2016

Work Breaks, Employee Morale, and Satisfaction in the Restaurant Industry

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

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by

Laura Anne Oliver

MA, Webster University, 2011

BS, Hawaii Pacific University, 2008

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management – Human Resource Management

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Abstract

Work breaks during an individual's shift can be a powerful motivational tool for management; however, not all individuals receive breaks during their shifts. The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore how work breaks affect employee morale and satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. The questions explored in this study were related to the breaks effect employee satisfaction and morale in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Thirteen participants with a minimum of 5 years' experience as wait staff who worked more than 6 hours per day were interviewed using semi structured interviews. The results were analyzed using a modified version of van Kaam's method and MAXqda software. The results suggested that breaks did not directly affect employee satisfaction and morale; however, management style directly affected employee satisfaction and morale. The results from this study may help managers have a better understanding of how their interactions and dealings with employees affect employee satisfaction and morale. This research may spur a field-changing management training, which could promote positive social change for employees.

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Dedication

This study is dedicated to my husband, Paul, and two children, Patricia and Anthony. To my wonderful children, Patricia and Anthony, thank you for being patient with me and understanding when I had to work on this study for the last two years. To my dearest husband, Paul Oliver, without your constant support, love, guidance, patience, and faith in me, this milestone would not be possible. Thank you for believing in me, pushing me, and always being there for me. This great accomplishment would not have happened without my awesome support system.

Acknowledgments

First, I'd like to thank God for giving me the patience, guidance, energy, and courage to start and complete this journey.

Next, thank you to my committee members: Dr. Steven Tippins, my committee chair and subject expert; Dr. Godwin Igien, the method expert on my committee; and Dr. Diane Stottlemyer, my URR, for your guidance, support, and direction during this study. I will be forever grateful to you all!

To my wonderful family and friends who have made this journey with me, thank you for your support and encouragement. Special thanks to my best friend, Leslie Boyce, for all the encouragement you gave me. To my father-in-law, John Oliver, thank you for helping with the kids during my residencies. To my step-father, Paul Lukowich, and my mother, Patricia Lukowich, without your constant support and help with the kids (especially for the last two chapters), this paper would not be finished today. Last, to my husband and children, I will be forever grateful for your love, patience, and understanding!

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Foundation of the Study

Numerous employment laws have been enacted since the 1960s to help

employees create improved, safer work environments (Brooks, Dougherty, & Price,

2015). Although federal, state, and local governments have addressed several safety

concerns, few existing laws address breaks during the workday (Barker, 2014). An area

of concern for individuals in the workplace is the need for employees to take breaks

during their workday to recoup energy, stamina, and drive (Smith, 2013; Fritz, Demsky,

Lin, & Guros, 2013). Most studies on employee safety have focused on the service

industry (Easton, 2014), administrative positions (Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal,

2014), and manufacturing (Tucker, 2003). Research on breaks in the restaurant industry

is scarce.

In this study, I reviewed research on employee morale, satisfaction, work-time

breaks, and other work conditions, and I found a gap in the literature. I will discuss the

problem statement, along with the purpose of the study. The research questions and

conceptual framework follow. I then discuss the nature of the study, definition of terms,

assumptions, and scope and delimitations. Finally, I address the limitations and

significance of the study.

Background

Many aspects of an employee's work life are influenced by federal law, except for

rest and lunch breaks. During the early part of the 20th century, employer atrocities

spurred the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) in 1938 (Lavin & DiMichele, 2016). This

law addressed minimum wage and rules for overtime pay, defined a workweek, included provisions for child labor, and required paperwork for employees in the workplace (Lavin & DiMichele, 2016). In the 1960s, lawmakers attempted to limit discrimination in the workplace based on race, gender, religion, skin color, national origin, and age (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016). In the 1970s, new laws protected pregnant women and individuals with disabilities (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016). In the 1990s, laws were strengthened for individuals with disabilities (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2016).

Work breaks are monitored by the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL), but only to the extent that breaks may be paid or unpaid and not from mandates. At the state level, fewer than half of the states have laws regulating the two types of employee breaks: rest breaks and lunch breaks (Segal, 2013). *Rest breaks* are typically defined as breaks of 20 minutes or shorter during the workday. *Lunch* or *meal breaks* are typically breaks that are 30 minutes or longer. California has been a trendsetter with regard to state law and legal challenges to work breaks. Suchyta (2014) recognized the need for additional research to compel additional "legislation and litigation" on the topic (p. S-4).

Many researchers have examined work breaks during the workday and their effects on employees. Trougakos et al. (2014) studied how employees recover from their workday during lunch breaks. Tucker (2003) studied the effects that work breaks have on accidents, fatigue, and performance. Bechtold, Janaro, and De Witt (1984) addressed the effects that work breaks have on production. Binnewies, Sonnetag, and Mojza (2009) and Demerouti, Bakker, Sonnentag, and Fullagar (2012) studied recovery and job

performance. Dababneh, Swanson, and Shell (2001) addressed the effects that rest breaks have on workers' well-being. More recently, Sung Doo et al. (2014) studied the effects of on line work breaks and how they affected employee performance. However, research is scarce on work breaks in the restaurant industry and their effects on employee motivation and morale.

Problem Statement

The lack of rest or lunch breaks during a typical workday contributes to decreased employee morale and satisfaction (Baltazar, 2014; Robison, 2012; Trougakos et al., 2008). In light of sparse literature on the topic, more research is needed to understand the effects that breaks have on individuals in the restaurant industry in particular. Results may be useful to leaders in the restaurant industry and other industries and may help develop field-changing management training.

Many people falsely assume that breaks during the workday are regulated by federal or state law or corporate social responsibility (CSR). The only federal regulation is that if a break is shorter than 30 minutes, the employer must pay the employee; breaks of 30 minutes or longer can be unpaid (Lau, Albright, & Collis, 2013; Segal, 2013). Only 21 states regulate lunch or meal breaks (Suchyta, 2014), and only seven states regulate rest breaks during the workday (Suchyta, 2014).

The federal government has only loosely defined what *paid* and *unpaid break*s (Lau et al., 2013; Segal, 2013). Dababneh et al. (2001) defined a *lunch break* as 30 minutes and *rest breaks* as 3, 9, and 15 minutes. Bechtold et al. (1988) described a *rest break* as 15 minutes. Based on the loose definition of the U.S. DOL (2016) and other

researchers' definitions (Bechtold el at., 1988; Dababneh et al., 2001), a *rest break* is defined in this study as a paid break lasting 5–20 minutes; any unpaid break that lasts 30 minutes or longer is a *lunch break*.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore how work breaks affect employee morale and satisfaction in the casual and fine dining industry. Vagle (2014) suggested that researchers use phenomenological studies to better understand certain phenomena.

According to Murphy, DiPietro, Rivera, and Muller (2009), employee morale and satisfaction have a significant effect on turnover. With an approximate rate of 82% each year, turnover is one of the most serious issues facing the restaurant business (Murphy et al., 2009). Thus, it is important for the industry to learn how to keep employees and reduce turnover rates. Previous research has shown that an increase in job satisfaction creates less turnover (Hur & Adler, 2011; Murphy et al., 2009; Weyant, 2009) and reduces the cost of locating, hiring, and training new employees.

Research Questions

I explored the following research questions in this study:

1. What is the impact of breaks on employee morale in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry?

2. What is the impact of breaks on employee satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry?

The interview questions were as follows:

1. How many years of experience do you have in the restaurant industry?

2. How many different serving positions have you held?

3. How would you describe a typical day working as a server?

4. Do you get a break during your shift? When? How long? Why or why not?

5. Do you feel satisfied with working in the restaurant industry?

6. Do you feel your morale at work is good or bad?

7. What could your employer do to increase your satisfaction?

8. What could your employer do to increase your morale?

9. When you get breaks during your shift, does it help your morale improve?

10. When you get breaks during your shift, does it help your satisfaction improve?

Conceptual Framework

In this study, I used phenomenological theory, using Herzberg's two-factor theory (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011), as the main qualitative design. In keeping with Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation and hygiene factors (Buble et al., 2014; Dartey-Baah. 2011; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011), I explored intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Buble et al., 2014). Intrinsic factors, such as employee satisfaction and morale, are internal factors located within the individual that "produce satisfaction" (Cinar, Bektas, & Aslan, 2011, p. 691) and help motivate. Extrinsic factors, such as breaks given by management, are external factors located outside an individual, typically associated with managers (Cinar et al., 2011).

Herzberg's theory provides a better understanding of how employee satisfaction and morale are affected by breaks, or the lack thereof. With turnover rates being one of the most important problems in the restaurant industry (Murphy et al., 2009), I designed this study to help employers understand how employee satisfaction and morale affect the turnover, which in turn may help improve human resource practices and improve employee satisfaction and morale. One way to combat high turnover rates is to use Herzberg's two-factor theory to help motivate employees both internally and externally.
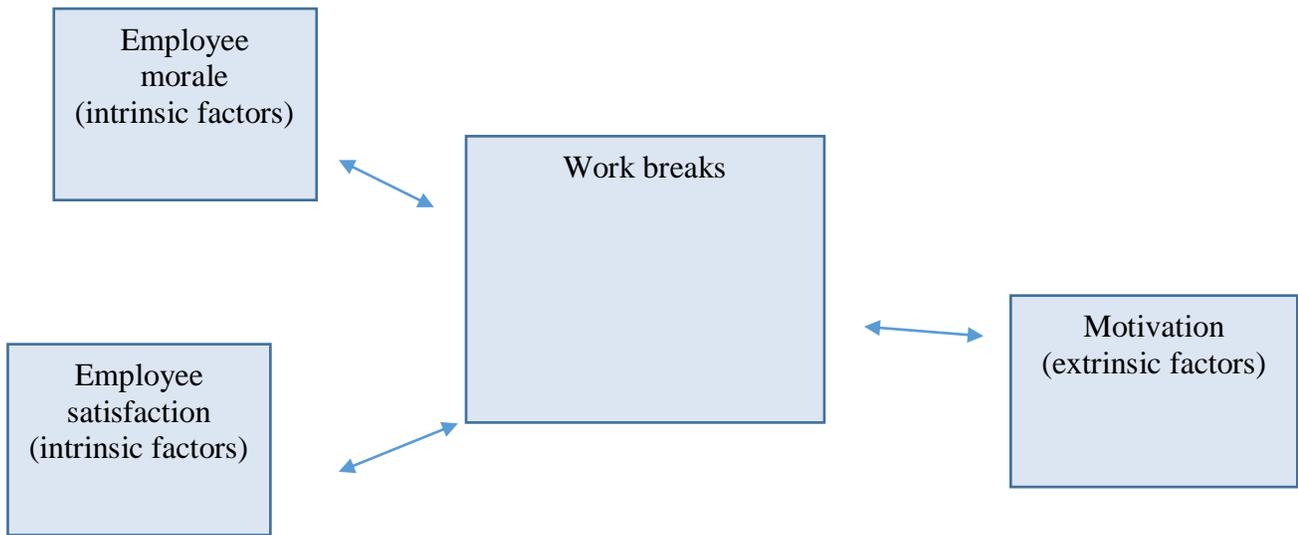
Figure 1. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors that can be affected by breaks.

Nature of the Study

I used a qualitative method because I examined a social issue (Schwandt, 2015), which requires a more flexible (Astalin, 2013) approach than quantitative research could provide (Maxwell, 2013). In addition, Astalin (2013) stated that qualitative research is preferred when trying to understand "a social or cultural phenomena" (p. 118), whereas quantitative research attempts to understand data based on objective methods. The

philosophical assumption that was used is ontological because ontological communicates reality. Real-world experience needed to be captured from the participants. I collected data were through the main data collection tools used in qualitative research: video-chat interviews, member checks, and other means of fieldwork in the restaurant industry (Patton, 2015). Statistics were not appropriate for this study, and a small sample tested will not necessarily help others, which excluded quantitative methods (Patton, 2015) for this project.

A phenomenological design is used to study how an individual experiences a phenomenon, given their experience (Vagle, 2014). Understanding how something is experienced through the eyes of an individual living a phenomenon explains the "lifeworld" (Vagle, 2014, p. 22) rather than the world that is measured, correlated, and categorized. Individuals provided their version of events or situations, which in turn helped have a better understanding how things manifest and appear to individuals in the restaurant industry.

I considered other qualitative methods for this project; however, I rejected them for various reasons. I considered grounded theory, but the main premise behind this theory was to set new "theory of social phenomena" (Schwandt, 2015, p. 131). Based on past research, I rejected this method because theory already exists regarding breaks in the workplace. I also considered ethnography to study how a certain culture behaves (Schwandt, 2015)—here, waiters and waitresses in the restaurant industry. However, I rejected this method. I did not study the culture of the individuals; instead, I explored

how individuals react to breaks versus no breaks during a work shift lasting more than 6 hours.

Definitions

Employee morale – Along with job satisfaction, morale is developed by an employee's attitude of the organization in which he or she works (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013).

Employee satisfaction – An employee's positive emotional state about his or her work environment (Mahmood, Attiq, & Azam, 2014).

Fatigue – Loss of alertness, energy, and motivation during the work day (Subramanyam, Muralidhara, & Pooja, 2013).

Herzberg's two-factor theory – Research-backed theory that states that certain job factors cause job satisfaction, while others cause job dissatisfaction (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011).

Hygiene factors – Also referred to as *environmental factors* or *extrinsic factors*, the factors not directly related to the job but that still have an effect on an employee (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011).

Lunch break – Rest periods during the workday lasting a minimum of 30 minutes during which an employee is relieved from all work duties and receives no pay for the time (Segal, 2013; U.S. DOL, 2016).

Motivation – "Establishing goal-oriented behavior" (Buble, Juras, & Matic, 2014, p. 166).

Motivational factors – Also referred to as *intrinsic factors*, these are factors in the workplace that are directly related to job (Dartey-Baah & Amoaka, 2011).

Rest break – Rest periods during the work day lasting between 5 and 20 minutes and that are paid for by the company (Segal, 2013).

Restaurant industry – Single unit, independently owned facilities (Weyant, 2009).

Turnover – When individuals leave a place of employment and another individual must be trained or moved into a position to fill the vacancy (Soltis, Agneessens, Sasovova, & Labianca (2013).

Assumptions

Understanding and addressing the assumptions is vital to any research project (Davis, 2013). Assumptions are "explicit mental acts" (Weidenfeld, 2011, p. 234) in which an individual assumes the answer is already known. It also helps to focus on validity (Weidenfeld, 2011) by bringing forward the assumptions that the researcher has. The researcher can then create validity checks to ensure the collected data are valid.

I undertook the study with eight assumptions regarding the participants:

• Individuals wanted to participate in this study.

• Participants were honest in their answers.

• Managers were forth coming with honest information.

• All participants would participate fully to achieve a 100% participation rate.

• Managers and employees would have different answers to similar questions.

• Face-to-face (via video call) unstructured interviews would be the best method to collect data for processing.

• Participants would not feel pressured into giving a certain answer or response.

• Participants would be too busy to receive breaks during a minimum of one shift a week.

Scope and Delimitations

One of the areas in which quantitative and qualitative methods differ is in the sampling size. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative methods, including phenomenology, do not require a select percentage of the population (Berg & Lune, 2012); instead, researchers look for purposive sampling instead of random sampling (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). In addition, although there is no general rule (Patton, 2015, p. 228) for qualitative sampling size, Hill and Williams (2012) recommended a sample size between 12 and 15 participants because this number has been shown to show consistency with results regarding participants' answers. Therefore, 13 individuals participated.

Interviews are the main instrument for qualitative data collection (Patton, 2015); however, I used triangulation to validate any findings (Miles et al., 2014; Patton, 2015). I asked questions regarding participants' workplace environment, their satisfaction at work, their morale, and how their breaks affected their morale and satisfaction. The 13 participants were a mix of males and females with at least 5 years of restaurant experience and included both managers and wait staff. My requirement for at least 5 years of restaurant experience ensured that participants had adequate experience within the field to answer the interview questions.

Limitations

Limitations in research pertain to the potential weaknesses (Simon, 2011) that are out of a researcher's control during a study, which can occur regardless of the method used (Patton, 2015). Limitations should be stated so readers can have a full understanding of the circumstances under which the study was conducted (Patton, 2015). Other researchers replicating a similar study can benefit from knowing the limitations. To ensure the data collected were valid, I used triangulation during the data collection and processing portion, by using interviews, voice recordings, and member checking.

