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SERVING UP CRIME:

A SOCIAL LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

OF EMPLOYEE DEVIANCE IN RESTAURANTS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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December 2011

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Title: Serving Up Crime: A Social Learning Perspective of Employee Deviance in Restaurants

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This study sought to examine the relationship between employee deviance within restaurants and the components of social learning theory. The behaviors examined in this research were based on the research of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) who defined employee deviance as two different categories of behavior – one directed against the organization (organizational deviance, production deviance, and property deviance), and the other directed against coworkers (interpersonal deviance).

While the literature on employee deviance in restaurants is limited, very few studies take into account more than one type of deviant behavior. In addition, some studies suggest that social learning theory may play a role, but few, if any, studies have examined the relationship between this theory and the types of deviance that are prevalent in the restaurant industry. Therefore, the current study was one of the first examinations of the process of social learning within the restaurant industry, making a contribution to the literature on social learning theory and employee deviance in restaurants.

This dissertation used a survey methodology to understand the extent of involvement in deviant behavior by restaurant employees, their coworkers' involvement in a number of deviant behaviors, the perceived reaction of managers and coworkers to these behaviors, and individual attitudes and perceived attitudes of coworkers of deviance

in the restaurant. The survey was administered via the Internet to a random sample of college students. Only those with experience in the restaurant industry were able to participate in the study.

The results from this study suggest that while employee deviance occurs in the restaurant industry, it is not prevalent. Although restaurant employees may be involved in certain types of deviance more than others, they are not deviant often. In addition, only two of the measures of social learning, "imitation" and "definitions", were significant in explaining increased involvement in employee deviance. This indicated that these two components help to understand employee deviance in restaurants more than the other social learning components.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Studying occupational or workplace deviance has been a topic of interest for sociologists and criminologists over the years. Edwin Sutherland (1940) introduced the concept of white collar crime, or crime "committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of his occupation" (p. 9). White collar crime commonly consists of violations of trust, such as embezzlement or fraud. Since Sutherland, occupational deviance has been expanded in the literature to include any crime that occurs within the context of one's occupation, including crimes against the public, intraorganizational crimes, deviant behavior in the workplace, antisocial behavior in the workplace, counterproductive behavior, dysfunctional behavior, and organizational misbehavior (Akers, 1973; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett, 2002; Vardi & Weitz, 2004).

Deviant and criminal behaviors have been studied in the context of many different types of organizations and occupations. In general, these studies are important because of the range of individuals who are affected by workplace deviance. Blount (2003) indicates that workplace deviance is "any illegal, unethical, or irresponsible act committed by an employee acting alone or in concert with a coworker or nonemployee that results in a loss to an organization, coworker, customer, or vendor" (p. 4). Most deviant behaviors that occur in the workplace can have effects that reach past that organization and impact members of society. For example, if a production worker on an assembly line is drinking or using drugs on the job, the product he or she is working on may not function properly. When the product reaches the market, its defects could cause

harm to those who purchased it. A corporate employee who is stealing from his or her company may cause the company to lose large amounts of money over time, eventually resulting in a loss of benefits to all employees and their families. In the same light, a restaurant employee who tampers with food, steals restaurant items, and bullies coworkers can have effects that reach the general public, the organization, and other coworkers. Over the years, the restaurant industry has been subject to studies of employee behavior and deviance. The importance of these studies is mostly attributed to the fact that restaurants make up a large part of American society, with Americans eating approximately one in five meals per week at dining establishments. Hence, much of the deviant behavior that occurs within the restaurant industry affects the overall dining experience of members of society.

Studies that focus on employee deviance in restaurants are also important because the restaurant industry employs thousands of workers from high school students to middle aged adults. The largest concentration of employees falls between the ages of 18 and 34 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). This age group tends to be attracted to this occupation because most restaurant positions do not have educational requirements, and many high school and college students rely on restaurants to fulfill part time and seasonal employment while still attending school. The ability to earn tips immediately through bartending or waiting tables is attractive to this population as well (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a). Based on this, most research that studies restaurant employees uses student populations or people within this age group (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Kjaerhiem et al., 1995; Langton et al., 2006; Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Thoms et al., 2001; Trevino & Victor, 1992; Tucker, 1993).

