement, therefore, seems to be a worthwhile variable to be included in the research model. Based on this discussion, the hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 4: Job involvement is positively related to organizational commitment.

JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely-studied subjects in the management literature. Various definitions of job satisfaction have been advanced. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (p. 1300). Milburne and Francis (1981) suggested that job satisfaction is an indication of how individuals feel about their job when their expectations are compared to what is actually received from different facets of the work situation. According to Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974), the conceptual domain of job satisfaction is broad, because it includes “all characteristics of the job itself and the work environment which [restaurant employees] find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or frustrating and unsatisfying” (p. 255).

Many studies have attempted to explain job satisfaction in the workplace. Maslow’s (1943) theory suggests that fulfilling individual needs that are arranged in a hierarchy of importance determines satisfaction and, thus, motivation to perform. Similarly, Herzberg’s (1966) two-factor theory suggests that only job content-related facets (e.g., achievement, responsibility, and the work itself) lead to satisfaction. On the other hand, job context-related factors (e.g., pay, security, and working conditions) lead to job dissatisfaction but not to satisfaction.

Hackman and Oldham (1980), in their Job Characteristics Model, have made available an alternative view of the determinants of job satisfaction. The authors contend that an individual's satisfaction with his or her work is a factor of critical psychological states that are caused by five core characteristics of job dimensions. These job dimensions include task variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and feedback.

Operationally, job satisfaction consists of several facets, including satisfaction with the supervisor, pay, promotion, coworkers, and the work itself (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). More inclusively, Churchill et al. (1974), while including five facets of job satisfaction, developed the INDSALES scale to incorporate other factors which they surmised to be specific to the salesperson's job satisfaction. Their INDSALES instrument covers seven aspects: the job, fellow workers, supervisor, pay, promotion and advancement, company policy and support, and customers.

Job Satisfaction and Customer Orientation

There are two theoretical explanations that support job satisfaction as an antecedent of customer orientation of employees. First, social exchange theory suggests that individuals will engage in reciprocal behaviors and support those from whom they benefit (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). Hence, it may be argued that

the service provider benefits (e.g., job satisfaction) from taking care of customers. According to exchange theory, customer-oriented behaviors by the service provider would be expected because of this beneficial relationship.

The second conceptual foundation is derived from a series of psychological studies that examine the effects of an individual's mood on subsequent helping behaviors. Although these studies did not examine job satisfaction's effect on customer-orientation, they indicated that job satisfaction is positively related to altruistic and citizenship behaviors within organizations. Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) discovered that employees with high levels of job satisfaction show the work behavior patterns of altruism and consideration. It can be assumed that these work behavior patterns are a form of customer orientation.

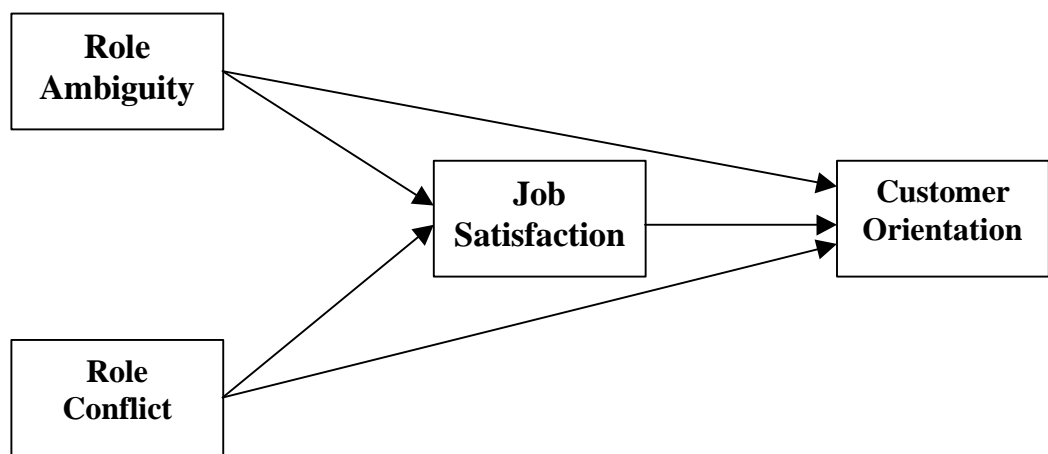
The question of whether job satisfaction was an antecedent of consideration and personal sensitivity was investigated by Motowidlo (1984). A correlation was found between job satisfaction and the traits of listening to others, empathy, tact, emotional control, and acceptance of criticism. Consideration and sensitiveness towards others can also be constructed as attributes of customer orientation.

In this regard, Hoffman and Ingram (1991) assumed that an employee who is satisfied with his or her job is more likely to satisfy the wants and needs of

customers (see Figure 2.3). He verified this expectation when he conducted one of the few studies that tested the relationship between job satisfaction and the customer-oriented behavior of a health care provider. Results indicate that job satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on customer orientation. In fact, job satisfaction was found to be the primary determinant of customer orientation, although Hoffman and Ingram (1991) noted that the explanatory power of the overall model was very low ($R^2 = .09$). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

Figure 2.3
Model of Customer Orientation



Source: Hoffman and Ingram's (1991) model of hypothesized relationships

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The issue of establishing a causal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been discussed. While some authors found that job satisfaction has a positive effect on organizational commitment (Martin & O'Laughlin, 1984; Welsch & La Van, 1981; Zahra, 1984), Bateman and Strasser (1984) argued that organizational commitment precedes job satisfaction (Darden, Hampton, & Howell, 1989; Hunt, Chonko, & Wood, 1985). The preponderance of conceptual and empirical evidence appears to favor the causal precedence of job satisfaction to organizational commitment (Bartol, 1979; Reichers, 1985).

Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) argued that job satisfaction is largely associated with one's attitude towards some aspects of the work environment, while organizational commitment is associated with a more encompassing and global assessment of one's attachment to the organization. Further, they suggest that "work satisfaction is a less stable and more rapidly formed attitude than organizational commitment, which influences the development of the latter (p.544)."

Mottaz (1987) tested the reciprocal effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and found that job satisfaction had a significantly greater impact on organizational commitment than the reverse. Williams and Hazer (1986) used structural equation methodology to test competing models of

turnover. They found that job satisfaction is an antecedent of organizational commitment. Additionally, service employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to have more organizational commitment than are less satisfied employees (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Price & Mueller, 1986). Based on these findings, this study also assumes that job satisfaction is a determinant of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Generally, there are two distinct approaches to the study of organizational commitment. The first approach, more often associated with social psychologists, focuses on behavioral acts that bind an individual to an organization. The second approach, associated with organizational behavior researchers, examines an individual's cognitive and affective responses and attachment to an organization.

Behavioral commitment is largely concerned with the process by which an individual becomes committed to an organization as a result of his or her "side bets" or investments in an organization (Becker, 1960). In other words, commitment was conceptualized as an attitude that derives from a behavior. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) further describe the side-bet notion:

If a person refuses to change jobs, even though the new job would offer him a higher salary and better working conditions, we should suspect that this decision is a result of commitment, that other sets of rewards than income and working conditions have become attached to his present job so that it would be too painful for him to change . . . he may dread the cost of making new friends and learning to get along with new working associates; he may feel that he will get a reputation for being flighty and erratic if he leaves the present job. In each instance, formerly extraneous interests have become linked to his present job. (p. 50).

In this regard, Klenke (1982) argued that behavioral commitment makes no assumptions about an individual's acceptance of organizational goals and values, nor does it imply a willingness to assure the attainment of organizational goals.

On the other hand, the second approach focuses on more psychological aspects of organizational commitment. This approach is sometimes referred to as “attitudinal or affective commitment.” Steers (1977) defined organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 46). Given this definition, organizational commitment seems very similar to job involvement. However, a major difference between the two lies in the referents of the two constructs (Blau, 1987). In organizational commitment, the referent is the organization, while in job involvement, the referent is the individual’s job.

In addition, Steers (1977) proposed that organizational commitment develops through personal characteristics (e.g., age and need achievement), job characteristics (e.g., task identity and feedback), and work experience variables (e.g., group attitudes and personal import). Steers also postulated that behaviors such as desire to remain, attendance, and job performance were consequences of the organizational commitment attitude.

Much of the work in the area of attitudinal commitment has followed the research of Mowday et al. (1979). According to them, organizational commitment can be conceptualized as three factors: “(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on

behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (p. 226).

Mowday et al. (1979) developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) based upon 2563 employees in various occupations. They found adequate reliability for the instrument, as well as convergent validity across samples and divergent validity across measures of different job attitudes. The literature review and meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that the OCQ was the better predictor of other variables. Consistent with most of the empirical studies on organizational commitment, the attitudinal definition of organizational commitment is used in this study.

Organizational Commitment and Customer Orientation

Very little research has been done to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and customer orientation. However, O’Hara et al. (1991) found a salesperson’s organizational commitment is significantly related to customer-oriented selling. This finding suggests that when salespeople are committed to their company, they are more likely to embrace a customer orientation in their day-to-day dealings with customers.

Kelley (1992) examined the customer orientation of service providers using a sample of customer-contact employees in the financial service industry. The

results of the study indicate that service providers with higher levels of customer orientation have higher levels of organizational commitment.

In this regard, the degree of organizational commitment an employee exhibits may influence his or her orientation toward the customer. According to Mowday et al. (1979), those who are committed to the organization should be willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. Since service organizations are now actively encouraging front-line employees to focus on customer service (Dunlap et al., 1988), it would seem likely that employees who identify with the organization (i.e., organizational commitment) will work hard to satisfy their customers. Therefore, it is hypothesized that a positive relationship will exist between organizational commitment and customer-oriented behavior of restaurant employees.

Hypothesis 7: Organizational commitment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

SUMMARY

This chapter developed a conceptual framework that identifies the determinants of customer orientation. The literature review adequately supports the guiding hypotheses that specify the relationship between customer orientation, empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The following chapter presents the conceptual model of customer orientation developed in this study, and describes the methodology used to examine the model.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research methodology utilized to examine the relationships between customer orientation and its antecedents. This presentation encompasses: (1) the research framework and the research hypotheses, (2) sample, (3) measures, (4) the statistical analysis to be used in the study. And further, the chapter includes a diagram (see Figure 3.1) and discussion of the conceptual model of customer orientation that was developed in this study.

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework proposed in this study is based on the preceding review of literature. By integrating constructs of existing models and adding new components, the proposed model contributes to the body of knowledge regarding an employee's customer-oriented behavior and its antecedents, including empowerment and job attitudes.

Figure 3.1
Proposed Model of Customer Orientation

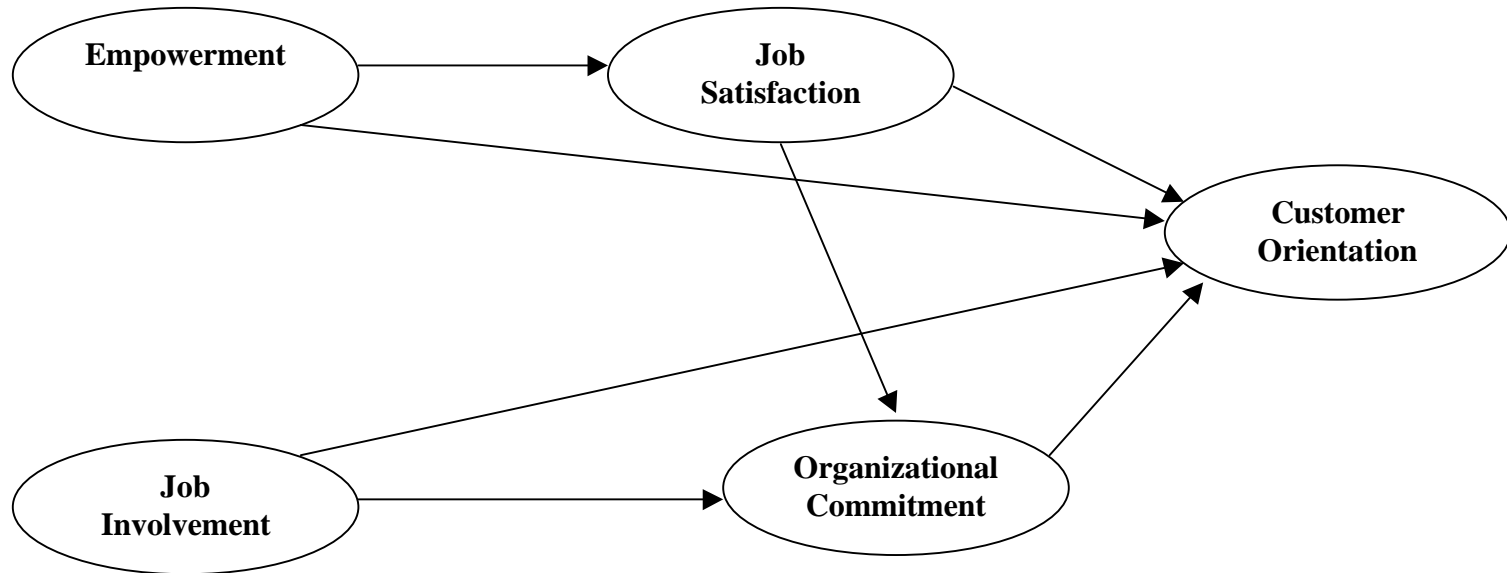


Figure 3.1 displays the proposed model of customer orientation and the hypothesized relationship for the five constructs used in this study: customer orientation, empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

In this model, empowerment is proposed as a direct predictor of customer orientation and job satisfaction. Although little research addresses the relationship between empowerment and customer orientation, we can provide indirect support for the relationship by demonstrating a positive relationship between empowerment and job performance. In the present study, customer orientation was used as a surrogate measure of performance because it has been determined to be a strong predictor of performance (Brown et al, 1991; Deshpande et al., 1993; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Narver & Slater, 1990; Slater & Narver, 1992).