Although the restaurant industry offers many avenues for research, this study was limited to studying employee satisfaction and morale only. All interviewees were actively working within a 50-mile radius of Clarksville, Tennessee, and had 5 or more years of experience as servers. As a result, responses are limited by how breaks are given in this region, by employee expectations, and by Tennessee laws.

Significance

Understanding the significance of a study is imperative to conducting a successful research project (Maxwell, 2013). This study was designed to fill in a gap in research regarding employee breaks in the restaurant industry. The study is significant to the following: practice in the human resources (HR) profession and restaurant industry; theory, which includes qualitative phenomenology; and social change.

Significance to Practice

Understanding what drives an employee's loyalty and his or her job satisfaction is an important part of organizational goals. Mahmood et al. (2014) examined the effects of

an "individual's motivational factors" (p. 149) with regard to employee satisfaction. Van Scheers and Botha (2014) examined the perceptions of job satisfaction of employees in the retail industry to measure the relationship between job satisfaction and employee motivation. However, there has been little linkage between rest and lunch breaks with regard to employee motivation, which I examined.

No federal laws mandate work breaks (Gurchiek, 2011). The purpose of breaks is not merely to treat employees well; breaks can help motivate employees, which can increase employee morale and satisfaction (Bechtold et al., 1984; Dababneh et al., 2001; Trougakos et al., 2014). Research shows that employees who are unhappy are less productive: they tend to do only the bare minimum, and their attention to detail and customers suffer (Robison, 2012). These issues are relevant to the HR community, because humans are the greatest resource an organization can have (Onyema, 2014). Thus, HR professionals must look for ways to improve employee morale and satisfaction.

Significance to Theory

Many researchers have studied breaks in the workplace, with the majority of the research being conducted in the manufacturing area (Bechtold et al., 1984; Onyema, 2014; Trougakos et al., 2008, 2014). Implementing work breaks during the workday helps employees maximize productivity (Bechtold et al., 1984); reduces fatigue (Trougakos et al., 2014); reduces accident risk (Tucker, 2003); and helps employees recover during the workday (Demerouti et al., 2011; Trougakos et al., 2008). A review of the literature showed that in only one study, breaks failed to boost productivity (Fritz, 2012).

This study expands on recent research by looking at the effects of breaks on the restaurant industry. Employers in the industry need to find ways to cut costs and improve customer satisfaction (Gazzoli, Hancer, & Park, 2012; Murphy et al., 2009). Finding ways to improve employees' attitudes can increase customer satisfaction (Gazzoli et al., 2012), which can mean repeat business and increased profits. Moreover, reducing costs is necessary for a business to remain successful. In the restaurant industry, the highest cost facing employers is turnover, which is strongly related to employee satisfaction (Murphy et al., 2009). Given that Americans spend 47% of their money on food (Hur & Adler, 2011), understanding how to keep restaurant employees engaged, motivated, and satisfied is an important research endeavor.

Significance to Social Change

Bringing about positive social change to the world can take place in terms of "goals, objectives, and values" (Bano, 2014, p. 773). Social change is an important part of educational programs (Bano, 2014), including Walden University, and the business world (Singh & Dutch, 2014; Ebrashi, 2013). The effects of social change on a dynamic business world are abundant, and being able to influence and enact positive change is an important part of leadership (Singh & Dutch, 2014). Allowing managers and leaders to use the human resources of a company to enact positive social change is imperative to improving how businesses are run, how they grow, and how they increase their profitability.

This research focused on the effect work breaks have on individual servers in the restaurant industry. The positive social change aspects include potential reductions in

turnover along with increased customer and employee satisfaction and profit margins. Human resources departments and leadership will benefit by knowing if employee breaks can lead to increased employee morale and satisfaction. If restaurant employees describe positive effects of breaks, future mandated work breaks could result in positive social change in the employment world, in addition to field changing management training.

<div align="center">**Summary**</div>

In this chapter, I provided an overview of work breaks in the United States. No federal laws mandate work breaks in the workplace (U.S. DOL, 2016); furthermore, fewer than half the states have laws regulating them (Segal, 2013). A lack of laws can have negative effects on employee morale and satisfaction (Baltazar, 2014; Robison, 2012; Trougakos et al., 2008), which can hurt customers and ultimately lead to decreased profitability and a damaged reputation.

I designed this phenomenological, qualitative study to investigate how work breaks affect employee morale and satisfaction for servers in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Using Herzberg's two-factor theory (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011), I explored intrinsic factors as the motivation factor and extrinsic factors as the hygiene factor (Buble et al., 2014) to see how they affect employee morale and satisfaction. I discussed operational definitions and assumptions, scope, delimitations, and limitations were discussed. Last, I briefly addressed the significance of this study to the HR profession, business leadership, scholarship, and social change.

In the next chapter, I offer a deeper look at the literature on employee breaks. Further details of the research method appear in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, I will detail the

pilot study and the regular study. In Chapter 5, I will discuss the results, conclusions, and

recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this study, I explored how a server's morale and satisfaction are affected by work breaks during a 6-hour or longer shift in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. The main purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore the effects on employee morale and satisfaction when giving servers in casual and fine dining restaurants work breaks during a workday(Hur & Adler, 2011; Iqbal, Yusaf, Munawar, & Naheed, 2012). A subsequent purpose of this study was to determine whether employee morale and satisfaction have a positive or negative effect on the restaurant business. According to Murphy et al. (2009), employee morale and satisfaction have a considerable effect on turnover. The turnover rate of 82% each year is the most serious problem facing the restaurant business (Murphy et al., 2009); therefore, it is important to find if there is a link to increased morale and satisfaction causing less turnover (Hur & Adler, 2011; Murphy et al., 2009; Weyant, 2009), which would help organizations lower turnover costs.

In this chapter, I discuss the search strategy, databases, and key terms, which are followed by the conceptual foundation and the background of the methodological choice. The literature review covers breaks, employee morale, employee satisfaction, and turnover.

Literature Search Strategy

According to Machi and McEvoy (2012), a literature search should consist of "collecting, cataloging, and documenting data" (p. 38). For this literature review I

searched Business Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Complete, Google Scholar, and Emerald Management databases. Initial search terms included *work break, lunch break,* and *rest break,* followed by *work breaks in the restaurant industry*, *lunch breaks in the restaurant industry*, and *rest breaks in the restaurant industry*. Next, I combined the terms *employee morale and employee satisfaction* with *in the restaurant industry.* Then, I combined and used *breaks* and *employee morale and satisfaction* were to find literature that addressed both. Last, I combined *breaks* and *employee morale and satisfaction* with *restaurant industry*, which produced no results. Other terms that I used for the *restaurant industry* included *casual and fining dining restaurant*, *food service*, and *service industry.*

Other terms that I used for the literature were *human resource, human resource management, Herzberg, two-factor theory, qualitative research, phenomenology, motivation, employee motivation,* and *social change.* I combined these terms in many ways. In addition, I initially searched articles regardless of the date of publication and then narrowed to articles written only since 2011.

Conceptual Framework

As previously stated, I used phenomenological theory, using Herzberg's two-factor theory (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Islam & Ali, 2013) as the main qualitative design. In this section, I examine the conceptual framework of qualitative research and phenomenological methods and why I chose them for this project. I discuss Herzberg's two-factory theory in detail in the next section.

Qualitative Research

According to Patton (2015), some studies require "numerical answers; some don't" (p. 13). Quantitative research investigates a problem using counts and measures (Berg & Lune, 2012); qualitative research methods address what, how, when, and where to investigate. Quantitative research uses numerical answers based on variables and statistics (Maxwell, 2013) to explain relationships or data during its experiments. The main data collection used for this method is surveys and experiments (Parylo, 2012), which allows for researchers to use different strategies, such as experimental design and correlation studies (Parylo, 2012).

Rossiter (2008) argued that before the 1960s qualitative research was held as inferior to quantitative methods; however, triangulation has improved the credibility of qualitative research. Triangulation is a method employed in qualitative research wherein a combination of methods are used to collect data during an experiment (Berg & Lune, 2012; Patton, 2015; Vizzuso, 2015). Qualitative research, which became popular in the 1960s, is defined as a nonstatistical way to evaluate, analyze, and interpret data by using techniques such as unstructured open-ended interviews (Patton, 2015), observation, and analyzing written documents to gather data (Patton, 2015; Schwart, 2007). Freeman, Gergen, and Josselson (2015) contended qualitative research found its beginning in the 1960s and was spawned by the civil rights movement and the need to research certain groups based on a more humanistic way than quantitative research methods provided (Freeman et al., 2015). Feminist inquiry, queer theory, and ethnographic methods all emerged at that time (Freeman et al., 2015; Patton, 2015).

Qualitative research differs from quantitative research in many ways. Qualitative researchers, who seek to understand a social or cultural phenomenon (Astalin, 2013), do not know the variables beforehand what and how they are related (Rossiter, 2008). Instead, the variables are discovered organically (Astalin, 2013) during the study. The relationships are then defined during data gathering (Rossiter, 2008). From there, a testable "minitheory" emerges. In this way a qualitative researcher gathers data in real-world situations (Rossiter, 2008).

The second way qualitative and quantitative research differ is in sampling size. Where quantitative research requires a large enough sample to ensure the researcher has enough participants to be able to capture a statistical significance (Miles et al., 2014), qualitative research uses a method that generally requires fewer participants (Miles et al., 2014; Suri, 2011). In purposeful sampling, a researcher gathers enough data regarding an issue to learn the importance of the purpose being researched (Patton, 2015). The appropriate sample size of a study can vary from one person to groups larger than 10 individuals (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013; Miles et al., 2014; Patton, 2015). For this study, a sample of 13 participants was sufficient.

Phenomenological Studies

Astalin (2013) discussed the four most commonly used qualitative research designs: ethnography, grounded theory, case study, and phenomenology. Ethnography, also referred to as cultural anthropology (Patton, 2015; Schwandt, 2015), is used to study the culture of people or a group of individuals who have something of culture in common (Astalin, 2013). Ethnographic research is done with a considerable amount of fieldwork,

in which the researcher emerges himself or herself into the "life" of the culture being studied (Brown, 2013). The fieldwork typically lasts 6 months to a year, which was not conducive to this research project.

Grounded theory focuses on developing new ideas or theories (Patton, 2015; Schwandt, 2015) that are "grounded in data" (Astalin, 2013). In this type of research, researchers have no "predetermined theory" (Astalin, 2013); instead, they use specific steps and procedures (Astalin, 2013), along with fieldwork (Patton, 2015), to explain how the experiences studied generate new knowledge (Astalin, 2013; Patton, 2015). Grounded theory involves using "inductive, deductive, and verification" (Schwandt, 2015) to collect and process the data. Once the data start to come in, a hypothesis is then generated, which spawns new questions to use for data collection (Schwandt, 2015). A new theory or idea was not needed in this study; therefore, this method was ruled out for this study.

Case studies look at a single phenomenon (Schwandt, 2015) and its units, such as people, events, and policies. (Astalin, 2002). The unit being studied is the focus of the study, thereby making it a single case. This method is typically used to answer "how or why questions" (Schwandt, 2015). These questions are not being address in this study, therefore eliminating this method.

Phenomenology focuses on studying "lived experiences" (Abawi, 2012) from the individuals experiencing it. Davis (2013) stated that there is a direct relationship between the phenomenon under investigation and the environment in which it is happening. Often times, this method can influence a researcher to look at the phenomenon a different way and change how questions are asked based on responses and experiences of the

participants (Tomkins & Eatough, 2013). Phenomenology is a method of questioning that allows the researcher to experience or receive a full understanding of what an individual is experiencing (Van Manen, 2014), which is what this research project was designed to accomplish.

According to Weidenfeld (2011), there are three assumptions that accompany phenomenology. The first one relies on the experiences of the individuals, which are referred to as "explicit mental acts" to be relayed to the researcher (Weidenfeld, 2011, p. 234). The second one focuses on the validity of the study and is referred to as "subject/object distinction" (Weidenfeld, 2011, p. 234) because the subject acts as the observer, which was the person conducting the research, and the object acts as the observed, which was the participants . The third assumption is that the data are tied to the intellectualist accounts of the participants, which is referred to as "propositional knowledge" (Weidenfeld, 2011, p. 235).

Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to explore current research with regard to key areas that directly relate to the research question. These topics include Herzberg's two-factor theory; work breaks (including lunch breaks and rest breaks); employee satisfaction; employee morale, motivation, and turnover; and the restaurant industry.

Herzberg Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg's two-factor theory is aligned with Maslow's 1954 hierarchy of needs. Maslow classified the basic needs of individuals into five separate categories: "physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization"

(Lester, 2013, p. 15). Maslow's hierarchy sequenced the level of needs from when a person was born through adulthood (Lester, 2013), whereas Herzberg's two-factor theory applied the levels of needs to the workplace in adulthood (Cinar et al., 2011; Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011). According to Dartey-Baah and Amoako (2011), hygiene factors include physiological, safety and security, and belongingness; and motivation factors include esteem and self-actualization.

In 1959, Herzberg interviewed more than 200 managers in the manufacturing field (Buble et al., 2014; Herzburg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 2010; Smith & Shields, 2013) to collect data on participants' satisfaction and dissatisfaction at work (Smith & Shields, 2013). These were labeled *job attitudes* (Herzberg et al., 2010). At the time of the original study, although the employment rate was near or at 100% in the United States, employee motivation and job satisfaction was very low (as discussed in Herzberg et al., 2010). Herzberg wanted to figure out why job satisfaction was so low and how it could be improved.

During this study, two factors for satisfaction and dissatisfaction were created (Herzberg et al., 2010). The first-level factors focused on the persons being interviewed and their internal or intrinsic feelings and attitudes (Cinar et al., 2011; Herzberg et al., 2010; Hyun & Oh, 2011). These can be described as an "individual's internal process" (Islam & Ali, 2013) that is needed to help them find balance within themselves. Second-level factors fed off the first-level factors (Herzberg et al., 2010) and were referred to as extrinsic or external factors because they were influenced by factors located outside the person themselves, such as in the environment or organization (Buble et al., 2014;

Furnham, Eracleous, & Chamorro-Premuzie, 2009; Herzberg et al., 2010). Both sets of factors measured job satisfaction and job attitude, but separating them into intrinsic and extrinsic factors better explained what actually motivates job satisfaction and employee attitudes (Herzberg et al., 2010). This was due to Herzberg theorizing that a person's level of satisfaction is different than dissatisfaction (Islam & Ali, 2013).

Motivation factors (intrinsic factors). While motivation can have several different meanings, Herzberg's two-factor theory refers to factors that influence an individual's attitude toward his or her job, documented by first-hand accounts of workplace events and personal experiences (Herzberg et al., 2010). Motivation, as "establishing goal-oriented behavior" (Buble et al., 2014, p.166), will be discussed later in this chapter. Intrinsic motivation (IM) factors, as they relate to Herzberg's theory, are important because ultimately they can lead to employee satisfaction and morale (Hyun & Oh, 2011; Smith & Shields, 2012). Motivation is seen as how one motivates themselves, which acts as an internal method within one's self (Islam & Ali, 2013).

Herzberg defined motivation as internal factors, such as achievement, recognition (Pepe, 2011), praise, advancement (Smith & Shields, 2012), and personal needs (Tech-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Individuals need some type of intrinsic motivation to have job satisfaction and success (Raus, 2014). Shin and Kelly (2013) linked self-determination theory with intrinsic factors, in that individuals who use intrinsic factors find self-fulfilling pleasure and satisfaction and use that as motivation to do well. Individuals who lack intrinsic motivation "tend to have unstable goals" (Raus, 2014; Shin & Kelly, 2013, p. 143) and are usually less optimistic than individuals who have intrinsic motivation.

When motivation is intrinsic, it can be created consciously or unconsciously (Raus, 2014), depending on the "wants and desires" (p. 81) of the individual. Intrinsic motivators include achievement, possibility or growth, interpersonal relationship on different levels, responsibility, corporate culture, working conditions, and job security, just to name a few (Herzberg et al., 2010). These factors have a direct effect on how one is motivated because they directly effect how one feels regarding their work.