While restaurants operate differently than other industries, they are just as susceptible to employee crime and deviance as other occupations. Organizational or employee deviance refers to behaviors that can hurt or cause losses to the organization, coworkers, or customers through the breaking of organizational norms (Kidwell & Martin, 2005). In the restaurant industry, these behaviors often include, but are not limited to, theft, destruction of food and restaurant property, sexual harassment, bullying, and drug and alcohol use.

Problems with employee deviance have been prevalent in the restaurant industry for years. Restaurant publications, such as *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, from as early as the 1970's address problems such as employee theft and sexual harassment, and provide managers with ways to alleviate these problems (Barrett, 1971; Aaron & Dry, 1992; Withiam, 1996). However, despite the industry's attempt to fix these problems, employee deviance in restaurants still occurs.

Deviant behavior in restaurants is generally hidden from the public, but known by workers in the industry. Therefore, customers are not always aware of how actions by employees may affect the outcome of their restaurant dining experience. With the recent advancements in Internet technology, a number of blogs and websites have appeared, most of which are created and maintained by restaurant employees. Blogs such as "The Bitchy Waiter", "Stuck Serving", "Surviving Serving", "Restaurant Rage", and "Slightly Cranky Waitress"[1] all provide restaurant employees outlets to vent their work related frustrations in a public but anonymous manner. A quick read through these blogs will

[1] http://thebitchywaiter.com/, http://www.stuckserving.com/, http://survivingserving.blogspot.com/, http://restaurantrage.blogspot.com/, http://slightlycrankywaitress.blogspot.com/

give the casual reader a glimpse into the activities workers do to get even with irritating customers, coworkers, and management.

Popular culture, including television, movies, and books, has attempted to capitalize on the inner workings of the restaurant industry, even to the extent of addressing the criminal and deviant behavior that has seemingly become part of the restaurant culture. For example, renowned chef Anthony Bourdain gives readers an inside look into the lives of restaurant employees in his book *Kitchen Confidential* (2007). Bourdain warns readers of the prevalence of "heavy drinking, drugs…[and] unappetizing revelations about bad food-handling and unsavory industry-wide practices" (Bourdain, 2007, p. 5). He goes on to describe not only his experiences preparing main dishes in restaurants throughout the country, but also his experiences and observations of the prevalent criminal and deviant behavior that occurred in those restaurants. The movies *Waiting…*(2005) and *Still Waiting…*(2009) follow a number of employees through their work related shenanigans at a fictional establishment called ShenaniganZ. Behaviors such as doing drugs and alcohol while at work, bullying and sexually harassing coworkers, and tampering with food among other things are all addressed. While the public generally takes these mediums of popular culture as entertainment, most do not realize the extent to which these pop culture renditions are based on fact.

Every so often, a story about the deviant behavior of restaurant employees makes it to the national news. The fast food chain McDonald's has recently reported incidences of drug use and drug sales (Sherman, 2009). CNN also ran stories on employee theft in restaurants and ways that managers can control it (Nowak, 1997), along with stories of drug use in the industry (CNN, 2002). These kinds of reports alert the public to the

reality of restaurant deviance. However, there have not been any landmark news stories that garnered great public interest. Despite these glimpses into employee deviance in restaurants, most behavior remains hidden to the public. Therefore, research that focuses on the nature and extent of these behaviors is important, since many members of society are unknowingly victims of employee deviance. Understanding the prevalence of employee deviance and how it may be perpetuated within the restaurant industry could lead to industry-wide changes within restaurants.