In particular, empowerment is widely recognized as an important method for improving hospitality employees' job performance (Sternberg, 1992), as is evidenced by results of prior investigations (Amabile, 1979; Arnold, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Umstot, Mitchell, & Bell, 1978). Thus, empowerment of an employee is hypothesized as being positively related to customer orientation.

Bowen and Lawler (1995) suggested that empowered employees feel better about their jobs and more enthusiastic about serving customers. Researchers

have shown that empowerment is the primary determinant of job satisfaction (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Deci & Ryan, 1980; Freedman & Phillips, 1985). For example, Freedman and Phillips (1985) directly tested the strength of the relationship between empowerment and work satisfaction, and found a significant relationship between them. As a consequence, it is hypothesized that a positive relationship exists between empowerment and job satisfaction.

Job involvement is proposed to have a positive effect on customer orientation and organizational commitment. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined job involvement as the degree to which an employee perceives job performance as an important part of his or her self-esteem. This performance-self-esteem definition of job involvement implies that a job-involved employee will be customer-oriented because this orientation results in a higher level of customer-contact employee job performance. As a result, it is hypothesized that job involvement positively influences customer orientation.

Job involvement is hypothesized to be positively related to organizational commitment. Blau (1986), Brooke and Price (1989), Dubin et al. (1975), Stevens et al. (1978), and Zahra (1984) found that a higher level of job involvement leads to a higher level of organizational commitment. In addition, job involvement is described as the second best determinant of organizational commitment (Stevens et al., 1978).

Job satisfaction is proposed to lead to favorable customer orientation and organizational commitment. Hoffman and Ingram (1991) found job satisfaction to be the primary determinant of customer orientation. Bateman and Organ (1983), Motowidlo (1984), Smith et al. (1983) found that job satisfaction produced behaviors which are associated with customer orientation, such as empathy, tact, altruism, consideration, and listening to others. Thus, overall job satisfaction is hypothesized to be positively associated with employee customer orientation.

Job satisfaction is also proposed to be linked to organizational commitment. Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell, & Black (1990), Williams and Hazer (1986), Zahra (1984), and Darden et al. (1989) are among the many researchers who have demonstrated a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. While Darden et al. (1989) found organizational commitment to precede job satisfaction, many others have found that job satisfaction positively influences organizational commitment (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Johnston et al., 1990; Price & Mueller, 1986; Williams & Hazer, 1986, Zahra, 1984). Thus, the preponderance of evidence leads to the hypothesis that job satisfaction positively affects organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment is proposed to lead to better customer orientation. Customer-oriented behaviors require considerable effort from employees (Saxe and Weitz 1982). An employee who is committed to the organization will be more likely to engage in customer-oriented behavior in order to act in the best interest of the organization, even though such behavior requires greater exertion on the part of the employee (O'Hara et al., 1991; Kelley, 1992; Porter et al., 1974). As a consequence, organizational commitment is hypothesized to be positively related to customer orientation.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following are the research hypotheses, restated from Chapter II:

Hypothesis 1: Empowerment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

Hypothesis 2: Empowerment will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Job involvement will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

Hypothesis 4: Job involvement will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 7: Organizational commitment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

SAMPLE

Since the focus of this study is the employee's customer orientation in the hospitality industry, the target population was composed of restaurant employees. The restaurant setting was selected to be sampled for several reasons. First, since restaurant employees are exposed to extensive customer contact, their customer orientation might play a critical role in creating customer satisfaction, which are important to the success of organizations. Second, the restaurant industry is a large and growing segment of the service industry. In particular, a significant number of employees in the hospitality industry are food-service workers. Finally, since few studies have examined determinants of customer orientation among employees in the service industry, a restaurant setting offers a new context to test the generalizability of existing evidence concerning this matter.

DATA COLLECTION

An employee questionnaire was constructed following an extensive review of the literature. Previously established scales were utilized to measure the study constructs whenever possible. The initial draft of the questionnaire was reviewed by a number of faculty and two managers at the study site to ensure the face

validity and readability of the scale items. Based on feedback offered by those who examined the questionnaire, there were no significant changes made to the scale items.

Next, the finalized questionnaire was pretested by 40 employees at several restaurants in Blacksburg, Virginia. The pretest served a number of purposes. First, it was determined that the average time to complete the questionnaire was less than 15 minutes. Second, additional support for the face validity of the survey instrument was established. Third, it was determined that the readability of the questionnaire was acceptable across various educational levels. The survey instrument is included in Appendix.

To initiate a sample, we contacted 10 nation-wide chain restaurants. One large, multi-unit chain agreed to participate in this study. This restaurant provides high quality table service. Through 35 US states, this chain operates 487 full-service family restaurants including 138 company-owned and 349 franchised units. (We selected two states—Minnesota and Florida—because more than 50 percent of the units in this chain are located in Minnesota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York and Florida.) Within each state, the human resource manager of the chain randomly selected seven restaurants. A total of three hundred questionnaires were distributed to the employees with the cooperation of company. Included with each questionnaire was a cover letter explaining the importance of the research and

written instructions for completion of the survey. Respondents were assured of data confidentiality. In total, 217 usable questionnaires were returned, comprising a response rate of 72 percent.

MEASURES

Measurement of Customer Orientation

The customer orientation construct has been considered from the perspective of the employee (Saxe and Weitz, 1982). Saxe and Weitz (1982) developed the Selling Orientation-Customer Orientation scale (the SOCO scale), which was designed to measure the customer-oriented behaviors employed by salespeople. As Saxe (1979) noted, these behaviors include providing customers with an accurate description of products, assessing customer needs, satisfying the customer, matching products to customer needs, avoiding pressure on the customer, and avoiding closed personal influence tactics.

This 24-item scale is measured on a 9-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 = never to 9 = always. Typical scale means are 7.6 and 7.7 (Saxe & Weitz, 1982) and 8.1 (Hoffman & Ingram, 1991). Reported Cronbach alphas for studies using the original or modified SOCO scale versions have been quite high, for example, 0.86 and 0.83 (Saxe & Weitz, 1982), 0.91 (Michaels & Day, 1985), 0.70 (Hoffman & Ingram, 1991).

This scale has been used as a self-assessment measure of salespeople's customer orientation in various service settings such as healthcare (Hoffman & Ingram, 1991, 1992), insurance (Howe, Hoffman, & Hardigree, 1994); financial

institutions (Kelley, 1992; Wray, Palmer, & Bejou, 1994); retail (Brown et al., 1991); advertising (O'Hara et al., 1991); and real-estate (Dunlap et al., 1988).

However, in many service settings, the sales orientation element is not applicable. In this regard, Hoffman and Kelley (1994) reformulated the 24 item SOCO to measure customer orientation of bank customer-contact employees by dropping the 12 items representing selling-oriented behavior. This modified scale had a high internal validity (Cronbach alpha 0.90).

Daniel and Darby (1997) developed a 13-item customer orientation scale (COS) to measure and compare the self-reported customer orientation of nurses with patient perceptions of the service. The 13 items were selected from the modified SOCO scale of 12 items (Hoffman & Kelly, 1994), and one additional item was selected from the original SOCO instrument. Daniel and Darby (1997) employed a 9-point Likert scale ranging from (1) never to (9) always. The COS scale resulted in a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.88 for patients and 0.86 for the nurses. This study applied the COS instrument with a 7-point Likert scale in order to be consistent with other measures. The 13 items was adapted in this study, with minimum alteration, to a restaurant setting (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1
Customer Orientation Scale (COS)

1. I try to give customers an accurate expectation of what our restaurant's service can do for them.
2. I try to get customers to discuss their needs with me.
3. I imply to a customer that something is beyond my control when it is not. (R)
4. I try to influence a customer by information rather than by pressure.
5. I try to help customers achieve their goals.
6. I answer customer questions about our service procedures as correctly as I can.
7. I pretend to agree with customers to please them. (R)
8. I try to figure out what a customer's needs are.
9. Good employees have to have the customer's best interests in mind.
10. I offer the service that is best suited to the customer's needs.
11. I paint too rosy a picture of our restaurant services to make them sound as good as possible (R).
12. I try to achieve my goals by satisfying customers.
13. I try to find out which restaurant services would be most helpful to a customer.

Source: Daniel & Darby (1997).

(R) Denotes reverse score item.

Customer orientation was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) = strongly disagree to (7) = strongly agree.

Measurement of Empowerment

Conger and Kanungo (1988) stated that “as a construct, empowerment has not received the same analytical treatment from management scholars as the concept of power.” Although many researchers and practitioners (Kanter, 1979; Bennis & Nanus, 1985) discuss the importance of empowering employees, little empirical research has been done on whether employees feel empowered. Recently, three instruments have been developed to measure individual empowerment in organizations.

Hayes (1994) developed an employee empowerment quotient (EEQ) to measure the level of autonomy perceived by employees. He defined empowerment as “enhanced employee authority to act . . . such as when quality standards may be compromised” (Hayes, 1994, p. 43). This scale is comprised of 14 items designed to capture an individual’s perceived level of authority using a five-point Likert-type response format. This 14-item instrument was reported to have a desirable level of reliability ($r = .94$). The author did not perform any validity test of the scale.

Jones and Bearly (1994) developed an empowerment profile to measure dimensions of empowerment. This instrument was designed to measure an individual’s perceptions of his or her empowerment in terms of autonomy, centrality, involvement, influences, resources, and climate. The internal reliability

of the scale obtained in this study ranged from .54 to .85. No other validity measures were conducted.

Spreitzer (1995) measured empowerment in terms of four dimensions, including meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Spreitzer used the conceptual framework of empowerment developed through the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990), and extended this work by developing a scale to measure four dimensions of individual empowerment. All measures were self-assessments and used a seven-point Likert response format.

The results of a second-order confirmatory factor analysis of the empowerment items were presented in validation research on empowerment. Factor analysis indicated that each item loads on its appropriate factor with loadings ranging from .66 to .90. All loadings were significant, indicating that each element provided important information in an overall empowerment construct. A measure of predictive validity for the scale was performed by an analysis of correlations between the innovative behavior items and the empowerment factors. A significant relationship between them was reported. In this study, Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale was used because it is considered to be the first validated instrument measuring individual empowerment (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2
Empowerment Scale

1. The work I do is very important to me.
 2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
 3. The work I do is meaningful to me.
 4. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
 5. I am self-assured about my capability to perform my work activities.
 6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.
 7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
 8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
 9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.
 10. My impact on what happens in our restaurant is large.
 11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in our restaurant.
 12. I have significant influence over what happens in our restaurant.
-

Source: Spreitzer (1995).

Empowerment was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) = strongly disagree to (7) = strongly agree.

Measurement of Job Involvement

Job involvement was measured by a scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). This scale consists of twenty items on a four-point rating scale, ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 4 = strongly disagree. This measurement is also widely used in the research literature and is reported to have an acceptable level of reliability by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). They reported reliability estimates using a corrected split half method for samples of nurses ($r = .72$), engineers ($r = .80$), and students ($r = .89$).

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) also developed a 6-item short-form version of their original 20-item scale. The 6 items were selected because they had the highest loadings on the first principal component in both the engineering and nursing samples. As such, the short form should demonstrate more factor stability than the long form.

In this study, job involvement was measured using a 6-item version (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Siegel and Ruh (1973), using a short version of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) scale reported a Cronbach alpha value of .81. Hollen and Chesser (1976) provide further support for the scale's high reliability value of .93, as well as some support for the scale's construct validity.

The Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) instrument uses a 6-point Likert-type response format (see Table 3.3). This study, however, employs a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) as do other scales.

Table 3.3
Job Involvement Scale

1. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.
 2. The most important things that happen to me involve my job.
 3. I'm really a perfectionist about my work.
 4. I live, eat, and breathe my job.
 5. I am very much involved personally in my work.
 6. Most things in life are more important than work. (R)
-

Source: Lodahl & Kejner (1965).

(R) Denotes reverse score item.

Customer orientation was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from

(1) = strongly disagree to (7) = strongly agree.

Measurement of Job Satisfaction

In this study, employee job satisfaction is measured according to six items adapted from Churchill, Ford and Walker (1974) (see Table 3.4). They reported high coefficient alphas ranging from .820 to .960. This scale assesses satisfaction with six facets, including the overall job, pay, co-workers, the supervisor, promotion opportunities, and customers. Many researchers have considered the effects of these job facets separately, whereas others have summed or averaged them into a global measure. In this study, employees were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with each facet, using a seven-point scale ranging from “extremely dissatisfied” to “extremely satisfied.” After averaging across facets, higher scores indicate higher job satisfaction.

Table 3.4
Job Satisfaction Scale

1. Your overall job.
 2. Your co-workers.
 3. Your supervisor(s).
 4. Your pay.
 5. Your opportunities for promotion with this organization.
 6. Your organization's customers.
-

Source: Adapted from Churchill, Ford, & Walker (1974).

Job satisfaction was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) = extremely dissatisfied to (7) = extremely satisfied.

Measurement of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was operationalized using the 9-item version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al., (1974) to measure the extent to which the individual identifies with organizational goals, is willing to exert effort on behalf of the organization, and intends to remain a member of the organization (Mowday et al., 1982) (see Table 3.5). The short-form was used to help reduce the length of the research questionnaire. Acceptable levels of reliability and validity of the 9-item version of OCQ have been reported (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Blau, 1987; Price & Mueller, 1986). Items are measured on a 7-point Likert-style scale.