Hygiene factors (extrinsic factors). Hygiene factors are from external sources, such as culture, salary, employee discontent, policies, working conditions, and job structure (Cnar et al., 2011; Dartet-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Hyun & Oh, 2011; Pepe, 2010). These factors do not motivate an individual to work hard or to have job satisfaction (Pepe, 2010) but contribute to dissatisfaction (Furnham et al., 2009). Dissatisfaction can lead to lower employee morale (Bell, Sutanto, Baldwin, & Holloway, 2014). They can act as a starting point to motivate if dissatisfaction can be minimized (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011) and can help prevent workers' unease (Hyun & Oh, 2011). Thus, hygiene factors do not have less effect than intrinsic factors (Cnar et al., 2011). Both sets of factors need to be emphasized to have a more productive, positive workforce (Cnar et al., 2011).

Outside factors, such as culture, salary, employee discontent, policies, working conditions, and job structure (Cnar et al., 2011; Dartet-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Hyun & Oh, 2011; Pepe, 2010*;) can have a direct effect on an employees' morale, satisfaction (Coughlan, Moolman, & Haarhoff, 2014), and performance (Prajogo & McDermott, 2014). Because external or extrinsic, factors can vary, their true purpose must be

researched (Prajogo & McDermott, 2014). Coughlan et al. (2014) suggested external factors are the easier factors to change because it is easier to change a physical environment than to change someone internally. Coughlan et al. (2014) also listed three extrinsic factors that could help improve an employee's satisfaction at work: trust in the company's leadership, the relationship one has with their supervisors, and how much support leadership gives them (Coughlan et al., 2014).

Work Breaks

Breaks in the employment world are referred to with many terms: break, work break, lunch, meal break, lunch break, smoke break, coffee break, rest break, and so forth. Each term has a different meaning depending on the context in which it is used. According to the U.S. DOL (2016), there are two types of breaks: short breaks and meal breaks. Short breaks typically last 5 to 20 minutes and are paid for by the company (USDOL, 2016; Segal, 2013). Meal breaks are any breaks from work that last at least 30 minutes are paid for by the employer (Segal, 2013; USDOL, 2016). In order for a lunch break to be paid, an employer must ensure that the employee is relieved from all work duties (Segal 2013).

One-third of workers are said to not take breaks during the work day (Gurchiek, 2011) because of their workload. Although some company policies and various state laws require rest or meal breaks or both, many people do not receive them from their direct supervisors, especially when the employees are busy (Hurtado, Nelson, Hashimoto, & Sorensen, 2015). Yet employers who refuse to grant mandated breaks can be terminated, fined, or sued, and in some state cases, they can face criminal sanctions (Barker, 2014). A

ruling in 2014 by California's Supreme Court set a precedent that employers are required only to provide breaks, not make sure the employees actually take them (Suchyta, 2014). For those in the service industry, taking breaks may be difficult because employees are needed, especially during busy time, to ensure the customers are taken care of (Suchyta, 2014). One way this can be addressed is to use staggered breaks, allowing one person to break at a time and having someone to backfill the job while on break (Suchyta, 2014).

Past research has focused on the effect of breaks, or lack thereof, on accident risk, fatigue, and performance (Trougakos et al., 2014; Tucker, 2003). Tucker (2003) studied the relationship between breaks and accident risks, fatigue, and performance in the workplace (Tucker, 2003). Three items were evaluated: (a) if there was any creditable evidence linked accident risks to work breaks, or lack thereof; (b) if accident risk and/or fatigue was decreased during a particular part of a shift; and (c) if rest breaks would help workers increase an employee's productivity. The results showed a positive correlation between regular rest breaks and decreased accident risks as well as increased productivity (Tucker et al., 2003).

Accident risks can be measured by organizing all accidents and near misses and under what circumstances they happened (Tucker, 2003). One major cause of accidents is fatigue (Trougakos et al., 2014; Tucker, 2003; Tucker et al., 2003; Wilkinson & Bell, 2015). Fatigue has been defined as the act of continuous work, whether mental or physical, that adds a drained, tired, weary, and stressed feeling to an individual, thereby reducing their ability to think clearly, react accurately, and/or affects their moods negatively (Coombs, 2015; Robinson, 2014; Wilkinson & Bell, 2015). Many factors can

contribute to fatigue, such as lack of sleep (Coombs, 2015); continuous work without a break (Wilkinson & Bell, 2015); poor planning (Othman, Gouw, & Bhuiyan, 2012); health issues (Coombs, 2015); working conditions such as poor lighting, extreme temperature, noise control, visual activity, and repetitive action (Coombs, 2015); and overworking employees (i.e., consecutive days/weeks) (Wilkinson & Bell, 2005). Researchers have consistently found a negative correlation with high fatigue equaling low performance or below normal performance (Othman et al., 2012; Tucker, 2003; Trougakos et al., 2014; Wilkinson & Bell, 2005).

Tucker (2003) found that driving behaviors are affected differently when an individual takes a break from driving when he or she first feels fatigue versus waiting for a scheduled stop. Individuals who stop when tired recover faster than those who wait for a scheduled break. This type of finding implies that there is a direct link between rest breaks, fatigue, and performance. Recovery for individuals can differ from person to person or job to job. Many studies, including Binnewies et al. (2009), Demerouti et al. (2011), and Trougakos et al. (2008, 2014), have been conducted on workplace recovery at different stages and how it affects job performance and production. Binnewies et al. (2009) studied how coming back to the workplace recovered from the previous workday at the beginning of one's shift has an effect on daily performance. Because employees' performance can have a direct or indirect effect on the organization's goals, companies must understand how recovery and performance are linked to maximize production. Biennewies et al. examined two different types of behaviors: personal initiative and organizational citizenship behavior. Personal initiative is when an employee is proactive

and self-starting in order to approach and exceed expectations that are set by the organization (Biennewies et al., 2009). Organizational citizenship behavior is when an individual helps other individuals within an organization to build and promote relationships, which can lead to interpersonal harmony (Biennewies et al., 2009). Binnewies et al. hypothesized that if individuals come into work fully recovered from the previous shift, then they will have a higher job performance. An initial general survey was used to gather data, and then followed up with five consecutive daily surveys. The results showed there was a positive correlation between an individual being fully recovered from a previous shift and positive daily job performance (Binnewies et al., 2009).

Trougakos et al. (2008) examined how service industry employees use their work breaks to increase workplace performance. Employees who take their breaks completely away from their workplace had a more positive attitude upon returning to the job, which, in turn, increased employee morale and satisfaction (Trougakos et al., 2008). Employees who leave the workplace were able to emotionally disconnect from their work environment and come back after their break feeling refreshed and ready to complete the rest of their day (Smith, 2013). However, researchers have shown that more and more employees are opting to dine at their desk for lunch breaks to help combat performance and productivity pressures on the job (Gurchiek, 2011).

Trougakos et al. (2014) studied how whether an individual spent a break during the workday could dictate if their energy recovered at an increased or decreased rate. The authors wished to test if minimizing fatigue did, in fact, increase an individual's well-

being, as other studies have suggested (Binnewies et al., 2009, Trougakos et al., 2008; Tucker, 2003). As noted above, there are two types of breaks in the workplace: short breaks and meal breaks, although they are referred to in different ways. Short breaks typically last 5 to 20 minutes (Segal, 2013). Meal breaks are any breaks from work that last at least 30 minutes (Segal, 2013). Because meal breaks are typically the longest, this is the best break for employees to use to try to recover from lost energy during the first part of their workday (Trougakos et al., 2014).

With recent studies showing that employees are pressured to take shorter breaks and often time dine at their desks (Gurchiek, 2011; Smith, 2013), it is imperative to understand the link, if any, between breaks and recovery (Trougakos et al., 2014). In the Trougakos et al. (2014) study, 103 participants answered questions for 10 consecutive days regarding relaxing activities, work activities, social activities, break autonomy, and fatigue. Employees who were completely relaxed during their lunch breaks were more likely to be more recovered from the first part of their shift then those who did not fully recover. Those individuals who engaged in work or social activities were not as recovered as those who completely stepped away from the work environment (Trougakos et al., 2014).

Demerouti et al. (2012) studied how daily recovery affects individuals, both at home and at work. Fully recovering from work must be done during work shifts and at home after the work day. Demerouti et al. defined recovery as one of two things. The first is the set of processes can help an individual repair the effects of negative stressor. The second set is the ability to recover energy lost and return it to pre-stressor levels. Eighty-

three Germans and Dutch were surveyed. The questions focused on workflow, recovery during and after breaks, psychological detachment, exhaustion (both at work and home), and vigor at both home and work. Vigor, which was defined as mental strength, had a positive correlation to exhaustion, both at home and at work. The findings also suggested that recovery helps control exhaustion and can positively effect flow (Demerouti et al., 2012).

As noted above, work breaks and improving production are linked to a point where recovery is being maximized (Bechtold et al., 1984; Dababneh et al., 2001). Bechtold et al. (1984) investigated how rest breaks affect production and how, if done correctly, they can maximize production. Dababneh et al. (2001) explored how added rest breaks during the workday can improve production and the well-being of the workforce. In the Bechtold et al. study, different types of recovery and breaks were examined to measure their effects and see which had a greater positive effect to production. Two initiatives can positively effect fatigue: focusing on what caused fatigue and establishing "efficient work-rest policies" (Bechtold et al., 1984, p. 1442). Dababneh et al. used an additional 36-minutes of break time outside the normal 30-minute meal and 2-15 minute rest breaks during the studied work shifts. One group was given twelve 3-minute rest breaks and the other was given four 9-minute rest breaks.

Both of the above studies used quantitative methods to complete their research (Bechtold et al., 1984; Dababneh et al., 2001). Bechtold et al. (1984) founded that it helps an individual's late day fatigue when breaks are taken early in their shifts, which, in turn, leads to higher production for the organization. Dababneh et al. (2001) found that the

regular breaks (one 30-minute meal break and two 15-minute rest breaks) did not have an effect on production; however, when the added frequent short breaks were given, the late-day production numbers were positively affected. One could imply that adding short breaks, especially later in the day, can help improve production, instead of negatively affecting production (Dababneh et al., 2001).

In a grounded theory study, Sung Doo et al. (2014) focused on technology and two types of breaks: on-line breaks and off line breaks. On-line breaks were those that individuals used technology for non-work related activities, such as computers, cell phones, tablets, and so forth. Off-line breaks were those breaks that individuals took using non-technological activities, such as face-to-face conversation, coffee break, smoke break, and so on (Sung Doo et al., 2014). The authors conducted semi structured one-on-one interviews. Sung Doo et al. found that individual and their current situation defined which type of break was more effective, as did age and morale. Breaks taken were dependent on organization policies and norms (Sung Doo et al., 2014).

Hunter & Wu (2016) studied how effort-recovery affects employees at work, utilizing a sampling method. This was done by studying the when, where, and how of different break activities and seeing how they affected the health and wellbeing of the participants. Ninety-five participants were studied and results show that when breaks are taken, participants were better recovered. However, the longer the time in between breaks, the greater the risk to the participant of poor health. This includes increased headaches, eye strain, and back pain (Hunter & Wu, 2016).

Fritz et al. (2013) conducted a study on recovering from work stress, in which work breaks were discussed. However, they went a step further and looked at more than just breaks during the work day. They also looked at vacations, weekends, and at home time (Fritz et al., 2013). The results showed that when an individual can break from work, they have increased positive moods, increased job performance, increase task performance, decreased negative moods, decreased fatigue, and decreased disengagement (Fritz et al., 2013). This means that employees should be encouraged to take breaks, including vacations, understand that a psychological detachment is needed from work for the employee to recover, and understand that everyone's needs to recover are different (Fritz et al., 2013).

In one study, certain breaks were shown to not boost productivity (Fritz, 2012). Fritz (2012) investigated how individuals unwound from work. This included everything from coffee breaks to vacations and from bathroom breaks to meal breaks (Fritz, 2012). Using technology or conducting personal business on a so-called micro break (i.e., coffee break, smoke break, etc.) did not increase productivity. However, when individuals completed job-related tasks and activities on their micro break, the individual's energy and production was increased (Fritz, 2012).

Employee Morale

Employee morale is developed by an employee's attitude of the organization in which he or she works, and goes along with job satisfaction (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013). Employee morale can be defined as the relationship one has with their work and their employer (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013). There are two types of morale: high

and low. High employee morale is when employees are happy and content with their job and the organization they work for. This can lead to increased customer satisfaction, which in turn, can increase profits for the organization (Vozar, 2013).

Low employee morale is when an employee is unhappy with his or her job or employer (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013). Employees with low morale typically are less productive and have a negative attitude, which can translate into poor customer service or a negative demeanor (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013; Jones, 2012; Onyema, 2014; Vozar, 2013). Customers view poor customer service as a company issue because employees not being happy or trained correctly is considered a symptom of poor management and leadership (Jones 2012; Patnik & Kar, 2014). This can, and often does, lead to customers not wanting to do business with that organization, which not only has a negative effect on profits, but can also be damaging for the organization's reputation (Fox, 2013; Pane-Haden & Cooke, 2012)

Organizations need to be concerned with employee morale because studies have shown that when employee morale is high, employee efficiency and work quality are improved (Urosevic & Milijic, 2012). This has a direct effect on whether organizations can meet their goals (Urosevic & Milijic, 2012) and remain competitive (Pane-Haden & Cooke, 2012). Another reason to keep employee morale high is that failing to do so can have a negative effect on an organization's applicant pool (Pane-Haden & Cook, 2012). If an organization's applicant pool is decreased, they may not be able to hire the talent need to complete the job. Keeping employee morale high can be done in many different ways, as will be explained below.

Building trust with employees is another way to foster high employee morale, which has been shown to have a direct effect on employee engagement (Al Mehairi & Zakaria, 2014; McManus & Mosca, 2015). Organizational trust building has been shown to positively affect increased performance and increase employee satisfaction and loyalty (McMantus & Mosca, 2015), which have a direct effect on revenue and turnover (Rizwan & Mukhtar, 2014). Organizational trust is often influenced by an organization's culture (Al Mehairi & Zakaria, 2014). Organizational trust and culture is important to an organization because it directly contributes to the success or failure of the business (Al Mehairi & Zakaria, 2014). Being able to build trust with employees does have the potential to increase the likelihood that an organization will survive in this highly competitive global economy (Al Mehairi & Zakaria, 2014).

Organizational culture can have a remarkable effect on employee morale besides building trust. With regard to customers, the tone is often set by the organizational culture (Jones, 2012), which, as previously stated, has a direct effect on a business' success. When a company is focused on its internal customers (their employees) it shows in the employee's morale and how they treat the external customers of a business (Jones, 2012). Chiloane-Tsoka (2013) found that organizational culture has a direct effect on employee morale: When an organization has a positive culture, the employees have high morale. Many times ethics has an effect on organizational culture and employee morale.

A major factor that affects organizational culture is management. Having management that is not able to motivate or inspire can spur low morale (Swartout, Boykin, Dixon, & Ivanov, 2015). Swartout et al. (2015) discuss the five diseases that can

sink an organization because they contribute to low morale. The five diseases are lack of constancy, weight of maximizing short-time profits, performance reviews, job hoping, and management by quota (Swartout et al., 2015). In order to not be affected by these diseases, management must understand how to properly increase morale in order to be successful.

Ethics (if and how one does the right thing) can affect employee morale because they have a direct effect on an individual's morale. Everyone is faced with ethical dilemmas some point in their career (DeGrassi, Morgan, Walker, Wang, & Sabat, 2012). Often times how an individual view an ethical issue depends on the employee engagement an organization uses (Carter & Baghurst, 2014). When employees feel a connection with their employers they are likely to make better ethical decisions than when they are disengaged (Carter & Baghurst, 2014).

In order to deal with ethical dilemmas, one typically follows four steps: ethical awareness, judgment, intention, and action (DeGrassi et al., 2012; Scharrer, 2015; Sommers-Flanagan & Sommers-Flanagan, 2015). Ethical awareness is being able to know there is an ethical dilemma that needs to be addressed (Scharrer, 2015). Judgment is when an individual evaluates the possible actions that can be taken in the ethical dilemma (DeGrassi et al., 2012). Judgement can be affected by one's morale in the workplace (Scharrer, 2015). Intention is making the decision from possible actions developed in the previous step (DeGrassi et al., 2012). Action is when an individual's final choice is put into action, which can be influenced by one's ego-strength, self-

regulation, and self-efficacy (Scharrer, 2015), which are all affected by workplace morale.