The purpose of the current study was to further understand specific types of employee deviance within restaurants, such as theft, destruction of property, sexual harassment, bullying, and drug and alcohol use while working. It also sought to understand the influence of social learning on employee deviance. The primary research question for this study was, "what is the relationship between social learning (differential reinforcement, differential association, imitation, and definitions) and employee deviance in restaurants?" This study was a significant addition to the literature on deviance by restaurant employees and the literature on empirical tests of social learning theory. The study was completed using a sample of undergraduate college students who have worked in a restaurant. A survey was administered via the Internet, asking respondents to indicate the extent of their involvement and their coworkers' involvement in a number of deviant behaviors, the perceived reaction of managers and coworkers to these behaviors, and individual attitudes and perceived attitudes of coworkers of deviance in the restaurant.

Chapters II and III discuss the existing literature on employee deviance and social learning. This discussion provides a background for the purpose of the current study and

how it builds on previous research. Chapter IV provides an explanation and justification of the research methods that were used in the study. This includes a discussion of the site selection, survey administration, and survey instrument, including the pre-test that was conducted prior to the current study. Chapter V presents and discusses the results of the analyses and answers the research questions for this study. Chapter VI further examines the results, discusses the strengths and limitations of the current study, and provides directions for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The existing literature on crime and deviance by restaurant employees, while significant, is limited. Therefore, this chapter addresses some general studies on employee deviance in other industries. Three related areas relevant to this study have surfaced throughout the literature: classifications of deviance, specific types of employee crime and deviance, and types of crime and deviance in restaurant settings. Each of these areas will be discussed in detail in the following sections. This discussion provides the background information necessary to understand why the current study is needed and how it fits into the existing body of literature on employee deviance.

Deviance

Before discussing employee deviance and its types and causes, a general explanation of deviance is necessary. In criminology and sociology, deviance is defined as the breaking of the rules or norms of a particular group or society (Adler & Adler, 1994; Akers, 1973; Becker, 1963). These rules or norms are usually agreed upon definitions for what is considered acceptable behavior in a given situation. According to Goode (2008), there are four components that must exist in order for deviance to occur: a) a rule or norm must be violated in the presence of an audience, b) that audience must have a reaction or make a judgment, c) the reaction is usually negative, and d) it is about the deviant behavior (Goode, 2008, p. 3).

Depending on the situation, what is considered deviant is not necessarily a crime, although most crimes are considered deviant behavior. However, the line between deviance and crime is not solid, as there is often conceptual overlap (Adler & Adler,

1994; Akers, 1973; Goode, 2002, 2008). Goode (2002, 2008) provides an example of this. Robbery and theft are two acts that are formally punishable by law, but participating in these acts is also regarded as deviant, because it goes against a general rule of not taking things that do not belong to you. Studies of employee deviance tend to concentrate on both deviant and criminal behaviors, as both are prevalent in the workplace.

Employee Deviance

Throughout the literature, deviance in the workplace is categorized in different ways. In general, this body of research is broadly defined as employee or occupational deviance. This refers to "voluntary acts that break major organizational norms and threaten the welfare of the organization and/or its members" (Kidwell & Martin, 2005, p. 5). It is also considered "any illegal, unethical, or irresponsible act committed by an employee acting alone or in concert with a coworker or nonemployee that results in a loss to an organization, coworker, customer or vendor" (Blount, 2003, p. 4). Essentially, almost every study on this topic defines employee deviance in a slightly different way. It is important to discuss the different ways deviance has been conceptualized in past studies in order to provide a foundation for the conceptual definitions used in this study. Some of the significant conceptualizations of employee deviance in the literature are employee resistance, rule breaking, and organizational and interpersonal deviance. Even though each of these can be viewed as unique, there are behaviors that can fit into multiple categories. Each of these areas is discussed in this section.

Employee Resistance

Some researchers have discussed employee resistance when studying forms of employee deviance. Employee resistance is the use of certain actions by employees to counteract or resist rules or behaviors they do not agree with within their place of work (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006; Tucker, 1993). This type of deviant behavior occurs primarily as a direct response to what the employee defines as unnecessary or unimportant rules within the organization. For example, working for low wages may cause employees to respond with deviant acts directed at the organization.