Table 3.5
Organizational Commitment Scale

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
 2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
 3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for the organization.
 4. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
 5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
 6. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
 7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
 8. I really care about the fate of this organization.
 9. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
-

Source: Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979).

Organizational commitment was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) = strongly disagree to (7) = strongly agree.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Application of Structural Equation Modeling

The measurement of constructs and the hypothesized relationships between constructs was assessed through the use of structural equation modeling (SEM) as employed by the SAS System's CALIS procedure (SAS Institute Inc., 1989). Structural equation modeling has seen increased use in recent years, especially in the social and behavioral sciences such as sociology, psychology, economics, management, and marketing. This statistical technique is well-suited for analysis of construct relationships by first validating the observed variables of the construct and second, by determining the relationships between the constructs (Hoyle, 1995).

Unlike most other data analysis methods, SEM does not analyze the actual data, but instead analyzes the relationships between variables as indicated by either covariance or correlation matrices. The pattern of relationships stated in the specified model is compared to the pattern of relationships expressed by the data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). The degree of correspondence between the specified relationships and those indicated by the data is generally termed "the fit of the model."

The major advantage of structural equation modeling is the ability to estimate a series of separate, but interdependent equations simultaneously. This allows a system of equations to be derived so that constructs that are initially dependent can subsequently act as independent constructs to influence other dependent constructs.

In short, SEM allows the estimation of a causal path among a set of constructs. The models tested in the present study are suited for this type of estimation. For example, the proposed model treats job satisfaction as an initially dependent variable, which in turn, becomes an independent variable in terms of its influence on organizational commitment and customer orientation.

In addition, SEM is designed to incorporate both latent constructs and observed or manifest variables into a single model (Hayduk, 1987). A latent construct refers to a hypothetical variable that cannot be directly measured or observed, but can be measured in terms of one or more observed variables. The proposed model includes latent constructs for customer orientation, empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. These constructs are not directly measured, but rather, will be measured by the observed variables included in the respective measurement scale described previously.

Structural and Measurement Models

According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), an SEM has a two-stage procedure: a measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model specifies how the latent constructs are measured in terms of the observed variables. The model proposed in this study is comprised of the five latent constructs of the customer orientation model: customer orientation, empowerment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. As Hoyle and Smith (1994) recommended multi-item measures, each of the five constructs will be measured by at least six observed variables. When a determination was made as to which observed variable load on which constructs, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess the validity and reliability of the construct measures.

The structural model specifies causal relationships among the latent constructs. The proposed model consists of two exogenous (empowerment and job involvement) and three endogenous constructs (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and customer orientation). Our structural model is a type of standard model, because all structural variables are latent constructs with multiple indicators (Hatcher, 1996).

The overall fit of a structural equation model is generally assessed by examining the goodness-of-fit indicators: chi-square, goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean

square error of approximation (RMSEA). The chi-square statistic, with the associated degrees of freedom and probability level, assesses the fit between the model to the data. This test is quite sensitive to sample size, the number of indicators, and departures from multivariate normality. In situations involving even moderately large samples, the chi-square significance test is likely to indicate a poor fit of the model to data and indicate that the model should be rejected. As a result, it is generally recommended that greater reliance be placed on the other measures of goodness of fit than the significance of the chi-square statistic (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 1995).

The GFI and AGFI signify the relative amount of variance/covariance accounted for by the model (Bollen, 1989). The relative advantage of these indices over the chi-square statistic, is that they are not influenced by sample size. The difference between GFI and AGFI is that the GFI is not adjusted for the degrees of freedom. The AGFI is adjusted by the ratio of degrees of freedom for the proposed model to the degree of freedom of the null model (Hair et al., 1995). The CFI is similar to the NNFI (non-normed fit index) in that it provides an accurate assessment of fit regardless of sample size. In addition, the CFI tends to be more precise than the NNFI in describing comparative model fit (Bentler, 1989). Finally, the RMSEA is an average difference per degree of freedom expected to occur in the population (Hair et al., 1995).

SUMMARY

The design of the model of customer orientation presented in this chapter was based on information gathered from an extensive review of the relevant literature. The scales used to measure the constructs of interest were discussed. Customer orientation was operationalized with a 13-item scale from Daniel and Darby (1997). Employee empowerment was measured on a 12-item scale from Spreitzer (1995). Job involvement was measured using a 6-item scale from Lodahl and Kejner (1965). For job satisfaction, a 6-item scale was adapted from the INDSALES scale of Churchill et al. (1974). The 9-item organizational commitment scale was developed by Mowday et al. (1979).

This chapter also describes the sample and the data collection procedure. Finally, this chapter illustrates the statistical analytic technique, mainly focusing on the structural equation modeling used to test the proposed model. The results of the hypothesis testing will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis of the data. The characteristics of the sample follow this introduction. Next, the descriptive statistics of the customer orientation construct are presented. This is followed by a discussion of the reliability and validity of the measures used in this research. Finally, we examine the results of the tests of the hypotheses and the model presented in the preceding chapter, and provide the final model derived through the use of the SAS System's CALIS procedure (SAS Institute Inc., 1989).

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Three hundred survey questionnaires were sent for distribution to the selected company. Of the total sample, 238 responded, for a response rate of 79.3 percent. Another 21 responses were eliminated due to missing data or incomplete responses. Hence, the sample size for testing the hypotheses is 217 (72.3%). Table 4.1 shows the demographics of the employee respondents.

Most of the respondents were female (66.4%) and had completed at least a high school education (91.3%). Of this sample, 154 (71.0%) were full-time and 63 (29.0%) were part-time. Respondents worked an average of 4.1 years in this organization. Most of respondents (76.5%) had formal training in customer satisfaction or customer orientation.

Table 4.1
Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 217)

Characteristics	Frequency	%
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	73	33.6%
Female	144	66.4
<i>Education</i>		
Less than high School	19	8.7
High school graduate	94	43.3
Some college	71	32.7
College graduate	24	11.1
Graduate school	9	4.2
<i>Employment Status</i>		
Full-time	154	71.0
Part-time	63	29.0
<i>Position</i>		
Bartender	4	1.8
Bus person	4	1.8
Cashier	7	3.2
Cook	30	13.8
Dishwasher	3	1.4
Host/Hostess	30	13.8
Waiter/Waitress	110	50.7
Other kitchen crew	5	2.3
Other	24	11.1
<i>Industry Experience (years)</i>		
0 to 5	97	44.7
5 to 10	47	21.7
10 to 15	32	14.7
15 to 20	18	8.3
Over 20	23	10.6
<i>Training Experience</i>		
Yes	166	76.5
No	51	23.5

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CUSTOMER ORIENTATION

The construct scores are group averages of the respondents' average scores for the items. The univariate analysis revealed the mean score of customer orientation to be 6.01. The minimum and maximum values, on a seven-point scale, are 2.13 and 7.0, respectively, with a standard deviation of .86.

The study examined the relationship between men and women groups' customer orientation scores. Analysis of results was done by using a *t* test. A significant difference was found between the two groups, $t(215) = -3.75; p < .001$. Women employees scored significantly higher on customer orientation than did men employees (for the men's group, $M = 5.71, SD = .84$; for the women's group, $M = 6.16, SD = .84$). This finding is consistent with research of O'Hara et al. (1991).

The relationship between the education and the customer orientation scores were investigated by testing for significant differences on customer orientation, corresponding to different levels of education. The analysis of a one-way ANOVA failed to reveal a significant effect for levels of education, $F(4, 212) = 1.01; p > .05$. Tukey's HSD test showed that there were no significant differences between any education groups (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2
One-way ANOVA: Customer Orientation by Level of Education

Source	df	SS	MS	F	Level of Education	Mean	SD
Btwn. groups	4	2.98	.75	1.01 ($p > .05$)	Less than high school	5.79	.72
Within groups	212	157.06	.74		High school	6.05	.91
Total	216	160.04			Some college	6.07	.78
					College graduate	6.04	.69
					Graduate school	5.58	1.44

Significant differences were found between full-time and part-time employees using a *t* test, $t(215) = 2.65; p < .01$. Full-time employees received significantly higher scores on customer orientation than did part-time employees (for the full-time group, $M = 6.11, SD = .88$; for the part-time group, $M = 5.77, SD = .77$).

Also investigated was the relationship between front-of-house and back-of-house employees in terms of customer orientation. The result of a *t* test showed a significant difference between the two groups, $t(191) = 5.72; p < .01$. Front-of-house employees scored significantly higher on customer orientation than did back-of-house employees (for the front-of-house group, $M = 6.18, SD = .69$; for the back-of-house group, $M = 5.40, SD = 1.03$).

There were significant differences between training experience and no training experience groups. A *t* test indicated a significant difference between the two groups, $t(215) = 2.05; p < .05$. Employees having had training in customer satisfaction or customer orientation received different scores, in that they scored higher on customer orientation than did the no-training experience group (for training experience group, $M = 6.08, SD = .85$; for no training experience group, $M = 5.80, SD = .87$).

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability

A measure is said to be reliable to the degree to which it is free from error and provides consistent results (Zikmund, 1997). Computing the coefficient alpha along with the item-to-total correlation for each item assesses the overall reliability of the scale. Nunnally (1978) suggests that reliability coefficients above .70 are generally considered acceptable for research purposes. Those items with correlations below .3 were deleted from the scale (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978). Table 4.3 exhibits the coefficient alphas and item-to-total correlations for each of the scales that comprise all constructs. This criterion resulted in the deletion of one item (correlation = .197) from the job involvement scale and two items (correlations = .031 and -.063) from the customer orientation scale. The coefficient alpha values for each scale were: empowerment (alpha = .851), job involvement (alpha = .820), job satisfaction (alpha = .771), organizational commitment (alpha = .940), and customer orientation (alpha = .872). The reliability coefficients for all constructs are above .70, as recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Table 4.3
Reliability

Item	Coefficient Alpha	Item-to-total Correlation
Empowerment	.851	
E1		.677
E2		.586
E3		.624
E4		.503
E5		.490
E6		.509
E7		.542
E8		.436
E9		.504
E10		.515
E11		.489
E12		.500
Job Involvement	.820	
I1		.736
I2		.729
I3		.398
I4		.626
I5		.590
I6		^a
Job Satisfaction	.771	
S1		.624
S2		.367
S3		.600
S4		.470
S5		.575
S6		.530

Table 4.3 (cont.)

Item	Coefficient Alpha	Item-to-total Correlation
Organizational Commitment	.940	
O1		.721
O2		.793
O3		.608
O4		.719
O5		.848
O6		.818
O7		.792
O8		.855
O9		.832
Customer Orientation	.872	
C1		.718
C2		.535
C3		.334
C4		.630
C5		.530
C6		.650
C7		^a
C8		.636
C9		.647
C10		.641
C11		^a
C12		.655
C13		.581

Note: ^aItem was dropped during Coefficient alpha analysis due to a small item-to-total correlation.

Validity

A scale is valid when it measures what it intends to measure (Zikmund, 1997). However, several forms of validity must be examined before the measure can be deemed valid. First, convergent validity is demonstrated “when different instruments are used to measure the same construct, and scores from these different instruments are strongly correlated” (Hatcher, 1996, p. 332). In this study, convergent validity is assessed by reviewing the *t* tests for the factor loadings. If all *t* tests are statistically significant, then all indicators are effectively measuring the same construct (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Next, discriminant validity is demonstrated “when different instruments are used to measure different constructs, and the correlations between the measures of these different constructs are relatively weak” (Hatcher, 1996, p. 332). Discriminant validity was assessed with a chi-square difference test (Hatcher, 1996). The results of a confirmatory factor analysis using PROC CALIS can be used to assess *t* tests and chi-square difference tests.

MEASUREMENT MODEL

The measurement models were assessed using the CALIS procedure in SAS. Descriptions and results of each of the models are presented in tabular form. Since four constructs, except empowerment, were measured using a composite score, the unidimensionality of the measures must be determined before further analysis can be conducted (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). Confirmatory factor analysis was done for each model separately because of the large number of indicators for each model, and was used to determine if indicator variables measure the underlying construct. The confirmatory factor analysis provides factor loadings and their associated *t* values, indicator reliability (R-squared), and model fit statistics (chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, and RMSEA).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Empowerment

The empowerment model proposed in Chapter II suggests that empowerment is a four-dimensional construct consisting of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact dimensions. A principal components exploratory factor analysis using varimax orthogonal rotation was employed. The result supported a four-factor model (see Table 4.4). However, two confirmatory factor analyses were performed to find the best fitting model. One model examines

Table 4.4
Exploratory Factor Analysis for Empowerment

Item	Meaning	Competence	Self-determination	Impact
E1	.80	.25	.26	.17
E2	.92	.18	.07	.13
E3	.91	.17	.07	.20
E4	.24	.80	.16	.02
E5	.14	.85	.19	.03
E6	.17	.79	.26	.02
E7	.15	.47	.68	.03
E8	.09	.30	.82	-.05
E9	.13	.08	.82	.23
E10	.12	.07	.11	.88
E11	.17	.01	.02	.93
E12	.16	-.01	.08	.92

empowerment in a one-factor model; the other is a four-factor model with the indicators pointing to meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact.

Table 4.5 presents the results of confirmatory factor analysis for the one-factor model. As expected, the chi-square of this model was highly significant ($p < .001$). Technically, this indicates that the model does not fit. However, because of the problems with this significance test mentioned in Chapter III, this finding does not lead us to reject the model. The obtained t values were significant at $p < .001$. The normalized residual matrix indicates that many residuals exceeded 2.0 in absolute value. These results show that there is not an acceptable fit between the model and the data. Moreover, the overall goodness of fit indices, including GFI, AGFI, and CFI, show that this model is not acceptable.