Previous research has found several recommended ways to improve employee morale. Vozar (2013) suggested that ensuring employees are happy is one way to accomplish this, and can be done by making everyone feel like they are part of the team, ensure proper training is done and give recognition where it is due. Another way to improve employee morale is to establish trust between management and staff (McManus & Mosca, 2015; Patnik & Kar, 2014). McManus and Mosca (2015) also discuss that an organization must create a perception of fairness among all employees, provide rewards and recognition for positive and productive workplace behavior; ensure they have proper training; and above all else, set challenging but attainable goals to help increase employee morale.

Another method that has been found to help improve employee morale is servant leadership (Carter & Baghurst, 2014; Jones, 2012). When management uses servant leadership, they use "ethics, customer experience, and employee engagement" (Carter & Baghurst, 2014, p. 453) to influence an organizational culture where managers and subordinates work together for the betterment of the organization (Carter & Baghurst, 2014). This leadership method helps build trust, employee engagement, loyalty, and commitment (Jones, 2012), which has a direct effect on employee morale because it allows all employees to work towards the same goals of the organization (Carter & Baghurst, 2014).

Communication can have a positive effect on employee morale if done correctly (Rawat, Khugshal, & Chaubey, 2015). Having effective communication is being recognized as an essential part of management's duties (Calota, Pirvulescu, & Criotoru, 2015), especially in the service industry (Žemgulienė, 2012). One way to make a positive effect is to ensure that the employee feels like they are truly being heard when they come to management (Rawat et al., 2015). Another way to ensure that management is able to relay a "feeling of engagement and appreciation" (Rawat et al., 2014) to the employees. Poor communication can lead to break in communication and create role ambiguity (Malangwasira, 2013).

Also affecting morale is a CSR, the leaders' commitment to "meet the needs and interests of their stakeholders" (Krainz, 2015, p. 138). Employees are typically recognized as one of the most important vital internal stakeholders of a corporation (Krainz, 2015). By engaging employees in CSR, individuals feel like they are helping the community and world around, which increases their morale at work (Slack, Corlett, Morris, 2015). CSR has been found to not only increase morale, but also increase recruitment, retention, and productivity in the workforce (Slack et al., 2015). When an employee feels fully engaged in the CSR process, he or she has a connection to the organization, which makes employees want to work harder and stay at the company (Slack et al., 2015).

Employee Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees are satisfied (Furnham et al., 2009) and where employees are in a positive emotional state about their

work environment (Mahmood et al., 2014). In other words, employee satisfaction is when an employee is content in their workplace to a point that they achieve a positive emotional state. When this positive emotional state is reached, employees tend to be more successful, which can lead to more production, better quality, and higher profits (Rizwan & Mukhtar, 2014). Managers and organizations need to know how to create a satisfied workforce and how to improve if/when there is not employee satisfaction among workers. Understanding why employees feel dissatisfied is just as important as figuring out how to increase their overall satisfaction.

Employees might not feel satisfied at work for various reasons. One of the most prevalent reasons is that the pressures for high performance are so great that employees do not feel like they truly accomplish anything (Robison, 2012). Employees need to continuously "give up their game" to remain competitive, which is increasing their stress levels and can have a direct effect on production, profits, and job satisfaction (Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009). In order for employees to feel like they are positively contributing to the organization, they must be able to see or measure what they are doing and accomplishing in order to be satisfied (Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009). Herzberg (as cited in Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009, p. 418) showed that satisfaction in the workplace is related to "work content, e.g. achievement, recognition, responsibility," which can contribute to performance—satisfaction issues that are being seen in business today.

Organizations that do not have a good record of open communication have a lower employee satisfaction rate (Rizwan & Mukhtar, 2014). Having open communication, where goals are clearly outlined and the mission of the organization is

blatantly discussed and modeled (Robison, 2012) will increase satisfaction because communication can be linked to trust (Raina & Roebuck, 2014). When an individual has an open communication channel with someone, their trust in that person often increases because they know they have each other's interest in mind. They have confidence that if they go to the individual they trust, action will happen (Raina & Roebuck, 2014). When this form of communication works, it bolsters the trust between these two individuals.

Another reason that employees do not feel satisfied is that they are being asked to do more with less (Robison, 2012), whether it is more work for less pay, increase production with fewer workers, etc. When changes such as more work for less pay are presented in the workplace, it is imperative that organizations find out how to motivate employees to achieve employee satisfaction (Furnham et al., 2009). Motivation has been found to have a direct effect on employee satisfaction (Furnham et al., 2009; van Scheers & Botha, 2014), which can help in situations where employees are taking on more responsibilities with the same pay. It can be something as simple as being respected or praised, or a so-called pat on the back (Robison, 2012).

Another reason is that employees do not feel secure in their jobs so they are trying to overcompensate by working through lunch and other breaks, working more hours and not claiming them, and so forth (Gurcjiek, 2011; Robison, 2012), all of which can lead to burnout. Conversely, researchers have shown that taking breaks during the workday can increase employee satisfaction (Binnewies et al., 2009; Dababneh et al., 2001; Robinson, 2014; Trougakos et al., 2008). This is; however, dependent on how the break time is used (Binnewies et al., 2009; 2001; Robinson, 2014; Trougakos et al., 2008), how many

breaks are given (Dababneh et al., 2001), and when the breaks are given and taken (Dababneh et al., 2001; Trougakos et al., 2008).

Researchers have found a direct link between employees being unhappy or unsatisfied at work and them leaving for another job (Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009), which costs companies millions of dollars each year in recruitment, selection and training/retraining (Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009; Kessler, 2014). When employees are unhappy or dissatisfied at work, they become less interested in completing their work (Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009), and when they do not feel valued or effective they voluntarily leave (Kessler, 2014). Being able to find out why employees are dissatisfied is imperative to keep valued employees and retain their knowledge, experience, and expertise (Kessler, 2014). Some reasons why employee satisfaction is low are: compensation (pay and benefits), the organizational culture, the job asked to perform, lack of employee commitment/connection, and management styles (Kessler-Ladelski & Catana, 2013).

As previously stated, employee satisfaction can be affected by organizational culture. Organizational culture can be defined as the culture that is perpetuated by how an organization and their employees behave, what policies and procedures they have, how those policies and procedures are follow by all within the company, and how employees are treated, or perceived to be treated (Parzinger, Lemons, & McDaniel, 2012). Studies have been done that link how an organization acts and employee satisfaction (Aydin & Ceylan, 2011; Lee, Lee, & Schniederjans, 2011; Parzinger et al., 2012). Organizations with positive cultures have a higher employee satisfaction rating than those organizations

that have negative cultures (Aydin & Ceylan, 2011). The culture of an organization can be viewed as a social network that helps to motivate employees to have higher production rates and/or customer satisfaction (Lee et al., 2011).

When an employee feels a connection to an organization, which can be facilitated by its culture, the employee develops a sense of loyalty to the organization (Lee et al., 2011). This sense of loyalty inspires the employees to work together towards a common goal of success (Aydin & Ceylan, 2011). According to Parzinger et al. (2012), when an employee does not "fit" (p. 40) into an organization, there is no connection or loyalty, which results in them being less productive than they are capable of being. Therefore, it should be a priority of an organization to foster an organizational culture that promotes unity, common goals, and high employee satisfaction (Aydin & Ceylan, 2011; Lee et al., 2011).

An important relationship that organizations must pay attention to is the effect pay and/or benefits have on employee satisfaction. This relationship is based on whether employees feel that they are being paid what they are worth (Schreurs, Guenter, Schumacher, Van Emmerik, & Notelaers, 2013), which is the basis for equity theory. Organizations must ensure that the amount being paid to employees for the work they do is considered a fair wage for the level of productivity they want (Ruiz-Palomino, Sáez-Martínez, & Martínez-Cañas, 2013). Often times employees' perception is what an organization must worry about (Iqbal et al., 2012). It is necessary for an organization to conduct research to have a good understanding what is considered a reasonable wage to pay in order to ensure employee satisfaction is met.

Research shows that when employees consider pay acceptable they have an increased feeling of contentment in the workplace (Tremblay, Vandenberghe, & Doucet, 2013). When employees are satisfied, they have greater commitment and a sense of belonging to the organization, which helps production (Schreurs et al., 2013). When employees feel like they are not making what they are worth or what their job function is worth, there is a low employee satisfaction rate and workers are not content (Tremblay et al., 2013). Businesses that have low employee satisfaction rates have larger turnover rates (Rizwan & Mukhtar, 2014), which ultimately affect the profits.

The restaurant industry accounts for approximately 47% of food sales in the United States, which makes it one of the largest industries (Hur & Adler, 2011) and employers (Weyant, 2009) in the nation. It also has the some of the highest turnover rates in the nation (Weyant, 2009). Weyant (2009) found that factors contributing to poor employee satisfaction in the workplace were "low pay, high turnover, and long hours" (p. 86). These factors also had an effect on customer satisfaction because when individuals are not happy, then tend to not do their job efficiently or effectively, which affects the service they render (Weynat, 2009). This can translate into poor customer service, which then makes the customers dissatisfied (Gazzoli et al., 2012). This has a ripple effect that can portray a restaurant in a negative light, which can be detrimental to their brand image (Hur & Adler, 2011). Therefore, it is imperative for restaurants to do what they can to instill positive employee satisfaction in their workforce because it can have a direct effect on their customers (Hur & Adler, 2011).

Motivation

One of the key elements that employee satisfaction and employee morale share is motivation. Motivation is when goal-oriented behavior is established (Buble et al., 2014) to accomplish desired goals (Raus, 2014). There are many different forms of motivation, some are external and some are internal. External, or extrinsic, is when an individual is motivated to complete a task by an outside source (Ismail & Nakkache, 2014) such as an organization, a community, supervisors and so forth. Internal, or intrinsic, is when an individual is motivated to complete a task by something in themselves or for gain (Raus, 2014), such as money, satisfaction, and recognition. Regardless the form, motivation is when an individual is energized, inspired, and encouraged to complete a task (Canar et al., 2011). Motivation is an important part of life, especially in the business world.

Three well-known and well-studied theories of motivation are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, and Herzberg's two-factor theory. Maslow's hierarchy of needs involves five levels of needs that motivates individual in life: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization (Cao et al., 2013; Guillen, Ferrero, & Hoffman, 2015; Lester, 2013). Physiological is the most basic set of needs and is at the bottom of the pyramid. It pertains to basic needs such as food, water, and shelter (Guillen et al., 2015). The premise behind this theory is one cannot advance to next level without satisfying the needs at their present level (Guillen et al., 2015). Once they reach the self-actualization, they have realized their full potential and are successful (Cao et al., 2013).

McGregor created Theory X and Theory Y in 1960 (Stankovic, 2013). Theory X stated that managers need to motivate by sternness, fear, and/or coercion in order to motivate individuals to work because employees do not want or like to work, are lazy and unmotivated (Koçyiğit, 2015). Therefore, a more firm approach to managing them is required (Stankovic, 2013). Theory Y is when employees are ambitious, able to work on their own, and/or enjoy working; they are self-motivating; and able to get the job done with little effort by management (Koçyiğit, 2015). This theory does not take into consideration that individuals are different and are motivated in different ways (Stankovic, 2013).

Herzberg's two-factor theory is based on intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (Canar et al., 2011), with intrinsic, or motivation factors, based off Maslow's esteem and self-actualization levels and extrinsic, or hygiene factors, that represent Maslow's physiological, safety, and social factors (Dartey-Baah et al., 2011). Intrinsic factors are those factors that allow an individual to have a direct connection with the task they are given (Raus, 2014). This includes "recognition, autonomy, challenge, and the nature of the work" (Ismail & Nakkache, 2014). Extrinsic factors are those factors that are influenced from outside sources, such as a manager, an organization, or a spouse. This includes items like "salary, job security, and working conditions" (Ismail & Nakkache, 2014).

Different researchers have used Herzberg's motivation to explore if motivation had a direct relationship to job satisfaction (Hyun & Oh, 2011), which was defined as actions that would "encourage employees to work hard" (p. 103). Smith and Shields

(2013) used Herzberg's motivation to see how motivation relates to job satisfaction in social services, while Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) used motivation to examine its effects on the retail sector of job satisfaction. However, all these studies (Hyun & Oh, 2011; Smith & Shields, 2013; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011) found that extrinsic, also known as hygiene factors, spurred more employee satisfaction and engagement than intrinsic factors.

Understanding how motivation is related to employee satisfaction and morale is essential to any manager and/or organization (Buble et al., 2014) because it is the guide that helps fulfill goals (Urosevic & Milijic, 2012). Motivation in general can be difficult, add in trying to figure out what motivates individual employees or how to motivate employees can add a dimension to an organization's motivational responsibilities that some organizations cannot answer effectively, and sometimes cannot answer at all (Urosevic & Milijic, 2012). Research has shown that positive motivation can lead to improved job performance, greater employee satisfaction, and higher employee morale (Buble et al., 214; Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Urosevic & Milijic, 2012).

As previously discussed, employee satisfaction is when an employee is content in their workplace to a point that they achieve a positive emotional state (Furnham et al., 2009; Mahmood et al., 2014). Such satisfaction can be obtained when the individual's personal needs overlap with the organizational needs, also known as the area of convergence (Padmaja, Bhar, & Gangwar, 2013). The key to being able to motivate employees into a positive emotional state is knowing what matters to them, or what motivates them. This can come in many different ways, such as pay, benefits, stress

levels, empowerment, recognition, and personal growth (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). Once this is known, organizations must do what they can to maximize the motivational strategy in a way that it meets both the organizational needs and the individual's needs to ensure that it is a benefit for both parties (Padmaja et al., 2013). This can lead to greater job satisfaction for the employee and more products and higher profits for the organization (Padmaja et al., 2013), which is a win-win situation for all involved.

As previously stated, employee morale is an individual's attitude of the organization in which they work (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013). High employee morale contributes to job satisfaction, higher productivity in the workplace, and more employee engagement (McManus & Mosca, 2015). Low employee morale is a high contributor to turnover, poor performance, and disengaged employees (Cowart, 2014; Pane-Haden & Cooke, 2012). Poor employee morale has been found to be the leading cause of declining productivity and higher business costs, which means lower profits for organizations (Cowart, 2014). A way to combat this is to use motivation strategies. One motivation strategy is to help find a family-work balance for the employee (Cowart, 2014). Another is to have the employee be more involved in the workplace to help them feel a sense of commitment or belonging to help encourage loyalty (McManus & Mosca, 2015). Yet another motivational tactic is to design a rewards and/or recognition system, which can include many different types of rewards, such as monetary awards, buying lunch, paper awards, time off, and so forth (Cowart, 2014).

Having a true understanding of what motivates an employee to increase their morale and satisfaction is vital to a business' survival. Kontoghiorghes (2016) studied the

effects that satisfaction/motivation had on organizational commitment, which is needed in order to have a positive organizational culture. Kontoghiorghes (2016) found that when a culture is positive it has open communication, core values of respect and integrity, and effective management, which contributes positively to motivation of employees.

Restaurant Industry

The restaurant industry can be challenging, which is evident in the numbers in the industry. One out of two new restaurants fail within the first year of their opening; 61.36% fail within the first 3 years (Gazzoli et al., 2012). Employee turnover rates can reach up to 82% in a given year, one of the highest turnover rates for a profession (Weyant, 2009).

The restaurant industry is one of the largest employers in the United States (Hur & Adler, 2011), supporting 9% of the workforce (Weyant, 2009). This industry brings in an estimated 47% of money spent on food in a year (Hur & Adler) and accounts for approximately "4% of the U.S. gross national product" (National Restaurant Association, 2015; Weyant, 2009). Restaurant industry sales reached an estimated $709 billion in 2015 (National Restaurant Association, 2015). This industry also grew more than any other field in 2015 (National Restaurant Association, 2015). Although a growing industry that has one of the largest workforces should be able to attract and retain individuals, turnover rates suggest otherwise.