Tucker (1993) used employee resistance to understand the ways in which employees in temporary positions responded aspects of the job that they did not enjoy. He surveyed 277 undergraduate students who were temporary workers at the time of the study, or in the recent past. The main focus of the research was to understand how the employees reacted to specific problems between themselves and the organization, such as disciplinary practices in the workplace, disagreements over wages, scheduling issues, how the organization addressed inappropriate workplace behavior, work assignments, and company ethics (Tucker, 1993, p. 29-30). Using an open-ended survey, Tucker (1993) found that the main forms of employee resistance were gossip (50%), confrontation (29%), resignation (23%), toleration (18%), theft (7%), sabotage (5%), non-cooperation (5%), and collective action (2%) (p. 30-37). In essence, temporary workers were more likely than long-term workers to respond to negative work conditions through resistance because they are only working at the organization for a short amount of time and are not heavily invested in any organizational outcomes. While not all of these behaviors are deviant, this study illustrates that employees react to certain work

situations in different ways, and that a wide range of behaviors can occur in the workplace. While this study focused on temporary workers, it is possible that similar 'resistant' behaviors exist among longer term employees. Other conceptualizations of workplace deviance have similar findings.

Rule Breaking

Employee deviance has also been conceptualized as rule breaking in some studies (Bryant & Higgins, 2009; Morrison, 2006). Bryant and Higgins (2009) examined how definitions of what is deviant changes how behavior is viewed by others. They found that the way organizational norms and deviance were defined within the workplace itself influenced what was considered to be deviant behavior in that context. Specifically, they argued that when studying workplace behaviors, distinctions need to be made, if necessary, between what is rule breaking and what is deviance as defined by the individual employer or industry. In this way, the breaking of certain rules in one workplace may not be considered deviant, but it may be in another based on their organizational norms. For example, some restaurants may allow their employees to eat food that may expire soon without charge that has not been sold by the end of the day, while other restaurants may not allow employees to eat any food without paying. This provides a different way of examining employee deviance, illustrating the importance of understanding the context of the organization itself.

Employee deviance and rule breaking can also have positive connotations (Bindl & Parker, in press; Morrison, 2006; Puffer, 1987). Unlike almost all other research on employee deviance that classifies this behavior as negative, Morrison (2006) takes a different approach and focuses on positive connotations of deviance. For example, she

studied what happens when employees deviate from organizational rules and policies in order to help the organization. This positively intended employee deviance from the rules and policies is defined as pro-social rule breaking. Using three separate studies, Morrison (2006) found that most employees engage in pro-social behavior, or behavior that is against the rules but actually benefits the organization. For example, it may be close to the end of the business day for an organization, and a customer wants to place an order at that time. Company policy may dictate that new orders cannot be taken ten minutes prior to closing, yet the employee may choose to take the order to help the client and still benefit the organization with the sale. This is important to keep in mind while addressing other studies of employee deviance, particularly because employees may view their deviance from the rules as actually helping the organization rather than hurting it. While employee resistance and rule breaking are not found extensively in the employee deviance literature, they are important components for understanding how employee deviance is conceptualized. The next section details a more common classification of employee deviance, deviant acts against the workplace and deviant acts against coworkers.

Organizational and Interpersonal Deviance

A landmark study by Robinson and Bennett (1995) and their follow-up study (2000) offered a different conceptualization of deviance. They conceptualized employee deviance as deviant acts against the workplace (organizational deviance) and deviant acts against coworkers (interpersonal deviance). Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) first established four quadrants of deviant workplace behaviors that varied from minor to serious and against the organization or other employees (see Figure 1).