The confirmatory factor analysis results for the four-factor model are presented in Table 4.6. All observed t values were greater than 3.29 at $p < .001$. There was a significant improvement in the fit indices for this model (GFI = .930; AGFI = .887; CFI = .967; RMSEA = .07). These fit indices were within acceptable ranges; thus there is a good fit between the model and the data. In addition, most of the normalized residuals did not exceed 2.0 in absolute value. To compare these two models, the chi-square change statistic was computed to determine if there was a significant improvement in fit for the one-factor model to the four-factor model. The chi-square change statistic ($\Delta\chi^2 = 865.18$) was significant at $p < .001$.

Therefore, the four-factor model is a much better fit than the one factor model, and is used in the structural equation modeling.

Table 4.5
First-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Empowerment

Item	Standardized Loading	Indicator Reliability	<i>t</i> Value ^a
E1	.840	.706	14.86
E2	.861	.741	15.44
E3	.880	.774	15.97
E4	.503	.253	7.60
E5	.461	.213	6.88
E6	.481	.232	7.22
E7	.456	.208	6.80
E8	.362	.131	5.27
E9	.391	.153	5.73
E10	.380	.145	5.56
E11	.389	.151	5.69
E12	.385	.148	5.64

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 967.63 (*df* = 54, *p* < .001)

GFI = .533

AGFI = .326

CFI = .443

RMSEA = .28

Note: ^aAll *t* tests were significant at *p* < .001.

Table 4.6
Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Empowerment

Item	Meaning	Indicator Reliability (<i>t</i> Value ^a)		
		Competence	Self-determination	Impact
E1	.793 (13.76)			
E2	.914 (17.07)			
E3	.946 (18.10)			
E4		.766 (12.45)		
E5		.817 (13.61)		
E6		.795 (13.11)		
E7			.836 (13.49)	
E8			.761 (11.99)	
E9			.626 (9.40)	
E10				.798 (13.91)
E11				.940 (17.89)
E12				.930 (17.58)

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 102.45 (*df* = 48, *p* < .001)

GFI = .930

AGFI = .887

CFI = .967

RMSEA = .07

Note: ^aAll *t* tests were significant at *p* < .001.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Involvement

Exploratory factor analysis for the job involvement construct leads to a one-factor model. The measurement model is a single factor model comprised of five indicators. Table 4.7 presents the results of confirmatory analysis for the job involvement construct, including factor loadings, t values, and fit statistics. Again the chi-square is significant, but the remaining fit statistics indicate a good fit with the data (GFI = .978; AGFI = .934; CFI = .982; RMSEA = .08). Standardized loading estimates range from .406 to .866, with all t values being significant.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Satisfaction

The one-factor initial measurement was confirmed by exploratory factor analysis. The goodness of fit index (GFI) was .935; the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) was .848; the comparative fit index (CFI) was .892, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .14 (see Table 4.8). The results indicated a moderate lack of fit between the data and the hypothesized model. A misspecified model resulting from the incorrect inclusion or exclusion of variables may cause these low measures of overall fit. A common response to this condition is respecification of the model. The examination of modification indices and normalized residuals indicated that a crucial indicator (satisfaction with your pay) be dropped to improve the fit.

Table 4.7
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Involvement

Item	Standardized Loading	Indicator Reliability	<i>t</i> Value ^a
I1	.866	.749	14.97
I2	.860	.739	14.82
I3	.406	.165	5.85
I4	.708	.501	11.35
I5	.600	.360	9.18

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 12.46 (*df* = 5, *p* < .05)

GFI = .978

AGFI = .934

CFI = .982

RMAEA = .08

Note: ^aAll *t* tests were significant at *p* < .001.

Table 4.8
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Satisfaction

Item	Standardized Loading	Indicator Reliability	<i>t</i> Value ^a
S1	.760	.578	11.74
S2	.450	.202	6.27
S3	.731	.534	11.17
S4	.501	.251	7.07
S5	.584	.341	8.47
S6	.654	.428	9.73

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 45.60 (*df* = 9, *p* < .001)

GFI = .935

AGFI = .848

CFI = .892

RMSEA = .14

Note: ^aAll *t* tests were significant at *p* < .001.

However, this option was not theoretically acceptable because this indicator was very important to examine the job satisfaction construct, and there was no other indicator to replace this variable. Therefore, this indicator was not dropped from the model.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organizational Commitment

The initial measurement model for organizational commitment consisted of nine manifest variables. The chi-square value of 77.71 with 27 degree of freedom was statistically significant at $p < .001$. The values of the other fit indices yielded a moderate lack of fit between the model and the data (GFI = .914, AGFI = .843, and CFI = .867). After reviewing the modification indices, the O7 indicator displaying large positive residuals was dropped from the model.

The overall fit of the revised model revealed an improvement, with a goodness of fit index of .951, an adjusted goodness of fit of .911, and a comparative fit index of .980 (see Table 4.9). These indices are not only acceptable, they are also higher than those observed in the initial model. All these indices provide a strong indication of good model fit.

Table 4.9
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organizational Commitment

Item	Standardized Loading	Indicator Reliability	<i>t</i> Value ^a
O1	.745	.555	12.60
O2	.820	.672	14.50
O3	.636	.404	10.20
O4	.743	.552	12.55
O5	.880	.774	16.23
O6	.838	.703	15.01
O8	.882	.778	16.31
O9	.860	.739	15.63

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 45.98 (*df* = 30, *p* < .001)

GFI = .951

AGFI = .911

CFI = .980

RMSEA = .07

Note: ^aAll *t* tests were significant at *p* < .001.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Customer Orientation

The results of the exploratory factor analysis report one-factor model of the customer orientation construct. The initial measurement did not fit the data well (GFI = .666; AGFI = .532; CFI = .487; and RMSEA = .22). This initial model required respecification. Following the steps described above, three items were dropped from the measurement model. The overall fit of the revised model was confirmed with a goodness of fit index of .936, an adjusted goodness of fit of .884, a comparative fit index of .926, and a root mean square error of approximation of .09 (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Customer Orientation

Item	Standardized Loading	Indicator Reliability	<i>t</i> Value ^a
C2	.572	.327	8.26
C3	.359	.129	4.88
C5	.567	.322	8.17
C6	.695	.484	10.55
C8	.675	.456	10.14
C9	.681	.464	10.26
C12	.704	.496	10.72
C13	.645	.416	9.57

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 54.87 (*df* = 20, *p* < .001)

GFI = .936

AGFI = .884

CFI = .926

RMSR = .09

Note: ^aAll *t* tests were significant at *p* < .001.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Model of Customer Orientation

An overall confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on all constructs to examine the adequacy of the construct measures. Table 4.11 provides goodness of fit indices for the measurement model: GFI = .963; AFGI = .865; CFI = .964; RMSEA = .10. The chi-square statistic was 32.82 ($df = 10, p < .001$). This table shows that the measurement model displays values greater than .90 on the goodness of fit index (GFI) and the comparative fit index (CFI), which is indicative of an acceptable fit. Therefore, this measurement was accepted as the study's final measurement model.

Finally, we assessed the discriminant validity of two constructs by using a chi-square difference test. Means, standard deviations, and cross-construct correlations for the constructs are presented in Table 4.11. The highest correlation is .68 between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Since these two sets of constructs are strongly correlated, it is reasonable to investigate whether our model is really measuring two different constructs at all. The discriminant validity of the two constructs can be tested by performing a chi-square difference test in which the standard measurement model (two constructs are allowed to covary) is compared to the unidimensional model (the correlation between the two constructs is fixed at 1). A finding of significant difference indicates that

discriminant validity is demonstrated, and the better model is the one in which the two constructs are viewed as distinct factors (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

The unidimensional model displayed a chi-square of 260.80 with 77 *df*. The chi-square of the standard measurement model was 158.01 with 76 *df*. The difference in chi-square between two models was 102.79. The critical chi-square value with 1 *df* is 10.828 at $p = .001$, so this chi-square difference was significant at $p < .001$. Therefore, this test supports the discriminant validity of job involvement and organizational commitment. In conclusion, these results support the appropriateness of the measurement model for drawing theoretical inferences.

Table 4.11
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations^a, and Fit Statistics

Items	Mean	S.D.	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	Y1	Y2
X1. Meaning	5.82	1.40							
X2. Competence	6.34	.95	.51						
X3. Self-determination	5.72	1.29	.33	.48					
X4. Impact	4.79	1.63	.30	.25	.17				
X5. Job Involvement	3.89	1.33	.51	.51	.41	.40			
Y1. Job Satisfaction	5.29	1.02	.49	.38	.23	.33	.47		
Y2. Organizational Commitment	5.03	1.36	.59	.54	.31	.51	.54	.68	
Y3. Customer Orientation	6.01	.86	.45	.42	.38	.25	.31	.52	.45

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 32.82 ($df = 10, p < .001$)

GFI = .963

AGFI = .865

CFI = .964

RMSEA = .10

Note: ^aAll Pearson correlation coefficients were significant at $p < .01$.

STRUCTURAL MODEL

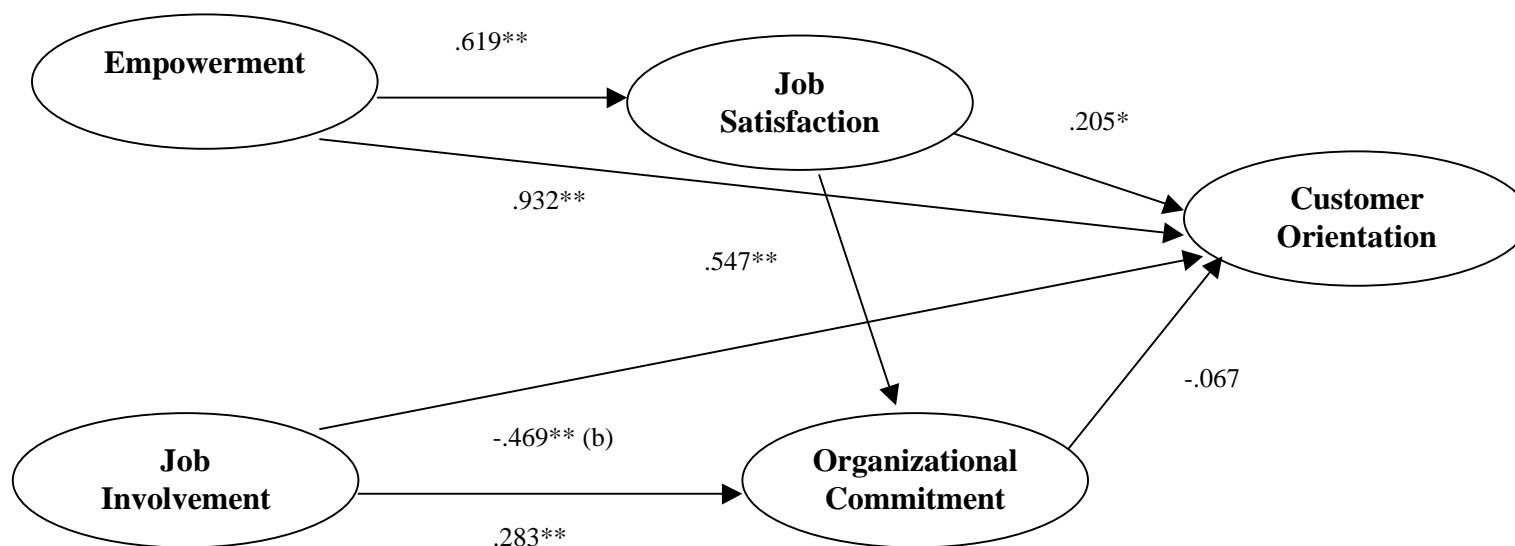
The Initial Theoretical Model

Figure 4.1 displays individual standardized path coefficients for the theoretical model. Fitting the hypothesized model to the data resulted in acceptable goodness-of-fit indices. For the initial model, specific indicators included a chi-square of 85.57, a goodness of fit of .923, an adjusted goodness of fit of .815, a comparative fit index of .889 (see Table 4.12). Performing a chi-square difference test in which the theoretical model is compared to the measurement model can test the nomological validity of a theoretical model. A finding of no significant difference indicates that the initial theoretical model is successful in accounting for the observed relationships between the latent constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

The chi-square difference value was achieved by subtracting the chi-square for the measurement model from the chi-square for the initial theoretical model, resulting in a chi-square difference value of 85.57 (the theoretical model) $- 32.82$ (the measurement model) $= 52.75$. The test's degree of freedom was equal to the difference between the *df* for the two models, in this case $15 - 10 = 5$. The critical chi-square value with 5 *df* is 20.515 at $p = .001$, and thus this chi-square difference was significant (see Table 4.13). This result indicates that the theoretical model

was not successful in accounting for the relationships between latent constructs. Therefore, the result indicated that the initial theoretical model did not achieve an acceptable fit to the data.