The restaurant industry has a high turnover rate for many reasons: decreased job satisfaction (Weyant, 2009), poor job performance (Hur & Adler, 2011), no employee

engagement by management (Nguyen, 2014), and no customer orientation (Gazzoli et al., 2012). To improve turnover and increase profit, restaurants need to find out why these reasons are persistent and find ways to correct them.

This study focused on casual and fine dining restaurant. Casual dining restaurants can be defined as a restaurant that serves moderately priced foods, typically from $10-$30, in a relaxed atmosphere (Ha & Jang, 2013). They are known for good quality dining at a reasonable price. Fine dining restaurants are those dining facilities that are of superior quality, which have dedicated meal courses served in a lavish atmosphere (Ha & Jang, 2013). Pricing at these restaurants typically are from $30 and up (Ha & Jang, 2013).

Among the few compelling studies on the topic, Nguyen (2014) discussed how a restaurant that focused on employee motivation was one of the best employers in an area of Canada for 13 straight years. The owner understood, according to Nguyen, how important employee engagement is for their employees and kept the work atmosphere "fun" (Nguyen, 2014, p. 2) and treated everyone the same regardless of their position. The employees felt valued, which is evident in that 84% of the employees had positive dispositions regarding coworkers and managers (Nguyen, 2014). Moreover, "80% of their managers are hired from within" (Nguyen, 2014, p. 2) the organization.

Hur and Adler (2011) studied the effects of employees' perception on the brand image of a restaurant. Employees' performance can have a direct effect on a restaurant's image and it has been speculated that if you can improve an employee's satisfaction, then they will work more efficiently and effectively, thereby increasing the image of the company (Hur & Adler, 2011). They studied the effects that employees' attitudes had on

the brand image, how job satisfaction related to employees' perceptions, and how demographics played a role in employee perception (Hur & Adler, 2011). Because employees are often associated with the branding of a business, how they interact with customers is vital to the image of the business (Hur & Adler. 2011). The authors found that employee satisfaction, training, and working conditions had an effect on branding. Increasing these factors can help an organization gain a competitive advantage over their competitors (Hur & Adler. 2011), which is especially useful in the competitive restaurant industry.

Job satisfaction was addressed by Weyant (2009), who stated that a lack of job satisfaction can lead to high turnover. One area examined is training and its relationship to job satisfaction. The premise would be that if an employee is trained properly, then they will feel more confident in their job, thereby increasing their satisfaction (Weyant, 2009). Another area Weyant examined was job security. If employees believe their job is safe and they are doing what they were trained to do, then their satisfaction goes up (Weyant, 2009). Weyant also examined organizational commitment and found that if employees are trained properly and they understand what is required of them, their satisfaction rate increases, regardless of classification or pay (Weyant, 2009).

Summary and Conclusions

Despite considerable research on work breaks, scholars have not focused on works breaks in the restaurant industry. Researchers have studied employee morale and employee satisfaction, albeit mostly in the manufacturing industry and very little in the restaurant industry. Motivation has been studied for over a century and can be a powerful

resource in the workplace if employers understand how to use it correctly. However, no

research could be found on employee motivation in the restaurant industry. This study

was designed to address this important gap in the literature.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The main purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore the effects on employee morale and satisfaction when giving servers in casual and fine dining restaurants work breaks during a workday. *Rest breaks* are defined as paid breaks from all work activities lasting 20 minutes or less. Lunch breaks are unpaid breaks from all work activities lasting more than 30 minutes.

Another purpose of this study was to determine the effects that employee morale and satisfaction had on the restaurant business. According to Murphy et al. (2009), employee morale and satisfaction significantly affect turnover. The high rate of turnover is the most serious issue facing the restaurant business (Murphy et al., 2009). Thus, this study was designed to determine what changes can have a positive effect on keeping restaurant employees and reducing turnover rates. Previous research has largely shown that an increase in job satisfaction decreases turnover rates (Hur & Adler, 2011; Murphy et al., 2009; Weyant, 2009), thereby lowering turnover costs.

In this chapter I explain the rationale for the research design. I provide information about the participants, the participant selection process, and the instruments. In addition, I discuss the data analysis plan, coding, software and how discrepancies were handled. Last, I discuss the trustworthiness of this study to ensure validity.

Research Design and Rationale

I designed this study to investigate how an employee's morale and satisfaction, in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry, are affected by breaks during a shift of 6

hours or more. I employed qualitative methods because I examined social issues (Schwandt, 2015). Qualitative research is preferred when trying to understand "a social or cultural phenomena" (p. 118), whereas quantitative attempts to understand data based on objective methods (Astalin, 2013). I used the ontological philosophical assumption because it communicates reality (Maxwell, 2013), which is what needed to be captured from the participants. I collected data through interviews, voice recordings, member checking, and other means of fieldwork in the restaurant industry, which are the main data collection tools used in qualitative research (Patton, 2015). Statistics would not be appropriate for this study and a small sample tested will not necessarily help others on a larger level, thus excluding quantitative methods (Patton, 2015).

I decided that a phenomenological study was appropriate because the purpose was to learn how individuals experience a phenomenon, given their experience (Vagle, 2014). It allows individuals to give data on their version of events or situations, which will in turn help the research world understand how things manifest and appear to individuals in the restaurant industry. By understanding how something is experienced through the eyes of an individual living a phenomenon, the research can study the "lifeworld" (Vagle, 2014, p. 22), not the world that is measured, correlated, and categorized.

Other qualitative methods were considered for this project but were rejected for various reasons. Grounded theory was considered; however, the main premise behind this theory is to set new "theory of social phenomena" (Schwandt, 2015, p. 131). Based on past research, a theory already exists regarding breaks in the workplace. I considered ethnography because it studies how a certain culture behaves (Schwandt, 2015), which

would have been waiters and waitresses in the restaurant industry. I rejected this method

for this study because I did not study the culture of the individuals but how individuals

react to breaks versus no break during a work shift lasting more than 6 hours.

I used phenomenological theory, using Herzberg's two-factor theory (Teck-Hong

& Waheed, 2011), as the main qualitative design. In keeping with Herzberg's two-factor

theory of motivation and hygiene factors (Buble et al., 2014; Dartey-Baah. 2011; Teck-

Hong & Waheed, 2011), intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Buble et al., 2014) were used in

this study. Intrinsic factors, such as employee satisfaction and morale, are internal factors

located within the individual that "produce satisfaction" (Cinar et al., 2011, p. 691) and

help motivate. Extrinsic factors, such as breaks given by management, are external

factors located outside an individual, typically associated with managers (Cinar et al.,

2011).

Using Herzberg's theory led to a better understanding of how employee

satisfaction and morale are affected by breaks or the lack thereof. With turnover rates

being a serious issue in the restaurant industry (Murphy et al., 2009), this study was

intended to help employers understand how employee satisfaction and morale affect the

turnover rate, which in turn can help improve human resource practices and improve

employee satisfaction and morale. One way to combat high turnover rates was to use

Herzberg's two-factor theory to help motivate employees both internally and externally.

Role of Researcher

My role was to collaborate with my dissertation committee, interview

participants, and collect, manage, and report the data (Kyvik, 2013). The participants

included individuals who had 5 or more years of experience in the casual/fine dining restaurant industry. The data were collected through interviews with the participants, member checks, and voice recordings. The interviews were conducted, via video conferencing, in a neutral setting where participants were comfortable talking opening and honestly. The data were analyzed with MAXQDA software (Oliveira, Bitencourt, Teixeira, & Santos, 2013).

All assumptions and bias of the researcher were identified and acknowledged in advance of my conducting research. I recruited only individuals who did not know me in order to remain in accordance with ethical standards. Other bias and ethical considerations are discussed below. I carefully followed all ethical requirements and the standards of IRB, including protecting and storing all data and research information in a secure place (Davis, 2013).

Methodology

This section describes my approach to how participants were recruited and selected, selection criteria, what area they were chosen from, and why. Instrumentation and the triangulation method are discussed, along with a pilot study. Lastly, the procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection are detailed.

Participant Selection Logic

The sample size needed to be established before selecting participants to ensure the correct sample size was accomplished. In qualitative research, there are no set rules about sample size (Patton, 2015) as there are with quantitative research (Miles et al., 2014). I used purposeful sampling (Miles et al., 2014, Patton, 2015; Suri, 2011; Van

Manen, 2014) to locate a large enough sample to gather enough data to investigate the

research problem (Patton, 2015). According to Hill and Williams (2012), 10-15

participants are an ideal size for qualitative research. This supports Van Manen's (2014)

idea of looking at a "subset of population" (p. 352) only until data saturation occurs,

which is when no new data is presented by participants (Van Manen, 2014).

Initially, 15 participants were sought, two of whom would take part in the pilot

study. Once the sample size had been established, participants were needed. The

population that was targeted for this study was a group of individuals who had a

minimum of 5 years of experience in the casual/fine dining restaurant industry. Requiring

at least 5 years of restaurant experience ensured that participants had adequate experience

within the field to answer the interview questions. Males and females were asked

participate, along with individuals from different cultures, races, religions, and ethnic

groups.

The participants were recruited via social media from the Clarksville, TN, area

and were selected by using convenience sampling (Berg & Lune, 2012). Convenience

samples refer to participants selected because they meet the minimum criteria and are

available (Berg & Lune, 2012). Participation was voluntary. No pay or rewards were

offered for participating, and the interviews took place while the employees were not

working. To ensure saturation, I intended to interview servers and managers from

different casual and fine dining restaurants.

In order to ensure potential participants knew what would be expected of them,

they were given a copy of the consent form they had to sign before starting the study.

This consent form was in accordance with Walden University's guidelines and approved

by IRB. The participants were also advised at the beginning of the study that, if anytime

during the study they wished to discontinue, they were free to leave the study.

Instrumentation

Various instruments were used for data collection, including member checks,

interviews, and voice recordings, and to ensure that the data were triangulated (Maxwell,

2013; Miles et al., 2014; Patton, 2015; Vizzuso, 2015). Triangulation helps assure

validity and creditability (Maxwell, 2013; Patton, 2015) and will be discussed in more

detail below.

A set of interview questions was the main source used for data collection. There

are two main types of interviews, structured and unstructured (Schwandt, 2015).

Unstructured interviews are the most popular method for phenomenological research

(Vagle, 2014) because they consist of open-ended questions (Schwandt, 2015). The

researcher can learn about the phenomenon without focusing on how each interview

compares to another (Vagle, 2014). In an unstructured interview, the researcher asks

different questions based on participants' answers to the standard questions in order to

have a better understanding of the phenomenon (Vagle, 2014).

Magnusson and Marecek (2015) guided the creation of my interview questions.

The first step in the process was to decide what topics needed to be discussed in the

interview (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). Questions addressed participants' experience

in the casual and fine dining industry as wait staff, under three topic areas: work breaks,

employee morale, and employee satisfaction. The questions were asked in a way that

fostered "full, rich, and personalized stories" (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015, p. 181) from the participants. Each participant focused on specific events (Maxwell, 2013), and I used phrases such as "can you tell me?" "What was your experience like?" and "Can you give me specifics?" (Magnusson & Marecek's, 2015; Patton, 2015).

Follow-up questions varied depending on participants' answers and were asked to clarify or explain answers (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). I was cautious when asking the follow-up questions lest I appear critical or unbelieving, which could have caused a participant to be less forthcoming (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015).

I also used a system of member checking for respondent validation. I solicited feedback from the participants to ensure the true meaning of their answer was recorded properly (Brown, 2012; Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014; Thomson, 2013). Member checking provides validity (Stipp & Kapp, 2012). Through member checking, I assured I understood participants' answers correctly (Brown, 2014; Miles et al., 2014) and reduced the chance participants' answers were misconstrued or misunderstood (Maxwell, 2013). I also sent a copy of the conversation transcript to the participant to allow them to read over their answers to ensure it was, in fact, what they said and meant.

Member checking is also used as a way to verify that the anonymity of the participant is not compromised (Miles et al., 2014). Allowing the participants to review the data and reports before releasing them can help catch any unintended identifiable factors in the writings (Miles et al., 2014). Because privacy can affect creditability of the study, ensuring anonymity is essential (Miles et al., 2014). Therefore, the findings were

reviewed with participants to ensure that there were no identifiable features of the individuals in the data.

The other method I used as an instrument was voice recording (Patton, 2015, p. 382). I reviewed the interviews when they were done and transcribed them, word for word. In that way I concentrated on the answers instead of trying to capture in writing everything the participant was saying. Raw data were collected during the actual interview (Patton, 2015). The voice recordings helped me see if I missed anything.

Before the interview started, I checked to make sure the recorder worked (Patton, 2015). During the interview, I made sure the interviewees and I spoke clearly and slowly so the entire conversation would be audible. After the interview, I listened to the voice recording from start to finish and transcribed the conversation, after which I completed the participant member check and entered the data into the software (see below).

Pilot Study

Pilot studies are done in qualitative research to help hone the interview questions and interview process (Burkard, Knox, & Hill, 2012; Magnusson & Marecek, 2015; Maxwell, 2013) and to focus on the "concerns and theories" before initiating the interviews (Maxwell, 2013, p. 66). Further, I tested the flow of the interview process and the "viability of the questions" (Burkard et al., 2012, p. 88).

As discussed in Chapter 4, the pilot study was done in two parts: a pretest and a pilot (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). The pretest allowed for the researcher to ask the interview questions to those around them, such as friends, family, and/or colleagues, so the researcher could solicit advice as to the functionality of the interview questions and

process (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015; Maxwell, 2013). The key to ensuring this step is used, as a pretest, was to conduct an interview with the subject as you would a participant in the actual study (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). Once complete, a *feedback* session with the subject was arranged, to discuss if the flow was good, if the questions were relevant, and how the process could be improved, if at all (Maxwell, 2013).

After the pretest was conducted and changes made, the next step was to recruit 2 individuals from the same *pool* (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015) that the actual participants for the study came from (Burkard et al., 2012). For this study, individuals who work in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry were needed. When they were selected, the researcher conducted the interview as they would the actual study in order to obtain useful feedback from the participant on how to change and/or improve the process and/or questions (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015; Maxwell, 2013; Burkard et al., 2012). During this pilot test, the researcher was open to making changes in the interview and research process to ensure validity and creditability (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015) based on the participants' feedback. Using the pilot test process helped me gain insight into the interview process (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

In this section I discuss the sample size, how participants were recruited, and how they participated.

Recruitment and participation. As stated earlier, qualitative research has no set rules about sample size (Patton, 2015) as there are with quantitative research (Miles et al., 2014). Instead, there is purposeful sampling (Miles et al., 2014, Patton, 2015; Suri, 2011;

Van Manen, 2014) for when a researcher's sample size is large enough gather enough data to learn the importance of the issue being studied (Patton, 2015). According to Hill and Williams (2012), an ideal size comprises 10 to 15 participants. Van Manen (2014) stated that instead of looking at a "subset of population" (p. 352), researchers should seek data saturation, which occurs once no new data are presented by participants. Although 15 participants were initially recruited, saturation was met after 13 people were interviewed. Two interviewees participated in the pilot testing, and the other 11 in the actual study.

Recruiting participants can be a difficult because individuals must give up their time and discuss "personal feelings" (Hill & Williams, 2012, p. 75). Miles et al. (2014) suggested that participants may be more willing volunteer if they have a sense that they will be listened to (p. 60) and feel like they could be part of a change. In that way I motivated individuals to participate.

I posted an advertisement on Facebook and Craigslist seeking volunteers who were currently working within a 50-mile radius of Clarksville, TN with at least 5 years of wait staff experience in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Once an individual was identified, a personal letter (Hill & Williams, 2012) and a copy of the consent form were sent to the participants. The form contained pertinent information, explained the type of research, the voluntary basis of participation and the risks and benefits, assurances of confidentiality, and contact information. Once the interested participants were identified, those who returned the signed form within 5 days were selected to

participate. Each participant was offered a copy of the dissertation and results of the study once completed.

Data collection. The interviews lasted approximately 20 minutes each and were in a neutral location so the participants did not feel intimidated or think someone at work would overhear them. The interviews followed a set of predetermined questions (see Appendix A). Follow-up questions were asked to help the researcher gain a better understanding of the experience, terminology, situation, and the participants' answers.

Burkard et al. (2012) discussed three steps to develop a rapport with the participant and gather consistent, distinctive, and personal information. The first step was to build a rapport with the participants (Burkard et al., 2012) by using "small talk" to make them comfortable and at ease. The second step was to make a transition to the questions listed on the questionnaire (Burkard et al., 2012). The answers I wrote down were specific to breaks, morale, and satisfaction. The last step was to help the participant decompress from the questions (Burkard et al., 2012) by asking how they thought the interview went and what made them decide to participate.

Member checking was employed twice during this study. First, I made sure I interpreted the participants' responses correctly (Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014; Thomson, 2013), which can also help build rapport between the participant and interviewer (Brown, 2012). The second time member checking was employed was at the end of the study to ensure anonymity of the participants were kept (Miles et al., 2014). This can also act as another check to ensure answers were understood and recorded properly (Thomson, 2013; Vizzuso, 2015).

I tested all equipment prior to the start of the interview session (Patton, 2015). Once the interview was over, the researcher reviewed the voice recordings from start to finish (Patton, 2015), while taking notes and collecting data. In this important step, the researcher recorded data that may have been missed during the initial interview.

Data Analysis Plan

Data were collected from open-ended interview questions from 13 individuals who had 5 years wait staff experience in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. The purpose of this study was to see how breaks, or lack thereof, during a 6-hour workday affect employee morale and employee satisfaction. Two main research questions explored: What is the impact of breaks on employee morale in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry? What is the impact of breaks on employee satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry?

The data were analyzed using a modified van Kaam method, which is a proven process to identify themes and patterns in data (Dincer & Dincer, 2013). The original method included a four-step process that involved "analysis, translation, transposition, and phenomenological reflection" (Anderson & Eppard, 1998, p. 400). From this four-step process, researchers have created a 12-step method, which was approved by van Kaam in 1993 (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). The first eight steps are considered the *analysis* step from van Kaam's original process (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). Translation is Step 9, transposition is Step 10, and phenomenological reflection is shown in Steps 11 and 12 (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). I used a modified version of the van Kaam approach (Anderson & Eppard, 1998; Carter & Baghurst, 2013). I transcribed the interviews from

the notes I took during the interview and put them into a Word document, along with the voice recordings.

To create a coding system, I uploaded all data into MAXqda (Oliveira et al., 2013). By doing so, I could find notes more easily and "reduce and transform" them into workable data (Maxwell, 2009, p. 54). Once this was complete, the data were analyzed by color-coded codes (Oliveira et al., 2013) to track and gather similarities between the data collection methods and the participants (Anderson & Eppard, 1998; Carter & Baghurst, 2013). The transcriptions were read a minimum of two times to ensure all data were coded correctly (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). The color codes were identified by the researcher. The color codes helped to identify similarities and reoccurring themes. Next, the data were reviewed for non-essential words, phrases, and so forth (Carter & Baghurst, 2013), and these were eliminated.

Once the data were coded, all interviews, member checks, and voice recordings were compared against each other to see any emerging codes and similarities. These codes were then connected to the two primary research questions. This information was used to measure similarities and differences between employee satisfaction and employee morale. Other themes will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Ensuring the trustworthiness of a study is accomplished in multiple ways, including creditability, transferability, dependability, conformability, and ethical procedures. These will all be discussed below.

Creditability

To ensure creditability, triangulation was used for data collection and analysis. Triangulation is a method employed in qualitative research where combinations of methods are used to collect data during an experiment (Patton, 2015). This can add reliability to the data collected (Street & Ward, 2012) because triangulation acts as a check and balance (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012) of the research findings because the same data were found in more than one data source (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012; Street & Ward, 2012).

In addition, the revised van Kaam method was used as another form of creditability (Welch, 2014). This method was used in the data analysis because it has a proven process to identify themes and patterns in data (Dincer & Dincer, 2013). This revised method contains a 12-step method, which is derived from van Kaam's original four step process (Anderson & Eppard, 1998).

Transferability

Transferability occurs when enough details and information are presented to the readers about the study so they know if it can be applied to different settings and have the same or similar results (Williams & Hill, 2012). I followed guidelines from Miles et al. (2014). First, I provided detailed descriptions about the ages, gender, race, and years of experience of the participants. In addition, any "limits on sample selection" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 314) are listed. The findings are described in Chapter 4 so the reader can measure the transferability and suitability to apply to other situations (Miles et al., 2014).

Others issues regarding transferability can come from whether the study supports previous research and theories on the subject matter or if they differ greatly (Patton, 2015). When studies differ greatly, there may be some question to the validity of the study by the audience (Patton, 2015). Lastly, in Chapter 5 I list locations and industries that may benefit from the research (Miles et al., 2014).

Dependability

Dependability was accomplished by using three different data collection sources (Patton, 2015): interviews, member checks, and voice recordings. First, the findings "show meaning parallelism" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 312) in the multiple data sources being used. Next, the data are relevant (Miles et al., 2014) to the research questions. Lastly, I ensured my own bias was not injected into the data (Miles et al., 2014).

Confirmability

Confirmability is vital to qualitative research to establish trust between the readers and the researcher because it shows that the data came from environments different from the researcher's own imagination (Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012). Confirmability can come in the form of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) for data organization, linking of concepts, and grouping features (Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012). MAXqda functioned as an external audit. I also explained how the study was conducted, how the data were collected, and how the data were coded, to help with transparency

Ethical Procedures

Research regarding social sciences often needs to be more concerned with ethics because it examines "the social lives of human beings" (Berg & Lune, 2012, p. 60). The

participants were all adults and did not fall into any of the vulnerable populations (Miles et al., 2014). I solicited their voluntarily participation (Berg & Lune, 2012), and each signed a consent form (Miles et al., 2014). In addition, all participants were informed, before they sign the consent form, of any risks associated with this study (Berg & Lune, 2012; Miles et al., 2014). No ethical boundaries were crossed and the human rights of all participants were not violated. Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) gave its approval prior to starting any recruitment of participants, anonymity, and confidentiality (IRB No. 05-13-16-0381015). As noted earlier, volunteers received and signed the consent form, which provided details about the study.

To assure anonymity, participants were identified using a case number assigned to them individually. Confidentiality was achieved by taking any identifiable elements (Berg & Lune, 2012) out of the research that could be linked to an individual participant or restaurant. The collected data will be used only for research purposes specified above (Miles et al., 2014). Only one computer, a backup disk, and external hard drive contain the password-protected files and will be kept for 5 years.

Summary

In this chapter I outlined the research plan used. The phenomenological study explored how breaks affect employees' morale and satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Details included participant selection process, the types of questions and instruments, and the plan for processing the data. Lastly, issues of trustworthiness were discussed to show how I ensured validity and reliability. The findings are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to investigate the effects of providing breaks to servers in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry on employee morale and satisfaction (Hur & Adler, 2011; Iqbal et al., 2012). I designed this study to investigate how an employee's morale and satisfaction, in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry, is affected by rest breaks and lunch breaks during a shift of 6 hours or more.

In this chapter, I provide details of the pilot study that I used for data collection, the setting, and participant demographics. Next, I discuss the data collection process, data analysis, and trustworthiness of the study to ensure creditability of this study, and I then describe the results.

Pilot Study

I conducted pilot study to help refine the interview questions and interview process (Burkard et al., 2012; Magnusson & Marecek, 2015; Maxwell, 2013). This is typically done in qualitative studies to allow the research to focus more on the "concerns and theories" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 66) before initiating the actual interviews with the participants (Maxwell, 2013). Researchers can test the flow of the interview process and the "viability of the questions" (Burkard et al., 2012, p. 88)

I conducted the pilot study in two parts: a pretest and a pilot test (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). The pretest was completed with a family member and a friend who reviewed the interview questions and interview process to assure their functionality

(Magnusson & Marecek, 2015; Maxwell, 2013). Although the questions were found to be adequate, too much time was allotted for the interview.

After I completed the pretest, I recruited participants. The first two participants who signed their consent forms participated in the pilot test (Burkard et al., 2012; Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). Participant recruitment will be further addressed in the following sections. I asked the interviewees for feedback on the interview questions and process. Based on the responses, I revised the order of the questions to improve the flow. Instead of the predicted 45- to 60-minute time frame, I reduced it to 30 minutes. Last, I adjusted some wording; for example, instead of asking, "Do you feel satisfied in your work?" I changed the question to, "Are you satisfied with working in the restaurant industry?"

Pilot studies have been recognized as a vital part of research because it can help the researcher ensure their *research road map* is adequate (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015). The pilot study proved to be useful in ensuring the correct questions were asked, that there was enough time allotted to complete the interview, and to ensure that flow of the interview was adequate. This helped improve "the quality and the efficiency" (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015) of the interview process.

Research Setting

The original setting for interviews was a meeting room at the main public library in Clarksville, TN. However, A few weeks before the interviews were to start, I had an unexpected move from Tennessee to Texas. Because of this, the interviews were conducted via video conference, using FaceTime, Skype, or Facebook Video Messenger.

The interviews were still voice recorded. This proved to be a positive change because it allowed the participants to pick a comfortable place to participate in the interviews, which was typically at their house. I used their home office to avoid any background noise or distractions during the interviews.

The interviews started out with me thanking the participant for volunteering, reminding them that they could stop the interview at any time, explaining what they research was for, and noting that it was being recorded. In addition, the participants were asked not to give names of individuals or business during the interviews to protect unsuspecting individuals from anonymity. From there, I worked on building rapport and a commonality (Hampshire, Iqbal, Blell, & Simpson, 2014) with the participant regarding the subject of breaks, employee morale, and employee satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. To help this rapport, the first questions asked were with regard to how long the individual was in the restaurant industry and what types of jobs they held during this time.

Next, the interview was focused on more pertinent questions related to breaks, employee morale, and satisfaction. In addition, these questions gave myself a deeper insight (Barnham, 2015) into the casual and fine dining restaurant and allowed for data to be collected on the attitudes and behaviors (Barnham, 2015) of servers who are actively working in this industry today. When clarification was needed, additional questions were asked. The questions were carefully asked to ensure that they were not leading and that they were open ended.

The interviews closed by letting the participants know that they were done with their questions (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). Next, the participants were asked if they had anything to add, because this can generate more data (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015) for the researcher and allows the participant to voice anything they feel was not addressed in the interview questions. After this, the participants were thanked again for their participation and were told what would happen over the next week, which was that a copy of the conversation transcription would be sent back to them for them to proof. The participants were also advised that once the data analysis was completed and the study was complete, they would be contacted again in case they wanted to know the results of the study.

Demographics

This study had a total of 13 participants, who were recruited via 13 different social media web pages. Each participant had to have three similar demographic qualities in order to participate. The first was that they had to have a minimum of 5 years serving experience in casual or fine dining restaurant industry to participate. The second was that they had to be actively working in the restaurant industry. The last was that they had to be within a 50-mile radius of Clarksville, TN. This is where the required similar demographics stopped.

During the recruitment phase of this study, all genders, races, and age groups above 23 years were targeted. Out of the 41 participants that initially volunteered, 13 actually responded and completed the interview. From this number, there were 12 females and 1 male that responded. Of the 13 participants, 11 were Caucasian, 1 was

Asian, and 1 was African-American. The ages range from 23 years of age to 45 years of age.

One demographical characteristic that presented itself during the study, that was not accounted for originally was casual versus fine dining servers. Of the 13 participants, 4 individuals had fine dining experience and 9 had casual dining experience. This will be relevant when the results of the study are discussed below.

Table 1.

Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

Demographic characteristics	*n*	%
5 years' experience	13	100%
Actively working in restaurant industry	13	100%
Working within 50-mile radius of Clarksville, TN	13	100%
Gender – Female	12	92%
Gender – Male	1	8%
Race – Caucasian	11	85%
Race – Asian	1	7.5%
Race – African American	1	7.5%
Age – 23–29 years old	5	38.5%
Age – 30–39 years old	5	38.5%
Age – 40–49 Years old	3	23%
Fine dining servers	4	31%
Casual dining servers	9	69%

Data Collection

There were three different methods that were used to collect the data: interviews, voice recordings, and member checking. The first was through interviews, which lasted approximately 20 minute each and happened over a two-week timeframe. As stated earlier, 13 participants were selected for this study, instead of the projected 15, due to data saturation (Van Manen, 2014). The data was collected from participants via Facebook Messenger, Face Time, or Skype, depending on what system the participant had access to. This allowed me to observe the participants while the interview took place. Also, this allowed for facial expressions and verbal language to be documented by the researcher and used for data. Lastly, this allowed the participants to select a place where they felt comfortable to speak freely with the researcher.

The interviews followed a set of predetermined questions (see Appendix A). Participants were asked follow up questions, when needed, to clarify or help the researcher have a better understanding of the experience, terminology, situation, and the participant's answers. Rapport building started, as suggested (Burkhard et al., 2012), before the interview took place, during the recruitment phase. It was continued through the interview, which helped the participants speak openly and honestly with the researcher. The first few questions focused on making the participants comfortable by asking about their experience. These types of questions allowed the interview to develop into more in-depth questions as it moved along.

The interview was voice recorded, which was the second data collection method, allowing the interviewer to focus on the participant and the environment around them.

Once the interview was complete, the voice recordings were transcribed individually. The sooner this is done after an interview, the better because it allows for easier recollection of what transpired during the interview (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015). This was accomplished by playing back the interview, stopping when needed, and transcribing everything that was said during the interview. Careful attention was given to ensure the transcriptions were correct and accurate and to ensure the "participants' anonymity and confidentiality" (Magnusson & Marecek, 2015) was kept.

The last data collection method used was member checking. This was used in two ways during the interview. The first was to ensure the participant's answers were being understood correctly (Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2014; Thomson, 2013), which was done by repeating answers back to the participant. The second was done via transcriptions after the interview was complete. Once the transcriptions were complete, the participants were sent a copy of their respective transcription and asked to look over the copy to ensure it accurately represented what they said (Thomson, 2013; Vizzuso, 2015) and to ensure anonymity of the participant was kept (Miles et al, 2014).

One unusual encounter happened and one phenomenon came to light during the data collection. The unusual encounter was that one of the participants described an environment in the restaurant industry that no other participant did, which was heavy drug and alcohol use by servers to make it through their work day. They described the drug and alcohol use as prevalent because it helped the staff and servers work through their shift because of the stress and high demand that was put on them. The phenomenon that came to light is that there is a distinct difference between the perception, attitude, and

even work duties of a server in the casual restaurant industry versus a server in the fine dining restaurant industry. Both of these finding will be detailed in more future down.

Data Analysis

Once the interviews were completed, the voice recordings were transcribed and sent to the individual participant for member checking. Once this was complete, the files were uploaded to MAXqda for data analysis. Once uploaded, the documents went through first cycle coding, which is can range anywhere form a few words to a paragraph (Saldana, 2016). For this project, parts of sentences were used for first cycle coding. There were initially 14 different codes used. The 14 codes followed the 10 interview questions asked during the interviews with participants. The following codes used were for first cycle coding:

- Years of experience

- Different positions held

- Typical day, in terms of actions

- Typical day, in terms of emotions

- Single shift

- Double shift

- Do you get meal breaks

- Do you get rest/smoke breaks

- How long are breaks

- Breaks affect satisfaction

- Satisfaction with employer

- How to increase satisfaction

- Breaks affect morale

- Morale at work

- How to increase morale

Once these codes were identified, the second cycle coding was implemented. The second cycle coding can be the same codes as the first cycle coding, longer passages, or reconfiguration (Saldana, 2016). Reconfiguration was used in this project, with 2 of the codes being eliminated because they become redundant. These two codes were single shift and double shift. These were captured in the code for *do you get meal breaks*. Also during the second cycle coding, a new code emerged, which was *type of restaurant* and it had two categories, fine dining restaurant and casual dining restaurant.

From the initial 12 codes that were kept from the first cycle coding, patterns (Glaser & Laudel, 2013) started to emerge. This led to using themes within each of the initial 12 codes. The number of themes varied by first code, due to answers given by the participants. For example, *years of experience* had 3 themes, *where do you get breaks* had 8 different sub categories.