Figure 4.1
A Path Diagram for the Initial Theoretical Model



Notes: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

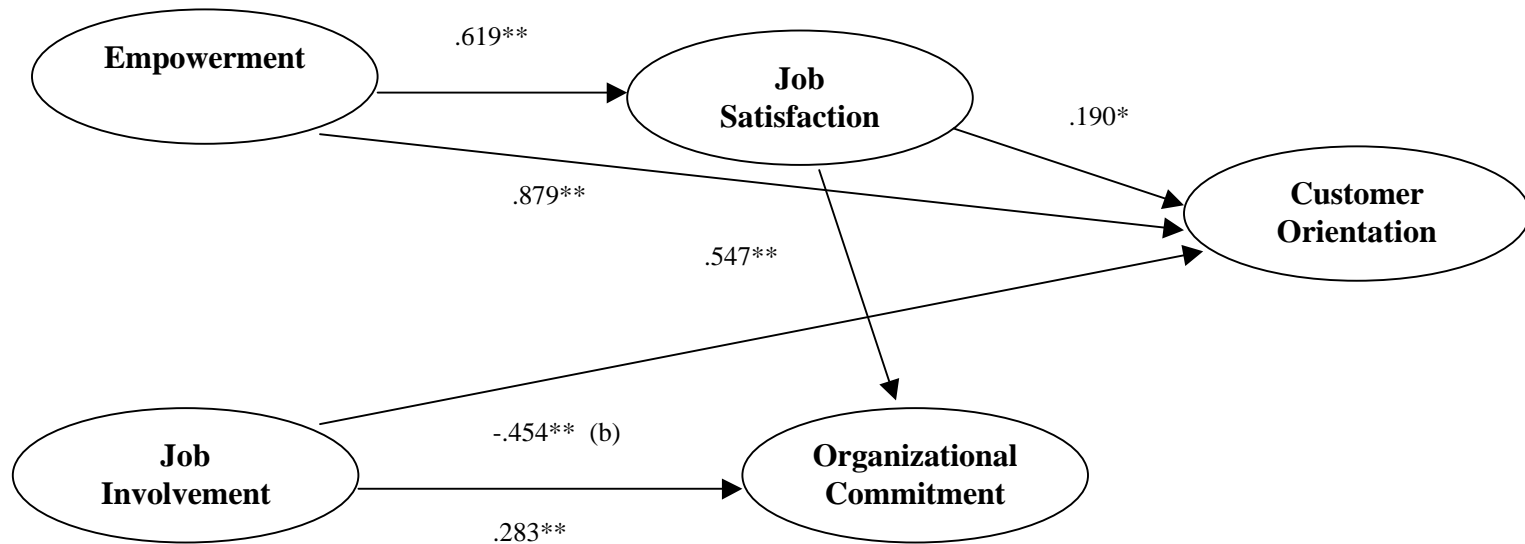
^(b)The signs of this path was not as hypothesized.

Revised Model 1

An examination of the standardized coefficient and t values for the initial theoretical model indicated that the hypothesized path relating organizational commitment to customer orientation was not statistically significant (see Figure 4.1). Therefore, this path was deleted, and the revised model 1 was then estimated (see Figure 4.2). Fit indices for the revised model 1 were acceptable with a chi-square of 86.16, a goodness of fit index of .922, an adjusted goodness of fit of .824, and a comparative fit index of .889 (see Table 4.12).

A chi-square difference test was conducted, comparing the initial model to the revised model 1. The chi-square difference for this comparison was equal to 86.16 (the revised model 1) $- 85.57$ (the initial theoretical model) $= .59$, with 1 df , this was not significant at $p > .05$ (see Table 4.13). Therefore, it was found to be acceptable to drop the organizational commitment-customer orientation path, in that a significant increase in the model's chi-square did not result (Hatcher, 1996). However, the revised model 2 failed to provide an acceptable fit in comparison to the measurement model because the chi-square difference was calculated as 86.16 (the revised model 1) $- 32.82$ (the measurement model) $= 53.34$, which, with 6 df , was statistically significant at $p < .001$ (see Table 4.13).

Figure 4.2
A Path Diagram for the Revised Model 1



Notes: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

^(b)The signs of this path was not as hypothesized.

Revised Model 2

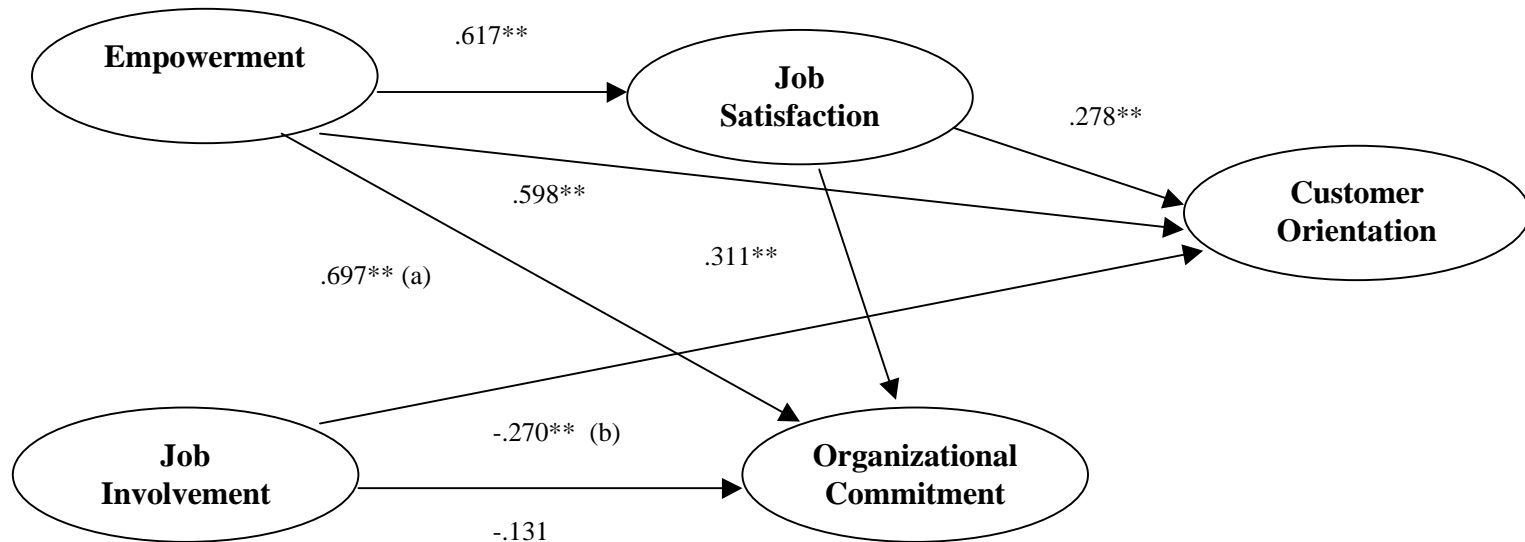
Lagrange multiplier tests (Bentler, 1989) were performed to identify new causal paths that should be added to the model. This test provided the estimate that it was possible to reduce the chi-square for the revised model by 30.06 by adding a path that went from empowerment to organizational commitment. The addition of this path would prove consistent with the conclusion by Umstot et al. (1978) that a significant positive relationship exists between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment.

The path diagram for the revised model 2 is presented on Figure 4.3. In addition, Table 4.12 indicated that the fit indices were higher than those displayed by the revised model 1 and the initial theoretical model. A chi-square difference test comparing the first and the second revised models revealed a significant difference value of 86.16 (the revised model 1) $- 46.74$ (the revised model 2) $= 39.42$ with 1 *df* at $p < .001$ (see Table 4.13). The revised model 2, as indicated by this finding, provided a significantly better fit to the data than the fit provided by the revised model 1, and therefore justifies adding a new path.

Again, a chi-square difference test was used to compare the fit of the revised model 2 to that of the measurement model. The resulting difference value of 46.74 (the revised model 2) $- 32.81$ (the measurement model) $= 13.93$, was nonsignificant with 5 *df* at $p > .01$ (see Table 4.13). The nonsignificant chi-square

indicated that the revised model 2 provided a fit that was not significantly worse than that provided by a measurement model.

Figure 4.3
A Path Diagram for the Revised Model 2



Notes: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

^aThis path was not hypothesized.

^bThe signs of this path was not as hypothesized.

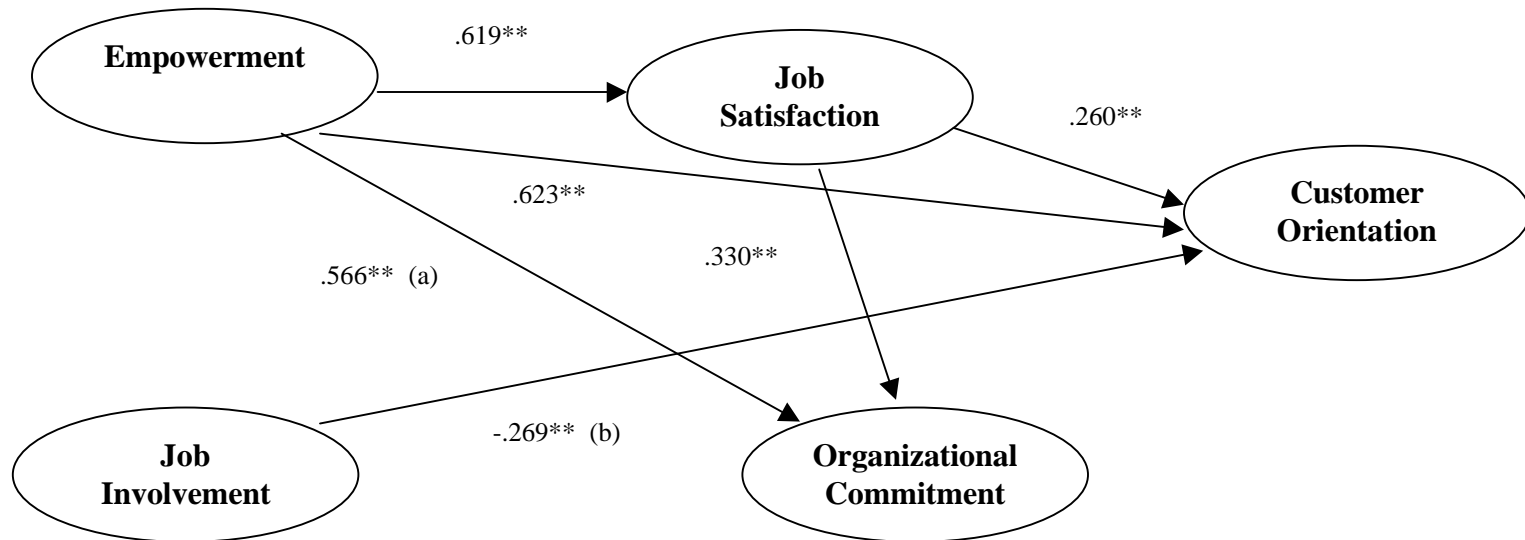
Revised Model 3

It can be seen that a one-path coefficient between job involvement and organizational commitment was not significant (Figure 4.3). Deleting such a path leads to the revised model 3 (Figure 4.4). A chi-square test was conducted, comparing the revised model 2 and the revised model 3. The chi-square difference was equal to 49.06 (the revised model 3) $- 46.74$ (the revised model 2) $= 2.32$ which, with 1 *df*, was nonsignificant at $p > .05$ (see Table 4.13). As a final test, again, the revised model 3 was compared to the measurement model. The chi-square difference was calculated as 49.06 (the revised model 3) $- 32.82$ (the measurement model) $= 16.24$, which, with 6 *df*, was statistically nonsignificant at $p > .01$ (see Table 4.13). Therefore, the revised model 3 passed the chi-square test, which indicating that the causal relationships described in the revised model 3 successfully accounted for the observed relationships between the latent constructs.

A combination of these findings, in general, offered support for the revised model 3 in comparison to the other model tests. Therefore, the revised model 3 was the final model. R^2 values showed that empowerment, job involvement, and job satisfaction accounted for 42% of the variance in customer orientation (see Table 4.12). In addition, empowerment, job involvement, and job satisfaction

accounted for 66% of the variance in organizational commitment, while empowerment explained 38% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Figure 4.4
A Path Diagram for the Revised Model 3



Notes: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

^aThis path was not hypothesized.

^bThe signs of this path was not as hypothesized.

Table 4.12
Goodness of Fit for the Customer Orientation Model

Model	Chi-square ^a	<i>df</i>	GFI	AGFI	CFI
Null Model	664.86	28	—	—	—
Theoretical Model	85.57	15	.923	.815	.889
Revised Model 1	86.16	16	.922	.824	.890
Revised Model 2	46.74	15	.948	.876	.950
Revised Model 3	49.06	16	.948	.883	.948
Measurement Model	32.82	10	.963	.865	.964

R² for the Endogenous Constructs

Customer Orientation	.420
Organizational Commitment	.660
Job Satisfaction	.383

Note: ^aAll chi-square tests were significant at $p < .01$.

Table 4.13
Summary of Chi-square Tests for Model Comparisons

Model Comparison	<i>df</i>	Chi-square Difference
Theoretical Model vs. Measurement Model	5	52.75*
Revised Model 1 vs. Theoretical Model	1	.59
Revised Model 1 vs. Measurement Model	6	53.34*
Revised Model 2 vs. Revised Model 1	1	39.42*
Revised Model 2 vs. Measurement Model	5	13.93
Revised Model 3 vs. Revised Model 2	1	2.32
Revised Model 3 vs. Measurement Model	6	16.24

*Note: * $p < .01$.*

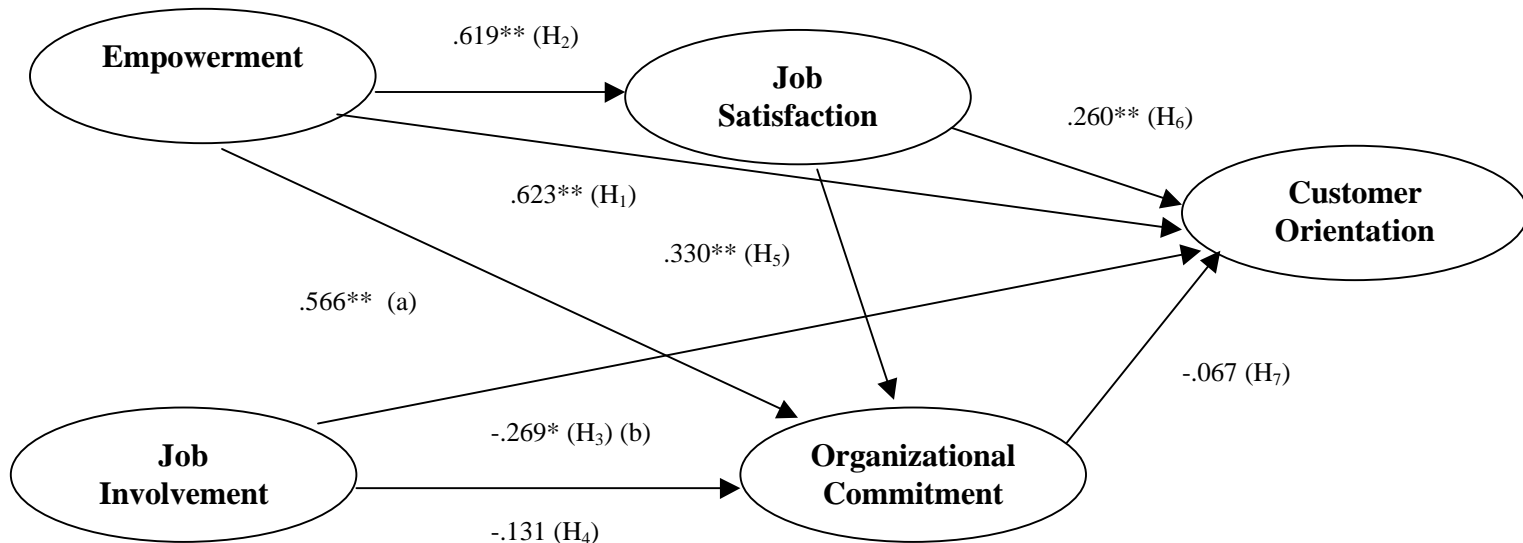
ANALYSIS OF THE HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses developed in this study were tested using the SEM analyses. SEM allows the direct effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables, as well as the effects of endogenous variables on other endogenous constructs, to be assessed simultaneously. In this study, empowerment and job involvement are the exogenous variables; job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and customer orientation are endogenous as they are posited to be affected by at least one other construct. The hypothesized relationships in the original model (see Figure 3.1) were tested using the model estimation procedures for simultaneous equations. The results of SEM indicated the direction and magnitude of the hypothesized causal relationships (see Figure 4.5).

Hypothesis 1: Empowerment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

As indicated by the standardized path coefficient of .623 and the t value of 5.21 ($p < .001$) as shown in Table 4.14, this hypothesis is supported by the data. The findings indicate that perceived empowerment does affect the customer orientation perceived by employee. Thus, a higher empowerment should result in higher customer orientation for the employees.

Figure 4.5
A Path Diagram of Structural Relationships



Notes: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

^aThis path was not hypothesized.

^bThe signs of this path was not as hypothesized.

Table 4.14
Results of the SEM Analysis

Path (Hypothesis)	Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i> Value
H ₁ : Empowerment → Customer Orientation	.623	5.21**
H ₂ : Empowerment → Job Satisfaction	.619	10.65**
H ₃ : Job Involvement → Customer Orientation	-.269	-2.78*
H ₄ : Job Involvement → Organizational Commitment	-.131	-1.50
H ₅ : Job Satisfaction → Organizational Commitment	.330	5.37**
H ₆ : Job Satisfaction → Customer Orientation	.260	3.32**
H ₇ : Organizational Commitment → Customer Orientation	-.067	-.86
^a Empowerment → Organizational Commitment	.566	9.44**

Notes: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

^aThis path was not hypothesized.

Hypothesis 2: Empowerment will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

The structural coefficient of .619 and the t values of 10.65, significant at $p < .001$ level, indicate that the empowerment exerts a positive and significant effect on the job satisfaction of the service employee (see Table 4.14). Additionally, the residual for the job satisfaction factor (.786) reveals that the amount of unexplained variance is 61.7%. In other words, the empowerment construct in the model accounts for 38.3% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Job involvement will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

The standardized path coefficient for the relationship in H_3 equals -.269, and the t values equals -2.78 (see Table 4.14). Contrary to expectations, the results signify a significant, negative relationship between job involvement and customer orientation, which means that job involvement has a negative effect on the customer orientation of the employee.

Hypothesis 4: Job involvement will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.

The path coefficient of -.131 and the t values of -1.50 are not significantly different from zero (see Table 4.14). Job involvement was not found to be related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

The findings concerning H_5 suggest job satisfaction positively affects customer orientation. Table 4.14 indicates a path coefficient of .330 and a t value of 5.37, significant at $p < .001$ level. Thus, increased perceptions of job satisfaction increase customer orientation for the employee.

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.

The path coefficient of .260 and the t value of 3.32 were significant at $p < .001$ (see Table 4.14). This supports the theory that job satisfaction has a significant direct effect on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 7: Organizational commitment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.

The path coefficient of $-.067$ and the t value of $-.86$, not significant at the $.05$ level, indicate that organizational commitment does not affect customer orientation (see Table 4.14).

Other Results.

SEM produced other significant results. First, the path from empowerment to organizational commitment suggests a significant positive relationship ($.566, p < .001$) consistent with previous studies (Umstot et al., 1978) (see Table 4.14). Second, several significant indirect effects augment the effects of empowerment perceptions. For example, empowerment has a significant indirect effect on customer orientation through its effect on job satisfaction. In addition, empowerment affects organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. Therefore, the model implies that job satisfaction mediates relationships between perceived empowerment and customer orientation, and empowerment and organizational commitment.

Table 4.15
Summary of Hypotheses Tests

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1: Empowerment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.	Supported
Hypothesis 2: Empowerment will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.	Supported
Hypothesis 3: Job involvement will have a positive effect on customer orientation.	Not Supported*
Hypothesis 4: Job involvement will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on customer orientation.	Supported
Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on organizational commitment.	Supported
Hypothesis 7: Organizational commitment will have a positive effect on customer orientation.	Not Supported

Note: *. The standardized path coefficient was statistically significant ($p < .01$), but the sign contradicted the hypothesized direction.

SUMMARY

This chapter examined the results of the statistical analyses performed on restaurant employee survey data. Reliability and validity issues were examined. Confirmatory factor analysis was employed to test the measurement models. The process involved in developing the final structural model was explained. SEM was used to test the hypothesized relationships of the theoretical model. This analysis revealed that four of the seven hypothesized relationships were statistically significant. However, the path relating empowerment-organizational commitment, which was not hypothesized in the initial model, was found to be significant. Thus, in addition to a direct effect, empowerment has an indirect effect on customer orientation through its effect on job satisfaction. The following chapter will discuss these results in greater detail, as well as their implications. It also suggests the directions for future research.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

INTRODUCTION

This final chapter provides a discussion of the results of the research concerning customer orientation, and the hypothesized antecedents. Then, implications derived from the findings and the limitations of the study are presented. Finally, suggestions for future research are discussed.

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to test the customer orientation model, which specifies the relationships among customer orientation and its antecedent variables using structural equation modeling techniques with the goal of providing increased knowledge for improving customer orientation. The model was composed of five major constructs: (1) empowerment; (2) job involvement; (3) job satisfaction; (4) organizational commitment; and (5) customer orientation. Seven relationships were hypothesized and examined in this study. These relationships are depicted in Figure 4.5. In addition, one path was added as a result of the statistical analysis of

the original causal model. The results of these relationships are illustrated in Table 4.15.

Customer Orientation

It was hypothesized that employee empowerment would have a significant positive influence on customer orientation. Although little research had directly tested the relationship between employee empowerment and customer orientation, a number of authors argued that empowerment had a significant positive relationship with job performance (Amabile, 1979; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Sternberg, 1992; Umstot et al., 1978). The results indicated a significant positive relationship between empowerment and customer orientation. As the employee's perception of empowerment increases, the employee's perceived customer orientation increases. This findings is consistent with that of Lashley (1997) who argued that an empowered employee is more likely to capture quickly customer needs and respond to complaints.

As previously mentioned, psychological empowerment has four distinct dimensions including meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Further research is needed to determine the relative importance of the dimensions of empowerment in influencing customer orientation.

It has been previously hypothesized that as perceived job involvement increases, there is also an increase in the individual's perception of customer orientation. However, contrary to a hypothesis in this study, job involvement was shown to have a negative effect on customer orientation.

It was hypothesized that job satisfaction would have a positive effect on customer orientation. The conclusion that job satisfaction does directly influence customer orientation was consistent with Hoffman and Ingram's (1991) finding that job satisfaction directly and positively affects customer orientation, and Bateman and Organ's (1983) finding that job satisfaction is related to the work behavior pattern of altruism and consideration.

The final hypothesis examined organizational commitment and its relationship to customer orientation. It was hypothesized that as organizational commitment increased, this would have a positive impact on the employee's customer orientation. No significant relationship was noted between these constructs (see Table 4.15.). The findings of O'Hara et al. (1991) indicated that organizational commitment has a significant relationship to customer orientation. In the present study, these findings were not supported, and did not lead to the supposition that an organization-dedicated employee will exert the effort required to become customer-oriented.

However, strong support is provided by the results of the study for the empowerment process among service employees. The results of standardized path coefficients (see Table 4.15.) indicate that, in order of importance, the most influential constructs of job attitudes on customer orientation are: (1) empowerment (.623), (2) job involvement (-.269), (3) job satisfaction (.260), and finally (4) organizational commitment (-.067). The standardized coefficients reveal that the empowerment construct is more influential than the sum of the latter three constructs.

The results of this study show that employees who perceive a high level of empowerment have a tendency toward higher levels, respectively, of job satisfaction and customer orientation.

Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction was revealed to positively affect the organizational commitment of the employee. The more satisfied the individual with the his/her job, the greater the dedication to the firm. This positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment was consistent with the findings of Martin and O'Laughlin (1984). Therefore, there is a tendency for satisfied employees to achieve higher levels of organizational commitment.

It was hypothesized that as job involvement increases, so would the individual's commitment to the organization. However, no significance was noted in this relationship (see Table 4.15.). It was not possible to reproduce significant causal relationships in the model, and thus, it may be the case that no significant causal relationship exists. The strength of the causal relationship needs to be confirmed or disconfirmed by testing the same model in a different hospitality environment.

Another relationship which surfaced, although not previously hypothesized, was that between empowerment and organizational commitment. The higher the perceived empowerment of the employee, the greater his/her organizational commitment. This finding, although not anticipated, is consistent with the conclusion of Umstot et al. (1978) that a significant positive relationship can be found between intrinsic motivation and workforce commitment. Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) found that individuals who were provided with opportunities for personal control, responsibility, and work challenge were more likely to be committed to the organization. In addition, it seems logical that individuals who are intrinsically motivated to perform their jobs are more committed to their jobs and their organizations.

Job Satisfaction

It was also hypothesized that empowerment would have a positive influence on job satisfaction. A significant path was noted for the parameter examining the relationship of perceived empowerment and job satisfaction. This strong, positive causal relationship is consistent with findings by Amabile (1979), Arnold (1985), Bowen and Lawler (1995), Deci and Ryan (1989), Sparrowe (1994), and Umstot et al. (1978).

In summary, the findings regarding satisfaction lead one to conclude that service employees that are more satisfied with their jobs feel more committed to the organization, and provide higher levels of customer orientation. More importantly, empowered employees tend to have achieved higher levels of job satisfaction, be more committed to the organization, and experience higher levels of perceived customer orientation.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The present study offered a framework for understanding the individual factors that may be related to employees' customer orientation. To date, there has been very little research that has addressed this issue, or that has tested the relationships between these constructs and customer orientation. A theoretical framework of how these factors may be related to customer orientation was proposed and some relationships were hypothesized and tested.

This study used a previously established measure of employee customer orientation (see Daniel & Darby, 1997). This instrument was created especially for the use in health care, and utilizing it in the hospitality industry begins to expand the knowledge-base and add continuity to customer orientation research. However, much additional research is needed to assess the psychometric properties of the customer orientation measure used in this study, as well as other measures of customer orientation being used in research.

The framework tested can only be a partial listing of the factors that may be related to customer orientation, because the model presented in this study accounts for 42% of the variance in customer orientation. This research confirms previous research that has shown that job satisfaction can have a significant impact on customer orientation. Further studies might consider the many other factors

(e.g., organizational culture, role ambiguity, role conflict, etc.) that may be related to customer orientation but were not included within the scope of this study.

Customer orientation is an important indicator of performance for service employees and organizations (Deshpande et al., 1993; Dunlap et al., 1988; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Many service organizations, including hospitality firms, are particularly dependent on the development of long term relationship with their customers. Therefore, the degree of customer orientation of service employees influences the customer's level of satisfaction.

It is important to provide managers with some guidelines for enhancing the level of customer orientation among their personnel. For example, selection procedures can be developed to emphasize the recruitment and hiring of people who are oriented toward creating customer satisfaction.

In addition, it is suggested that the training programs can improve employees' expertise and interpersonal skills associated with customer. For example, British Airways instituted an extensive training program to help enhance the customer orientation of its employees (Maremont, 1990). Due to improvement in the motivation and commitment of British Airways' personnel, this firm has achieved one of the best service reputations in the airline industry.