Some of the themes that started to emerge during data analysis were that, first, there appears to be a distinct difference between attitudes, working conditions, employee satisfaction, and morale between fine dining servers and casual dining servers. Second, breaks did not appear to have a negative or positive effect on employee satisfaction and

morale; however, management and how the individuals were treated by their employers and co-workers did. Third, being a smoker versus not being a smoker played a part in whether you got rest or smoke breaks versus no breaks at all. Lastly, meal breaks seemed to be dependent on whether an individual worked a single shift, which was typically 4-8 hours, versus a double shift, which was generally 8-17 hours.

This process followed the revised van Kaam methods (Hamersly & Land, 2015; Dincer & Dincer, 2013; Welch, 2014). The original method included a four-step process that involved "analysis, translation, transposition, and phenomenological reflection" (Anderson & Eppard, 1998, p. 400). From this four-step process, researchers have created a 12-step method, which was approved by van Kaam in 1993 (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). The first eight steps are considered the *analysis* step from van Kaam's original process (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). Translation is Step 9, transposition is Step 10, and phenomenological reflection is shown in Steps 11 and 12 (Anderson & Eppard, 1998). I used a modified version of van Kaam approach (Anderson & Eppard, 1998; Carter & Baghurst, 2013). For this study, the first steps were completed during the listing and the first cycle coding of the data (Welch, 2014; Dincer & Dincer, 2013); reducing and eliminating data that was irrelevant (Welch, 2014); and the second cycle coding (Saldana, 2016). From there steps 9, 10 and 11 were completed.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Ensuring the trustworthiness of one's study is essential for it to be an acceptable study. There were multiple ways this assurance of trustworthiness was implemented into this study, which will be discussed below.

Credibility

Triangulation, which is the use of more than one approach to explore one's research questions (Mayer, 2015; Graue, 2015), was used in this study. Triangulation can act as a check and balance (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012) and was used as such in this study. It was done by comparing the findings in one data collection method with others (Graue, 2015). Interviews, voice recordings, and member checking were used for triangulation. Using these three methods to collect data ensured that the data from the participants were correct and showed that the same data was found with more than one method (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012; Street & Ward, 2012).

Transferability

Transferability occurs when enough details and information are presented to the readers about the study so they know if it can be applied to different settings and have the same or similar results (Williams and Hill, 2012; Quinn & Leligdon, 2014). This was accomplished in this study by following Miles et al. (2014) guidelines. First, detailed descriptions were provided regarding ages, gender, race, and years of experience of the participants. Second, the research questions (see Appendix A) were provided, which are transferable to any industry.

Dependability

Dependability is when overlapping methods are used to collect data (Morse, 2015). Dependability was accomplished by using three different data collection sources (Patton, 2015; Morse, 2015). The findings showed parallelism (Miles et al., 2014) between the three data collections sources. The data collected are relevant (Miles et al.,

2014) to the research questions being explored in this study. The researcher's bias was not injected into the data (Miles et al., 2014), by the researcher remaining open minded and allowing the participants to answer the questions, without *leading* questions or statements. Also, by transcribing the conversations word for word, using member checking to ensure what the participant said was written correctly, and using these documents as part of the data analysis.

Confirmability

Confirmability is vital to a qualitative research project because it establishes trust between the reader and researcher (Sarma, 2015). This allows the results of experiences of the participants to be highlighted and not the preferences of the researcher (Sarma, 2015). Conformability was practiced in this study by using MAXqda, which is a data analysis software that assisted in data organization, linking of concepts, and grouping features. With the usage of triangulation (Foote, 2016) between the interviews, voice recordings, and member checking, the data provided was validated.

<p align="center">**Study Results**</p>

The interview question (IQ) will first be detailed. Then the research questions will be detailed and linked with the interview questions. Lastly, the findings will be discussed briefly.

IQ1, 2, & 3: Ice breaker questions

IQ1: How many years of experience do you have in the restaurant industry?

IQ2: How many different serving positions have you held?

IQ3: How would you describe your typical day working?

These question were designed as ice-breaker questions. IQ1 was answered in a variety of ways. Some participants answered in detail, recounting their entire time when they first started in the serving industry until present. They described, in detail, every job they had, how they started, and what it was like to work for the different companies. While others were very exact and direct in their answers. However, in the end, the information was consolidated into three categories, participants who had less than 10 years of experience, participants who had 10-19 years' experience, and participants who had 20 years or more of experience.

Table 2.

Years of Participants' Experience

Years of experience	No. of participants	% of participants	participants
Less than 10 years	4	31	P2, P3, P7, P14
10–19 years	7	54	P1, P5, P6, P8, P9, P11, P13
≥20 years	2	15	P4, P15

IQ2 showed that all participants worked in multiple facets of the restaurant industry. All of the participants had serving experience. Sixty-nine percent of the participants had hosting experience, 46% had management experience, 38% had cooking experience, and 23% had bartender and/or bus person/dishwasher experience. There were 5 other positions that were held by 15% or less of the participants.

Table 3.

Positions Held by Participants

Positions held	No. of participants	% of participants	Participants
Server	13	100	All
Host	9	69	P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P11, P13
Bartender	3	23	P3, P4, P9
Cook	5	38	P3, P4, P5, P9, P14
Manager	6	46	P3, P8, P9, P11, P14, P15
Teach culinary	1	8	P11
Bus person/dishwasher	3	23	P2, P4, P14
Owner	1	8	P4
Caterer	1	8	P1
Corporate trainer	1	8	P8
Kitchen/prep	2	15	P2, P13

IQ3 gave insight into what a typical day is like as a server in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. The only consistency regarding duties, besides waiting on table/parties, was set-up before shifts, which 46% of participants were required to do. The rest of duties, less than 23% of participants were required to perform.

Table 4.

Typical Daily Duties of Participants

Typical Day - Action	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Host	1	8%	P2
Do dishes	1	8%	P2
Ensure everything is right	1	8%	P2
Work in kitchen	1	8%	P2
1 to 1-1/2 hr set up	6	46%	P1, P4, P5, P6, P9, P14
Getting silverware,	2	15%	P4, P9

glassware ready			
New everyday	2	15%	P5, P8
Start work immediately	3	23%	P1, P4, P6
Bell curves, busy and non-busy times	1	8%	P1
Hard Work, Busy, Chaotic, Non-stop	3	23%	P7, P11, P13
Pretty Easy	1	8%	P11
Running trays	1	8%	P15

IQ4: Do you get breaks during your shift?

   IQ4 presented two types of responses, one for meal breaks and one for rest/smoke

breaks. For meal breaks, not one participant answered an emphatic yes. Their answer was

either that they did not receive meal breaks (46%) or it depended on what was going on

during their shift (54%). Of the 54% that stated that it depended on what was going on,

three main themes became present. These themes were one, dependent upon

management; two, they would rather make money than take a break; and three, only got a

break when they worked a double shift, which was between 8 and 17 hours of work. A

single shift lasted 4-8 hours, depending on employer.

Table 5.

Did Participant Get Meal Breaks

Do you get meal breaks	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Yes	0	0%	
No	6	46%	P1, P4, P5, P7, P9, P13
Depends on what is going on	7	54%	P2, P3, P6, P8, P11, P14, P15
Depended on			

who/what			
Manager	2	15%	P4, P11
Eat while working	1	8%	P5
Rather make money	2	15%	P5, P6
Only on a double shift	2	15%	P8, P13

For rest/smoke breaks, 31% of the participants said they did receive a short break to allow them to go out and smoke. The majority of participants, 46%, said they did not receive rest/smoke breaks. While 15% said they preferred to make money than break. The last 8% did not smoke, so it did not matter breaks were given.

Table 6.

Did Participants Get Rest Breaks

Do you get rest/smoke breaks	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Yes	4	31%	P2, P3, P7, P13
No	6	46%	P1, P4, P7, P8, P9, P11
Don't smoke, don't care	1	8%	P5
Rather make money	2	15%	P5, P6

The length of breaks varied depending on the individual. Some lasted less than 10 minutes (55%) which the participants identified as *smoke breaks*. Others lasted 10 to 30 minutes (22.5%) while others lasted longer than 30 minutes (22.5%). The majority (64%) of the participants stated that when meal breaks are given during a double shift, they last between 15 minutes to a few hours.

Table 7.

Length of Breaks

How long are breaks	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Time frame	**7**		
Less than 10 minutes (Smoke break)	5	38%	P6, P7, P9, P13, P14
10-30 minutes	2	15%	P7, P14
Longer than 30 minutes	2	15%	P1, P13
When	**11**		
During a slowdown	1	8%	P2
No breaks	2	15%	P3, P4
During a double shift (meal break)	7	54%	P1, P2, P4, P5, P7, P8, P13,
Between pre-work and customers (beginning of shift)	1	8%	P4

IQ5: Do you feel satisfied with your employer/work?

There were a total of 12 themes that emerged from IQ5. They were mixed with positive and negative responses, both averaging 50% of the themes. For the negative responses, management was the main reason for dissatisfaction, this was followed closely by feeling dissatisfied due to stress, bad treatment, no benefits/bad pay, and not feeling satisfied at all. The positive responses showed that most interviewees were satisfied with work at 38%. Twenty-three percentage were satisfied because of pay, 15% were satisfied because they were able to meet new people, 8% were satisfied with rewards, because of good products, and good management, respectively.

Table 8.

*Participants Satisfaction with E*mployer

Satisfaction with employer	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Negative	**12**		
Stressed -	2	15%	P2, P7
Not satisfied -	2	15%	P2, P7
Short Staffed -	1	8%	P2
Bad treatment -	2	15%	P3, P7
Not with management -	3	23%	P7, P9, P13
No benefits, better pay -	2	15%	P8, P11
Positive	**13**		
Meet new people +	2	15%	P4, P1
Awards +	1	8%	P4
Great Products +	1	8%	P4
Good money +	3	23%	P4, P5, P9
Good team, management, drama free +	1	8%	P4
Satisfied +	5	38%	P6, P11, P14, P15, P1

IQ6: Do you feel your morale at work is good or bad?

There were 9 themes that developed from IQ6, 34% of which were negative and

44% of which were positive, and 22% could be negative or positive. Of the negative

responses, 67% of participants answered that they liked serving at first, but after a while,

they hated it because of the way they were treated. The other negative responses, both at

16.5%, were in reference to morale being low or bad because they were working outside

their job classification and they received no respect at work from anyone. For the positive

responses, 40% said morale was high or good because of they loved what they were

doing. Thirty percent stated their morale was high because the customers like them.

Whereas 20% said their morale was high because of incentives/positive reinforcements and 10% said morale was high because they made good money.

Table 9.

Participants Morale at Work

Morale at work	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Negative	**6**		
After a while, hated it -	4	67%	P2, P7, P8, P13
Duties not a server should do -	1	16.5%	P3
No respect -	1	16.5%	P3
Positive	**10**		
Customers like me +	3	23%	P3, P5, P13
Incentives /Positive reinforcements +	2	15%	P3, P6
Fantastic, loved what I do +	4	31%	P4, P6, P9, P11,
Making money +	1	8%	P4
Negative/Positive	**11**		
Depends on company -/+	5	38%	P1, P3, P6, P14, P15
Management -/+	6	46%	P1, P3, P4, P5, P6, P11, P14, P15

IQ7: What could your employer do to increase your satisfaction?

In IQ7, participants gave several answers, which resulted in 6 different themes emerging. The biggest way to increase satisfaction, according to 35% of the participants, is in having good management who will help out, clean, and encourage their employees. The next two ways to increase satisfaction, both with 19%, are using words of encouragement and personnel. Eleven percent stated breaks would help increase

satisfaction and 8% stated that either having the desire to help customers or giving better

pay, benefits, free food/liquor/drinks would increase satisfaction.

Table 10.

How Participant Thought to Increase Satisfaction

How to increase satisfaction	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Words of encouragement (thank, you, good job, etc.)	5	19%	P1, P2, P8, P11, P13,
Breaks	3	11%	P3, P11, P13
Management helping, leading, encouraging	9	35%	P1, P4, P6, P7, P8, P9, P11, P13, P14
Hire good employees/staffing correct/organized	5	8%	P4, P8, P9, P13, P14
Sense of urgency, want to help customers	2	19%	P4, P9
Pay, benefits, & free food, liquor, drinks	2	8%	P5, P15

IQ8: What could your employer do to increase your morale?

The responses that participants gave to IQ8 resulted in 4 themes emerging. The

best way, according to the participants, to increase morale is to have positive

reinforcements/incentives, which came in at 40%. Next, 35% said that having good

management and showing respect to employees would increase morale. Twenty percent

stated that morale could be increased by having better pay/benefits/breaks and only 5%

said hiring better employees would increase morale.

Table 11.

How Participant Thought to Increase Morale

How to increase morale	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Positive reinforcements/incentives	8	40%	P1, P2, P4, P5, P8, P11, P13, P15
High better people, let go of bad people	1	5%	P3
Good management / respect employees	7	35%	P4, P5, P6, P7, P11, P13, P14
Better pay/benefits/breaks	4	20%	P7, P9, P11, P14

IQ9: When you get breaks during your shift, does it help your morale improve?

IQ9 only had three themes emerge. When asked if breaks affected morale, 84% said yes, 8% said no, and the last 8% said it depends on the day. The answers as to why they affect morale coincided with the answers given in the next section (see table 13).

Table 12.

How Breaks Affect Morale

Breaks affect morale	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Yes	11	84%	P2, P3, P4, P5, P7, P8, P9, P11, P13, P14, P15
No	1	8%	P1
Depends on day	1	8%	P6

IQ10: When you get breaks during your shift, does it help your satisfaction improve?

In IQ10, 3 themes emerged. The highest theme emerging was 67% of participants stating that breaks do help with satisfaction. They can help in multiple ways, such as

allowing for downtime, being able to collect oneself, etc. Twenty percent of participants

stated that breaks would not create satisfaction and that they just wanted to make money.

The last 13% of participants said that breaks do not increase satisfaction.

Table 13.

How Breaks Affect Satisfaction

Breaks affect Satisfaction	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Management doesn't care	2	13%	P4, P7
No, just want to make money	3	20%	P1, P4, P6
Yes	10	67%	P1, P2, P3, P5, P8, P9, P11, P14, P15
Listen to music	1	10%	P5
Escape for a while	3	30%	P2, P8, P14
Talk on phone	1	10%	P2
Come back in better mood	1	10%	P2
Collect yourself	3	30%	P3, P9, P15
Positive reinforcement	1	10%	P1

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the pilot study performed, the research setting,

demographics, data collection methods, data analysis, evidence of trustworthiness, and

the results of the study. In Chapter 5, I provide interpretations of the findings, limitations

of the study, recommendations, and implications of this study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to investigate how work breaks affect employee morale and satisfaction. To accomplish this, I conducted video interviews using open-ended questions. I interviewed total of 13 participants, including two for the pilot study and 11 for the regular study. I interpreted the results based on Herzberg's two-factor theory (Wilson, 2015; Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011, Buble et al., 2014).

One key finding in the research was that breaks do not have a significant effect on employee morale and satisfaction, which is different from findings in other studies in different industries (Hunter & Wu, 2016). Another key finding was that management, coworkers, and positive reinforcements (words of encouragement, incentives, etc.) did more to contribute to increase employee satisfaction and morale than anything else. The last key finding was that extrinsic factors affect intrinsic factors.

The full interpretation of findings will follow, along with limitations, recommendations, and implication of the study.

Interpretation of Findings

To fully understand the interpretation of the findings, I will explore both research questions (RQs) and I will analyze the answers by participants using Herzberg's two-factor theory, which is based on motivation and hygiene theory (Holmberg, Sobis, & Calstrom, 2016). This theory allows a researcher to study intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors to understand what affects satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Holmberg et al., 2016).

The findings in this study differed from other research conducted on different industries (Hunter & Wu, 2016; Bechtold et al., 1984; Tucker, 2003; Trougakos et al., 2008; Trougakos et al., 2014).

Research Question 1

RQ1: What is the impact of breaks on employee morale in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry? I designed this research question to improve understanding of whether work breaks, either meal or rest, contributed to employee morale of a server in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Employee morale was the intrinsic factor and breaks were the extrinsic factors. As previously stated, intrinsic factors are those factors that are within an individual that directly affect their motivation (Janus & Browning, 2014), whereas extrinsic factors are those factors that are outside an individual that affect their motivation (Janus & Browning, 2014).