Based on the findings of this study, we maintain that employee empowerment is the most important determinant of employee customer orientation. This indicates that more empowered employees will be more likely to strive to satisfy customer needs and wants. Therefore, it might be advantageous for managers to strive to find ways to increase the empowerment of service employees. For example, management may direct company policies toward creating greater autonomy in employee decision-making and in deciding upon operating style that take employees' uniqueness and that of the situation into account.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the study does provide insight as to the importance of empowerment and job satisfaction in developing customer orientation, this research is subject to several limitations that suggest directions for further research.

First, the vehicle used to generate data and to test the model was one organization, in one industry. Consequently, caution is warranted about generalizing the results to other service environments. The replication of the model in other settings could help improve the generalizability of the results achieved in this study.

Second, although this study examined the hypothesized relationships through a cross-sectional study, this type of study might not reflect any ongoing transformations that could influence the relationships between the constructs. It is suggested that a longitudinal study might reveal the potential dynamism of the investigated constructs.

Third, a limitation of our study is that we do not explicitly capture the effects of some other constructs on customer orientation in our study. Although the constructs selected for investigation in this study are important antecedents of customer orientation, further research should examine other antecedents found to

be important in prior organizational behavior research, including role ambiguity, role conflict (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Hoffman & Ingram, 1991), and organizational citizenship (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), organizational culture (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991; Sparrowe, 1995, Williams & Attaway, 1996). Including these variables in future research could achieve a better understanding of the customer orientation model designed for this study, and could reduce the risk of making inferential errors.

Given these specified limitations, this study has made valuable contributions to the understanding of customer orientation and its relationship to determinants. The knowledge base of both academicians and practitioners has been enhanced by the findings of this study.

REFERENCES

- Allport, G. W. (1947). The psychology of participation. Psychological Review, *52*, 117-132.
- Amabile, T. M. (1979). Effects of external evaluation on artistic creativity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, *37*, 221-233.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. Psychological Bulletin, *103*, 411-423.
- Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, *26*, 1-14.
- Arnold, H. J. (1985). Task performance, perceived competence, and attributed causes of performance as determinants of intrinsic motivation. Academy of Management Journal, *28*, 876-888.
- Ashforth, B. E. (1989). The experience of powerlessness in organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, *43*, 207-242.
- Astley, W. A., Sachdeva, P. S. (1984). Structural sources of intraorganizational power: A theoretical synthesis. Academy of Management Review, *9*, 104-113.
- Baggozi, R., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, *1*, 74-94.
- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. American Psychologist, *37*, 122-147.
- Bartol, K. (1979). Professionalism as a predictor of organizational commitment, role stress, and turnover: A multidimensional approach. Academy of Management Journal, *22*, 815-821.

- Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the God Soldier: The relationship between affect and employ "citizenship." Academy of Management Journal, 26, 587-595.
- Bateman, T. S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 27 (1), 95-112.
- Bateson, J. E. G. (1992). Managing Services Marketing (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: The Dryden Press.
- Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. American Journal of Sociology, 66, 32-42.
- Begley, T. M., & Czajka, J. (1993). Panel analysis of the moderating effects of commitment on job satisfaction, intent to quit, and health following organizational change. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 552-556.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders. New York: Harper & Row.
- Bentler, P. M. (1989). EQS Structural Equations Program Manual. Los Angeles: BMDP Statistical Software.
- Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness-of-fit in the analysis of covariance structures. Psychological Bulletin, 88, 588-606.
- Berry, L. L. (1980). Services marketing is different. Business, 30, 24-29.
- Bitner, M. J. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surroundings and employee responses. Journal of Marketing, 54, 69-82.
- Bitner, M. J., Booms, B. H., & Tetreault, M. S. (1990). The Service Encounter: Diagnosing Favorable and Unfavorable Incidents. Journal of Marketing, 54 (1), 71-84.
- Blau, G. J. (1985). A multiple study investigation of the dimensionality of job involvement. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 27, 19-36.

- Blau, G. J. (1986). Job involvement and organizational commitment as interactive predictors of tardiness and absenteeism. Journal of Management, *12*, 577-584.
- Blau, G. J. (1987). Using a person-environment fit model to predict job involvement and organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, *30*, 240-257.
- Blau, G. J., & Boal, K. B. (1987). Conceptualizing how job involvement and organizational commitment affect turnover and absenteeism. Academy of Management Review, *12*, 288-300.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). Structural Equations with Latent Variables. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bowen, D. E., & Lawler, E. E., III (1992). The empowerment of service workers: What, why, how, and when. Sloan Management Review, *33*, (3), 31-39.
- Bowen, D. E., & Lawler, E. E., III (1995). Empowering service employees. Sloan Management Review, *36*, (4), 73-84.
- Bowen, D. E., & Schneider, B. (1985). Boundary-spanning-role employees and the service encounter. In J. A. Czepiel, M. R. Solomon, & C. F. Surprenant (Eds.), The Service Encounter (pp. 127-147). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Brief, A. P., & Nord, W. R. (1990). Meanings of Occupational Work. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Brooke, P. P., & Price, J. L. (1989). The determinants of employee absenteeism: An empirical test of a causal model. Journal of Occupational Psychology, *62*, 1-19.
- Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Journal of Applied Psychology, *73*, 139-145.
- Brown, S. P., & Peterson, R. A. (1993). Antecedents and consequences of salesperson job satisfaction: Meta-analysis and assessment of causal effects. Journal of Marketing Research, *30*, 63-77.

- Brown, G., Widing, R. E., II, & Coulter, R. L. (1991). Customer evaluation of retail salespeople utilizing the SOCO scale: A replication, extension, and application. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 19 (4), 347-351.
- Churchill, G. A., Jr. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. Journal of Marketing Research, 16, 64-73.
- Churchill, G. A., Jr., Ford, N. M., & Walker, O. C., Jr. (1974). Measuring the job satisfaction of industrial salesman. Journal of Marketing Research, 11 (3), 254-260.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. Academy of Management Review, 13, 471-482.
- Daniel, K., & Darby, D. N. (1997). A dual perspective of customer orientation: A modification, extension and application of the SOCO scale. International Journal of Service Industry Management, 8 (2), 131-147.
- Darden, W. R., Hampton, R., & Howell, R. D. (1989). Career versus organizational commitment: Antecedents and consequences of retail salespeople's commitment. Journal of Retailing, 65, 80-106.
- Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 580-590.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. New York: Plenum.
- Deshpande, R., Farley, J. U., & Webster, F. E. (1993). Corporate culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in Japanese firms: A quadrad analysis. Journal of Marketing, 57, 23-27.
- Donaldson, B. (1993). Customer driven organizations can smile. Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Marketing Education Group, Vol. 1. (pp. 243-255). Loughborough: Loughborough University Business School.
- Dubin, R. (1956). Industrial workers' worlds: A study of the central life interests of industrial workers. Social Problems, 3 (3), 131-142.

- Dubin, R. (1961). Human Relations in Administration. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Dubin, R., Champoux, J. E., & Porter, L. W. (1975). Central life interests and organizational commitment of blue-collar and clerical workers. Administrative Science Quarterly, 20 (3), 411-421.
- Dubinsky, A. J., & Skinner, S. J. (1984). Impact of job characteristics on retail salespeople's reactions to their jobs. Journal of Retailing, 60 (2), 36-62.
- Dunlap, B. J., Dotson, M. J., & Chambers, T. M. (1988). Perceptions of real-estate brokers and buyers: A sales-orientation, customer-orientation approach. Journal of Business Research, 17, 175-187.
- Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 51-59.
- Fisk, R. P., Brown, S. W., & Bitner, M. J. (1993). Tracking the evolution of the services marketing literature. Journal of Retailing, 61-103.
- Freedman, S. M., & Phillips, J. S. (1985). The effects of situational performance constraints on intrinsic motivation and satisfaction: The role of perceived competence and self-determination. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 21, 273-288.
- Fulford, M. D., & Enz, C. A. (1995). The impact of empowerment on service employees. Journal of Managerial Issues, 7, (2), 161-175.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1985). The effects of sampling error and model characteristics on parameter estimation for maximum likelihood confirmatory analysis. Multivariate Behavioral Research, 20, 255-271.
- Gist, M. (1987). Self-efficacy: Implications for organizational behavior and human resource management. Academy of Management Review, 17, 183-211.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work Redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1995). Multivariate Data Analysis (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, D. T. (1992). The Hallmarks for Successful Business. London: Mercury Books.
- Hartline, M. D., & Ferrell, O. C. (1996). The management of customer-contact service employees: An empirical investigation. Journal of Marketing, 60 (4), 52-70.
- Hatcher, L. (1996). A step-by-step approach to using the SAS system for factor analysis and structural equation modeling. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.
- Hayduk, L. A. (1987). Structural equation modeling with LISREL: Essential and advances. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins.
- Hayes, B. E. (1994). How to measure empowerment. Quality Process, 41-46.
- Herzberg, F. (1966). Work and the Nature of Man. New York: Mentor Executive Library.
- Heskett, J. L., Jones, T. O., Loveman, G. W., Sasser, W. E., Schlesinger, L. A. (1994). Putting the service-profit chain to work. Harvard Business Review, 72, (2), 164-177.
- Hoffman, K. D., & Ingram, T. N. (1991). Creating customer-oriented employees: The case in home health care. Journal of Health Care Marketing, 11 (2), 24-32.
- Hoffman, K. D. & Ingram, T. N. (1992). Service provider job satisfaction and customer-oriented performance. Journal of Services Marketing, 6 (2), 68-78.
- Hoffman, K. D., & Kelley, S. W. (1994). The influence of service provider mood states on prosocial behaviors and service quality assessments. In C. W. Park & D. C. Smith (Eds.), Renaissance in Marketing Thought and Practice (pp. 288-289). St. Petersburg: American Marketing Association Winter Educators Conference.

- Hogan, J., Hogan, R., & Busch, C. M. (1984). How to measure service orientation. Journal of Applied Psychology, *69*, 167-173.
- Hollen, C., & Chesser, R. (1976). The relationship of personal influence dissonance to job tension, satisfaction and involvement. Academy of Management Journal, *19*, 308-314.
- Howe, V., Hoffman, K. D., & Hardigree, D. W. (1994). The relationship between ethical and customer-oriented service provider behaviors. Journal of Business Ethics, *13* (7), 497-506.
- Hoyle, R. H. (1995). The structural equation modeling approach: Basic concepts and fundamental issues. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications (pp. 1-15). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Hoyle, R. H., & Smith, G. T. (1994). Formulating clinical research hypotheses as structural equation models: A conceptual overview. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, *62* (3), 429-440.
- Hunt, S. D., Chonko, L. B., & Wood, V. R. (1985). Organizational commitment and marketing. Journal of Marketing, *49*, 112-126.
- Ingram, T. N., Lee, K. S., & Lucas, G. H., Jr. (1991). Commitment and involvement: Assessing a salesforce typology. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, *19* (3), 187-197.
- Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. (1993). Market orientation: Antecedents and consequences. Journal of Marketing, *57*, 53-70.
- Johnston, M. W., Parasuraman, A., Futrell, C. M., & Black, W. C. (1990). A longitudinal assessment of the impact of selected organizational influences on salespeople's organizational commitment during early employment. Journal of Marketing Research, *27*, 333-344.
- Jones, J. E., & Bearly, W. L. (1994). The empowerment profile. HRD Quarterly, *32*.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). Men and Women of the Corporation. New York: Basic Books.

- Kanter, R. M. (1979). Power failure in management circuits. Harvard Business Review, 57 (4), 65-75.
- Kanungo, R. N. (1982). Measurement of job and work involvement. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, 341-349.
- Keller, R. T. (1997). Job involvement and organizational commitment as longitudinal predictors of job performance: A study of scientists and engineers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82 (4), 539-545.
- Kelley, H. H., & Thibaut, J. W. (1978). Interpersonal Relations: A Theory of Interdependence. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Kelley, S. W. (1992). Developing customer orientation among service employees. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 20, 27-36.
- Klenke, K. (1982). Causal Modeling of Organizational Commitment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Old Dominion University.
- Kotler, P. (1980). Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning and Control (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Kurtz, D. L., Dodge, H. R., & Klompaker, J. E. (1976). Professional Selling. Dallas: Business Publications Inc.
- Kwan, J., Hom, A., & Gregory, K. (1993). Service orientation in health care settings: Underlying attitudes and behaviors. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Francisco, CA.
- Lashley, C. (1997). Employee empowerment in hospitality services. Journal of College & University Foodservice, 3(3), 33-62.
- Lawler, E. E., III (1970). Job attitudes and employee motivation: Theory, research, and practice. Personnel Psychology, 23, 223-237.
- Lawler, E. E., III, & Hall, D. T. (1970). Relationship of job characteristics to job involvement, satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 54, 305-312.

- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In Marvin Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (pp. 1297-1350). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Locke, E. A., Frederick, E., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1984). Effect of self-efficacy, goals, and task strategies on task performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, *69* (2), 241-251.
- Lodahl, T. M., & Kejner, M. (1965). The definition and measurement of job involvement. Journal of Applied Psychology, *49*, 24-33.
- Lovelock, C. H. (1981). Why marketing management needs to be different for services. In J. H. Donnelly & W. R. George (Eds.), Marketing of Services (pp. 217-220). Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Maremont, M. (1990). How British Airways butters up the passenger. Business Week, *56*, 94.
- Martin, T., & O'Laughlin, M. (1984). Predictors of organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, *25*, 270-283.
- Maslow, A. (1943). A theory of human motivation. Psychological Review, *50*, 370-396.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Farr, J. L. (1991). Further evidence for the discriminant validity of measures of organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology, *76*, 127-133.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. Psychological Bulletin, *108*, 171-194.
- McClelland, D. C. (1975). Power: The Inner Experience. New York: Irvington Press.
- Michaels, R. E., & Day, R. L. (1985). Measuring customer orientation of salespeople: A replication with industrial buyers. Journal of Marketing Research, *22*, 443-446.