According to the results, when asked whether breaks affected morale, the participants overwhelmingly answered in the affirmative. However, when asked how morale could be improved at work, breaks were the third most important factor. The best way to increase morale is to give positive reinforcements. The second way was how management treated employees. Breaks could fall into either of the first two categories. However, in their actual responses, participants named the two separately.

*Figure 2. How breaks affect morale and how to increase morale*
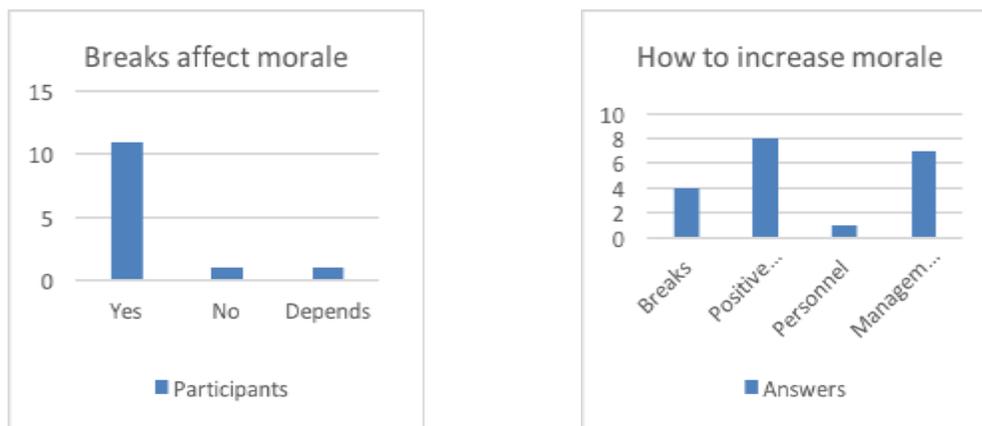
Research Question 2

RQ2: **What is the impact of breaks on employee satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry?** This research question was designed to obtain a better understanding of the possible relationship between work breaks, either meal or rest, and employee satisfaction for servers in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Employee satisfaction was the intrinsic factor and breaks were the extrinsic factors.

When asked if breaks affected satisfaction, the participants overwhelmingly answered yes. However, when asked how satisfaction could be improved at work, breaks were the fourth most important factor. The best way to increase morale was positive treatment from management. There was a tie for the second way, which were words of encouragement and personnel hiring and staffing. One could argue that breaks could fall into how management treats employees; however, based on actual answers from participants, they did name them separately.

Figure 3. How breaks affect satisfaction and how to increase satisfaction
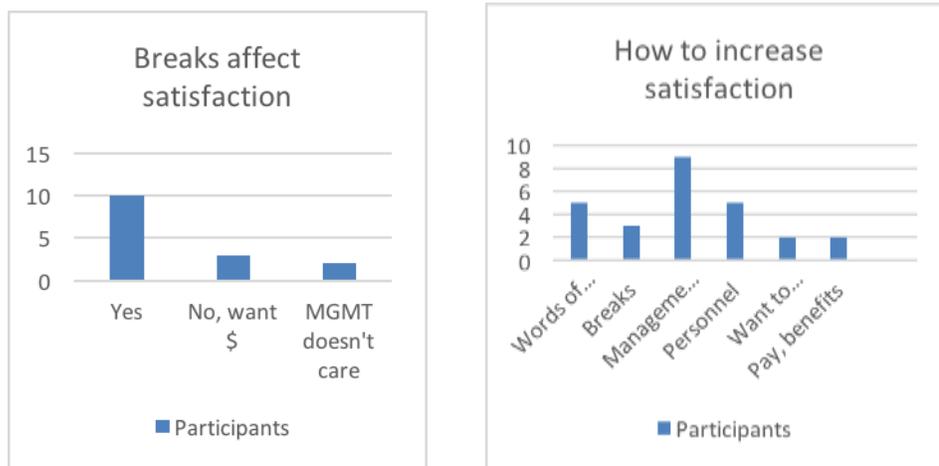
Research Data Versus Literature Review

Before analyzing how the research data compared to the literature review, intrinsic and extrinsic factors need to be defined again. Intrinsic factors, also known as motivation and/or intrinsic motivation, are factors that involve achievement, recognition (Pepe, 2011), praise, advancement (Smith & Shields, 2012), & personal needs (Tech-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Sukaini, Jing, Zghair Albazooni, 2015). Individuals need some type of intrinsic motivation to have job satisfaction and success (Raus, 2014; Sukaini et al., 2015). Shin and Kelly (2013) link self-determination theory with intrinsic factors, in that individuals who use intrinsic factors find self-fulfilling pleasure and satisfaction and use that as motivation to do well. Individuals who lack intrinsic motivation "tend to have unstable goals" (Shin & Kelly, 2013, p. 143; Raus, 2014) and are not as optimistic as individuals who have intrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic factors, also known as hygiene, are factors that come from external resources (Firmin, Orient, Steiner, & Firmin, 2013; Hubbard, Jervis, & Drake, 2016), such as culture, salary, employee discontent, policies, working conditions, and job

structure (Hyun & Oh, 2011; Cnar et al, 2011; Pepe, 2010; Dartet-Baah & Amoako, 2011). These factors will not motivate an individual to work hard or to have job satisfaction (Pepe, 2010), but contribute to dissatisfaction (Furnham et al., 2009). They can act as a starting point to motivate if dissatisfaction can be minimized (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011) and can help "prevent workers' discontent" (Hyun & Oh, 2011). This leads to the thought that hygiene factors do not have less effect than intrinsic factors (Cnar et al., 2011). Both factors need to be concentrated on in order to have a more productive, positive work force (Cnar et al., 2011).

Because both of these factors are needed to have a more productive, positive work force (Cnar et al., 2011), the research questions and interview questions were formatted to measure both factors. This included asking questions that gathered data on both intrinsic factors, employee morale and satisfaction, and extrinsic factors, breaks, how to increase, what affects morale and satisfaction, etc. This was accomplished by asking open-ended questions that looks for both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

From the data collected, breaks were defined as three different types, less than 10-minutes, which were defined as smoke breaks by participants; 10 – 30 minutes; and longer than 30 minutes (see table 7). There was no real distinction between rest breaks and meal breaks, expect for the less than 10-minute *smoke* break. Based on this, the time definitions differed from what was listed in the literature review. According to the U.S. DOL (2016), there are two types of breaks: short breaks and meal breaks. Short breaks typically last 5 to 20 minutes and are paid for by the company (USDOL, 2016; Segal, 2013). Meal breaks, which are any breaks from work that last at least 30 minutes, are

paid for by the employer (USDOL, 2016; Segal, 2013). In order for a lunch break to be paid, an employer must ensure that the employee is relieved from all work duties (Segal 2013).

Regardless of how they are defined, either by this research or federal statues, it was found that breaks had no bearing on employee morale and satisfaction. The results did show that the participants did believe that breaks had an effect on their employee morale and satisfaction, but when asked how their satisfaction and morale could be improved, the participants listed breaks as the third most important way for morale and the fourth most important way for satisfaction. When asked how satisfied they were with their employers and how their morale was at work, not one participant listed breaks as a positive or negative response. In fact, breaks were not discussed until the participants were asked direct questions regarding breaks during their workday (see tables 8 & 9).

For this study, employee satisfaction was defined as the extent to which employees are satisfied (Furnham et al., 2009) and the state of employment where an employee is in a positive emotional state about their work environment (Mahmood et al., 2014). In the literature review, many things were shown to affect satisfaction, including pressure to perform duties, open communication, being asked to do more with less, feeling burned out, and organizational culture. The data showed that these factors did have an effect. Organizational culture includes many factors in the work place, including the internal work environment, management, pay, and incentives (Karyotakis & Moutakis, 2016; Park, Lee, &Kim, 2016). These factors correlate with the data collected, therefore this study supports what was found in the literature review.

Morale was defined as the relationship one has with their work and their employer (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013), which can be high (positive) or low (negative). According to the literature review, morale affects employee efficiency and work quality of life, has an effect on organizational goals, and helps organizations remain competitive. These claims were not support directly with the research data because they were not included in the research or interview questions. However, just like satisfaction, morale can be affected by organizational culture because it affects the internal work environment, management, pay, and incentives (Karyotakis & Moutakis, 2016; Park, Lee, &Kim, 2016). Therefore, indirectly, the research data supported the literature review because management, pay, and personnel are part of the organizational culture.

Communication was discussed in the literature review for employee morale because it can have a positive effect on employee morale, if done correctly (Rawat et al., 2015). Calota et al. (2015) discussed the importance management's communication has on employees, which was shown in the results of this study to have a huge effect on employee morale and satisfaction. According to Calota et al (2015), managerial communication is vital for employees to feel like they are part of the organization. The more an individual feels their manager communicates with them, the more they feel truly involved in an organization. The results of this study showed that the participants believe that management is the key to increased morale and satisfaction in the restaurant environment (see tables 10 & 11).

One finding that came as a surprise and was not planned for was that there were distinct differences in employee satisfaction and morale when it came to servers in fine

dining versus casual dining restaurants. However, there were twice the number of casual servers interviewed as fine dining servers. Future studies can address this phenomenon to have a better understanding if there is, in fact, a difference between servers in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry.

Table 14.

Fine Dining Participants vs. Casual Dining Participants

Restaurant Type	# of Participants	% of Participants	Participants
Fine Dining	4	31%	P1, P4, P5, P6
Casual Dining	9	69%	P2, P3, P7, P8, P9, P11, P13, , P14, P15

The participants who had fine dining experience also had previous experience as a server in casual restaurant. According to the answers given, fine dining servers made more money during a shift than casual server on any given day. The differences between a casual and fine dining restaurant is that casual dining restaurants are moderately priced and serves food in a relaxed atmosphere, whereas fine dining restaurants are full service restaurants that are high in quality that consumers pay for and served in a luxurious atmosphere (Ha & Jang, 2013) This may be a reason for the discrepancy and can be studied in future research projects.

Limitations of Study

As discussed earlier, limitations in research pertain to the potential weaknesses (Simon, 2011) that are out of a researcher's control during a study, which can occur regardless of the method used (Patton, 2015). To ensure the data collected were valid, triangulation was utilized during the data collection and processing portion by utilizing

interviews, voice recordings, and member checking. Although the restaurant industry offers many avenues for research, this study was limited to studying employee satisfaction and morale only. All interviewees were actively working within a 50-mile radius of Clarksville, TN, and had 5 or more years of experience as servers. As a result, responses were limited by how breaks were given in this region, by employee expectations, and by Tennessee laws.

Another limitation that was noted once the study was complete was that there was a distinct difference between how servers in the fine dining restaurants answered compared to the servers in the casual dining. This could have been addressed during the recruitment phase by recruiting more fine dining servers. Future studies can be completed investigating differences between the two types of servers.

Recommendations

This study examined how breaks affect employee satisfaction and morale. The results showed that breaks can affect employee satisfaction and morale; however, there are other factors that influence satisfaction and morale more than breaks. Based on these results, more research is needed on employee morale and satisfaction in the casual and fine dining restaurant industry and how they can be increased versus what makes them decrease. This can be accomplished by using research done in other industries as a guide for research, such as Aydin & Ceylan (2011), Furnham et al. (2009), Halkos & Bousinakis (2010), Ismail & El Nakkache (2014), Rawat et al. (2015), Weyant (2009).

Another recommendation for further research would be to expand the area in which participants were recruited. A state-wide search or even a nationwide search may

produce additional information not obtained in this study. However, in a nationwide study, attention needs to be given to state laws because they may have an effect on the answers regarding work breaks. Every state has different laws, with only twenty-one states in the United States having laws regulating lunch breaks (Suchyta, 2014) and only seven states regulate rest breaks during the workday (Suchyta, 2014). To determine the sample size Marshall et al (2013) and Suri (2011) can be used for reference.

Another recommendation for future research would be to conduct a study that compares how men are treated versus women in the restaurant industry to see if there is a difference between the genders. Also, a future could study differences by race, nationality, and education. These types of studies would be beneficial to see if there is a difference in how a certain group is treated compared to another.

During this research, there were distinct difference between casual and fine dining participants' answers. For instance, participants that work in fine dining express more satisfaction with their work and employers than the casual restaurant servers. Fine dining servers also stated that they were not as interested in breaks or *rest periods* as casual workers because they felt that when they were not working, they were not making money.

One factor that was not mentioned by participants was the turnover effect of their satisfaction and morale. This type of data collection would require a more in-depth research project, which was not conducive to the time constrains that were on this project. There has been research done in other industries that could be used as examples for this

type of study. Some of these projects are: Davis (2013), Murphy et al (2009), Parzinger et al (2012), Pepe (2010), Rizwan & Mukhtar (2014), and Soltis et al (2013).

Lastly, based on the results of this study, it is recommended that a study is completed on how management affect employee morale and satisfaction. During the data analysis of this study, it was found that how management treats employees has the most effect on their satisfaction and morale. There have been many studies completed on this topic in other industries (Buble et al., 2014; Scheers & Botha, 2014; Ventura, 2006; Raina & Roebuck, 2014). There has also been research completed on customer satisfaction (Ma, Qu, Eliwa, 2014; Jin, Goh, Huffman, & Yuan, 2015; and Raab, Zemke, Hertzman, & Singh, 2013). But there is very limited research done on employee satisfaction and morale in the restaurant industry (Ellingson, Tews, & Dachner, 2016 & Koutroumanis, Alexakis, Dastoor, 2015) and how management factors into this.

Implications

Qualitative research is used when discovery is needed to help "understand, predict and control social phenomena" (Park & Park, 2016, p. 3). It allows the researcher to interact with the participant, which allows for a personal voice to help develop a theory (Park & Park, 2016). With regard to this study and social change, qualitative research can help develop a theory (Park & Park, 2016) that can change the restaurant industry, as will be evident as described now.

Bringing about positive social change to the US job market can take place in terms of "goals, objectives, and values" (Bano, 2014, p. 773). Social change is an important part of educational programs (Bano, 2014), including Walden University, and

the business world (Singh & Dutch, 2014; Ebrashi, 2013). The effects of social change on the dynamic business world are abundant, and being able to influence and enact positive change is an important part of leadership (Singh & Dutch, 2014).

This research focused on the effect work breaks have on individual servers in the restaurant industry. The positive social change aspects include allowing breaks to allow individuals to *recoup* during their shift. In addition, organizations need to look at how management is treating their employees. If employee satisfaction and morale can be increased by management treating them with respect and having an organizational culture that is positive (Moldovan & Macarie, 2014), an organization would be foolish not to want to make positive change to make this happen. Allowing managers and leaders to use the human resources of a company to enact positive social change is imperative to improving how businesses are run, how they grow, and how they increase their profitability.

Besides this research project shows need for more research on what affects servers in the casual and fine dining industry, this research could also lead to change within employment law. As previously stated, there are no federal laws mandating work breaks (U.S. DOL, 2016). Currently only 21 states that mandate lunch breaks (Suchyta, 2014) and 7 states that mandate rest breaks for employees.

Lastly, this research can help human resources (HR) advocate for better care for employees. This research showed ways employees think that employers can increase their satisfaction and morale. HR can use this to start implementing change in to management training and new hire orientations. Incorporating HR in social change within an

organization is necessary for the change to take place (Bajpai Singh & Dutch, 2014)

because HR can help optimize the change that is needed with employees.

Conclusions

This chapter has discussed the interpretations of findings, limitations of study,

recommendations, and implications of this research project. The main points to take away

are as follows. First, research was needed due to lack of research on servers and breaks in

the casual and fine dining restaurant industry. Secondly, this study showed there is a lack

of breaks in this type of work environment. Lastly, there was not a clear answer as to if

giving breaks would increase employee satisfaction and morale, but there is positive

correlation between employee satisfaction and morale and how they are treated by

management.

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Appendix A: Interview Questions

1.) How many years of experience do you have in the restaurant industry?

2.) How many different serving positions have you held? Please describe them to me.

3.) How would you describe your typical day working?

4.) What kind of breaks do you get during your shift? When? How long are they?

5.) Do you feel satisfied with your employer/work?

6.) Do you feel your morale at work is good or bad?

7.) What could your employer do to increase your satisfaction?

8.) What could your employer do to increase your morale?

9.) When you get breaks during your shift, does it help your morale?

10.) When you get breaks during your shift, does it help your satisfaction improve?