- Milburne, G., Jr., & Francis, G. J. (1981). All about job satisfaction. Supervisory Management, 26 (8), 35-43.
- Motowidlo, S. J. (1984). Does job satisfaction lead to consideration and personal sensitivity? Academy of Management Journal, 27, 910-915.
- Mottaz, C. J. (1987). An analysis of the relationship between work satisfaction and organizational commitment. Sociology Quarterly, 28 (4), 541-558.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14, 224-247.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). Employee-Organizational Linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover. New York: Basic Books.
- Narver, J. C., & Slater, S. F. (1990). The effect of a market orientation on business profitability. Journal of Marketing, 54, 20-35.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric Theory (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Hara, B. S., Boles, J. S., & Johnston, M. W. (1991). The influence of personal variables on salesperson selling orientation. Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 11, 61-67.
- Parasuraman, A., Z., Valarie A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). SERVQUAL: a multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. Journal of Retailing, 64 (1), 12-40.
- Patchen, M. (1970). Participation, Achievement, and Involvement on the Job. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. Journal of Marketing Research, 31, 351-363.
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R., & Boulian, P. B. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59 (5), 603-609.

- Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1981). A causal model of turnover for nurses. Academy of Management Journal, 24 (3), 543-565.
- Rabinowitz, S., & Hall, D. T. (1977). Organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 84, 265-288.
- Reichers, A. E. (1985). A review and reconceptualization of organizational commitment. Academy of Management Review, 10, 465-476.
- Reynierse, J. H., & Harker, J. B. (1991). Employee and customer perceptions of service in banks: Teller and customer service representative ratings. Human Resource Planning, 15 (4), 31-46.
- Sager, J. K., & Johnston, M. W. (1989). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment: A study of salespeople. Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 9, 30-41.
- Saleh, S. D. (1981). A structural view of job involvement and its differentiation from satisfaction and motivation. International Review of Applied Psychology, 30, 17-29.
- Saleh, S. D., & Hosek, J. (1976). Job involvement: Concepts and measurements. Academy of Management Journal, 19, 213-224.
- SAS Institute Inc. (1989). SAS/STAT Users Guide, Version 6. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.
- Saxe, R. (1979). The customer orientation of salespeople. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Saxe, R., & Weitz, B. A. (1980). The customer orientation of salespeople: Measurement and test of contingent relationship to performance (Paper No. 96). Los Angeles: University of California, LA, Center for Marketing Studies.
- Saxe, R., & Weitz, B. A. (1982). The SOCO scale: A measure of the customer orientation of salespeople. Journal of Marketing Research, 19, 343-351.
- Schlesinger, L. A., & Heskett, J. L. (1991). Enfranchisement of service workers. California Management Review, 33 (4), 83-100.

- Schneider, B., & Bowen D. E. (1985). Employee and customer perceptions of service in banks: Replication and extension. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, 423-433.
- Schneider, B., & Bowen, D. E. (1993). The service organization: Human resources management is crucial. Organizational Dynamics, 21 (4), 39-52.
- Schneider, B., Hall, D., & Nygren, H. (1971). Self image and job characteristics as correlates of changing organizational identification. Human Relations, 24, 397-416.
- Shore, L. M., Newton, L. A., & Thornton, G. C., III. (1990). Job and organizational attitudes in relation to employee behavioral intentions. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11, 57-67.
- Shostack, G. L. (1977). Breaking free from product marketing. Journal of Marketing, 41, 73-80.
- Siegel, A., & Ruh, R. (1973). Job involvement, participation in decision-making, personal background and job performance. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 9, 318-329.
- Slater, S. F., & Narver, J. C. (1992). Market orientation, performance, and the moderating influence of competitive environment (Report No. 92-118). Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.
- Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68, 653-663.
- Smith, P., Kendall, L., & Hulin, C. (1969). The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement: A Strategy for the Study of Attitudes. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Sparrowe, R. T. (1994). Empowerment in the hospitality industry: An exploration of antecedents and outcomes. Hospitality Research Journal, 17, (3), 51-73.

- Sparrowe, R. T. (1995). The effects of organizational culture and leader-member exchange on employee empowerment in the hospitality industry. Hospitality Research Journal, 19, (1), 95-109.
- Spector, P. E. (1986). Perceived control by employees: A meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work. Human Relations, 39 (11), 1005-1016.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Individual empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. Academy of Management Journal, 38 (5), 1442-1465.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1996). Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. Academy of Management Journal, 39 (2), 483-504.
- Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcome of organizational commitment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 22, 46-56.
- Sternberg, L. E. (1992). Empowerment: Trust vs. control. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 33, (1), 69-72.
- Stevens, J. M., Beyer, J. M., & Trice, H. (1978). Assessing personal, role and organizational predictors of managerial commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 21 (3), 380-396.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation. Academy of Management Review, 15, 666-681.
- Umstot, D. D., Mitchell, T. R., & Bell, C. H. (1978). Goal setting and job enrichment: An integrated approach to job design. Academy of Management Review, 3, 867-879.
- Vroom, V. H. (1962). Ego-involvement, job satisfaction, and job performance. Personal Psychology, 15, 159-177.
- Welsch, H. P., & La Van, H. (1981). Inter-relationships between organizational commitment and job characteristics, job satisfaction, professional behavior, and organizational climate. Human Relations, 34 (12), 1079-1089.

- Wiener, Y., & Vardi, Y. (1980). Relationships between job, organization, and career commitments and work outcomes-an integrative approach. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 26, 81-96.
- Wiley, J. W. (1991). Customer satisfaction: A supportive work environment and its financial cost. Human Resource Planning, 14 (2), 117-127.
- Williams, L. J., & Hazer, J. T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: A reanalysis using latent structural equation models. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71 (2), 219-231.
- Williams, M. R., & Attaway, J. S. (1996). Exploring salesperson's customer orientation as a mediator of organizational culture's influence on buyer-seller relationships. Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 16 (4), 33-52.
- Wray, B., Palmer, A., & Bejou, D. (1994). Using neural network analysis to evaluate buyer-seller relationships. European Journal of Marketing, 28 (10), 32-48.
- Zahra, S. A. (1984). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment: An integrative approach. Akron Business and Economic Review, 15 (3), 26-32.
- Zeithaml, V., & Bitner, M. J. (1996). Services Marketing. New York, NY: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Zikmund, W. G. (1997). Business Research Methods. Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.

APPENDIX

THE FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

May 26, 1998

Dear Participant:

The attached survey is designed to improve our understanding of the current levels of customer orientation among hospitality employees as well as the factors that influence the customer orientation. Your cooperation and participation are critically important to the results of this study. Also, this will help in completing our studies of Virginia Tech.

There are no right or wrong answers in this survey. We want to know your personal opinion. All of your answers will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only in combined statistical form.

Please read carefully the directions at the beginning of each part, and answer all the questions as accurately as possible. We greatly appreciate your prompt response!

Thank you for your time and cooperation!

Sincerely,

Jaek Jun
Ph.D. Candidate
Virginia Tech

Mahmood A. Khan, Ph.D.
Professor and Department Head
Virginia Tech

PART I. The statements below describe various ways a restaurant employee might act with customers. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number that most closely describes your attitudes. Use the following scale as a reference for your response.

1 = Strongly Disagree	4 = Neither Disagree nor Agree	7 = Strongly Agree
2 = Moderately Disagree	5 = Slightly Agree	
3 = Slightly Disagree	6 = Moderately Agree	N/A = Not Applicable

	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>							<u>Strongly Agree</u>	
1. I try to give customers an accurate expectation of what our restaurant's services can do for them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
2. I try to get customers to discuss their needs with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
3. I imply to a customer that something is beyond my control when it is not.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
4. I try to influence a customer by information rather than by pressure. .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
<hr/>									
5. I try to help customers achieve their goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
6. I answer customer questions about our service procedures as correctly as I can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
7. I pretend to agree with customers to please them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
8. I try to figure out what a customer's needs are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
<hr/>									
9. Good employees have to have the customer's best interests in mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
10. I offer the service that is best suited to the customer's needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
11. I paint too rosy a picture of our restaurant services to make them sound as good as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
12. I try to achieve my goals by satisfying customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	
13. I try to find out which restaurant services would be most helpful to a customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A	

PART II. Listed below are a number of orientation people can have with respect to their work roles. Please indicate the extent to which you believe each is true with respect to your work role. Circle one number per statement using the following scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree		5 = Slightly Agree
2 = Moderately Disagree	4 = Neither Disagree nor Agree	6 = Moderately Agree
3 = Slightly Disagree		7 = Strongly Agree

- | | Strongly
Disagree | | | | | | Strongly
Agree |
|---|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------|
| 1. The work I do is very important to me..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. The work I do is meaningful to me..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. I am confident about my ability to do my job..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| 5. I am self-assured about my capability to perform my work activities..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| 9. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom
in how I do my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. My impact on what happens in our restaurant is large..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. I have a great deal of control over what happens in our restaurant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. I have significant influence over what happens in our restaurant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

PART III. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number that most closely describes how you feel. Use the following scale as a reference for your response.

1 = Strongly Disagree	4 = Neither Disagree nor Agree	5 = Slightly Agree
2 = Moderately Disagree		6 = Moderately Agree
3 = Slightly Disagree		7 = Strongly Agree

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I'm really a perfectionist about my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I live, eat, and breathe my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<hr/>							
5. I am very much involved personally in my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Most things in life are more important than work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally							
8. expected in order to help this organization be successful.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great							
organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<hr/>							
10. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to							
keep working for the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way							
of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<hr/>							
14. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for							
over others I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I really care about the fate of this organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for							
which to work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part IV. Please indicate how much you are satisfied or dissatisfied with the six facets of job satisfaction by circling the number that most closely describes how you feel, where 1 is “extremely dissatisfied,” and 7 is “extremely satisfied.”

	Extremely Dissatisfied						Extremely Satisfied
1. Your overall job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Your co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Your supervisor(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Your pay.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Your opportunities for promotion with this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Your organization’s customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part VIII. Please complete the following demographic information, giving your best estimate where exact answers are not known. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and will only be used by the researcher for statistical purposes.

1. Are you: Male Female

 2. What is the highest level of education you have completed? (Check one.)
 Less than high school High school Some college
 College graduate Graduate school

 3. Your employment status is: Full-time employee Part-time employee

 4. Your present job title is:
 Bartender Bus person Cashier
 Cook Dishwasher Expeditor
 Host/Hostess Wait/Waitress Other kitchen crew
 Other (specify _____)

 5. How long have you worked in:
 the restaurant industry? _____years _____months
 this organization? _____years _____months
 your current job? _____years _____months

 6. Does your restaurant offer formal training on customer satisfaction or customer orientation to you?
 Yes No If so, how many hours of training do you have? _____ hours
-

THANK YOU!

I really appreciate your time and effort in filling out this questionnaire. If you would like to make any comments or suggestions, please indicate them below.

VITA

Jaekyoon Jun

Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
362 Wallace Hall
Blacksburg, VA 24061-0429

EDUCATION

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University,
Blacksburg, Virginia
Ph. D., Hospitality and Tourism Management
Dissertation title: "An Exploratory Model of the Relationship
between Empowerment, Job Involvement, Job Satisfaction,
Organizational Commitment, and Customer Orientation
in the Hospitality Industry" | August 1995 – December 1998 |
| Florida International University,
Miami, Florida
M.S., Hotel and Foodservice Management
Thesis title: "U.S. Meeting Planners Perception of
South Korea as an International Destination" | August 1993 – August 1995 |
| State University of New York at Buffalo
Buffalo, New York
M.A., Political Science | August 1988 – September 1990 |
| Pusan National University
Pusan, South Korea
B.A., History | March 1979 – February 1987 |

TEACHING AND RESEARCH EXPERIENCES

August 1998 – December 1998	Instructor Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Taught Restaurant Franchising (HTM 4984)
May 1998 – August 1998	Instructor Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Taught Field Study (HTM 2964/4964)
January 1998 – May 1998	Instructor Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Taught Restaurant Franchising (HTM 4984)
May 1997 – August 1997	Research Assistant American Hotel & Motel Association, Washington, D.C. Assistant to Dr. Mahmood A. Khan for project title: “Use of Technology in Hotels and Its Effect on Customer Satisfaction”
August 1996 – December 1997	Graduate Teaching Assistant Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Assistant to Dr. Mahmood A. Khan

WORKING AND ACTIVITIES

Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (CHRIE), Member	January 1997 – December 1999
Green Garden Restaurant, Virginia Tech Dining Coordinator	January 1997 – May 1997
Donaldson Brown Hotel and Conference Center, Virginia Tech, Internship	August 1995 – December 1995

SMART (Sales & Marketing Action Resource Team),
FIU, Member

August 1994 – December 1994

U.S. 8th Army, Camp Humphreys, South Korea
General Clerk

December 1982 – February 1985

RESEARCH IN PROGRESS

Jun, J., & McCleary, K. (1998). Classifying U.S. Association Meeting Planners based on International Destination Selection Criteria. Under the second review for *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

Jun, J., & Khan, M. (1998). Antecedents of Employee Customer Orientation in the Restaurant Industry. Work in progress. Targeted at the *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*.

NON-REFEREED PUBLICATIONS

Jun, J. (1996). Case Study of Wendy's International Inc. Published by Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University