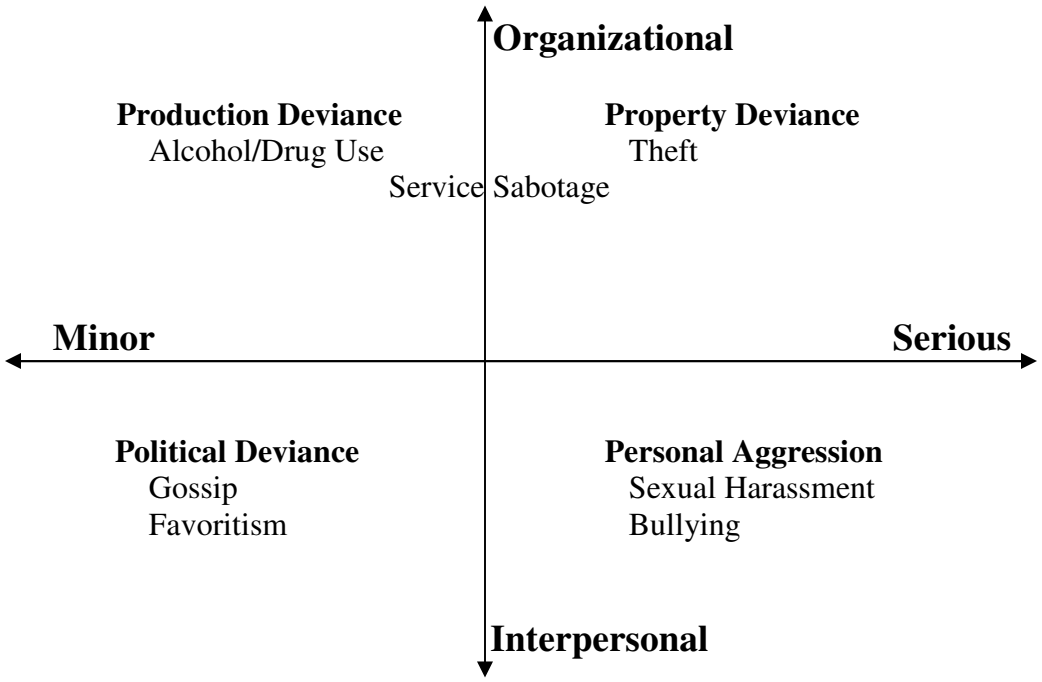

Figure 1. Robinson and Bennett's Conceptualization of Deviance (1995, 2000).

A number of studies use these definitions of deviance (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Everton, Jolton, & Mastrangelo, 2007; Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Because of the importance of the work by Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000), a description of their research is necessary.

Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) stated that deviance against the organization was separated into production and property deviance. Production deviance was considered a minor form of organizational deviance due to the less serious nature of the effects of the actions. Behaviors such as leaving early, taking excessive breaks, intentionally working slow, consuming alcohol or drugs while working, or wasting resources were considered production deviance. Property deviance, on the other hand,

was considered a serious form of organizational deviance due to the more serious, and often criminal, nature of the actions. Behaviors such as sabotaging equipment, lying about work hours, and stealing items from the company were considered property deviance.

In contrast to organizational deviance, interpersonal deviance consisted of behaviors that occur between coworkers in an organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; 2000). Interpersonal deviance is generally divided into political deviance and personal aggression. Political deviance was considered minor interpersonal deviance because the actions do not pose a physical threat to employees. Behaviors such as showing favoritism, gossiping about coworkers, and blaming coworkers for certain work-related outcomes were considered political deviance. Personal aggression was considered serious interpersonal deviance due to the physical and harmful nature of threats against employees. Behaviors such as sexual harassment, bullying (verbal abuse), stealing from coworkers, and endangering coworkers were all considered to be forms of personal aggression. While all of these behaviors are listed by Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) as important components of interpersonal deviance, most of the literature on employee deviance focuses on bullying itself. What follows is a presentation of studies that have examined organizational and interpersonal deviance.

Production Deviance

Many researchers classify organizational deviance as being either property or production deviance (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; 2000). Production deviance is defined as activities that disrupt the flow of

production, such as arriving to work late, sabotaging service, drinking alcohol or doing drugs while working (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Hollinger et al., 1992).

Property Deviance

Property deviance is defined as theft, destruction, and giving away of restaurant property, usually food or company supplies, for the employee's own benefit (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; 2000). A number of important studies by Hollinger and Clark (1982, 1983a, 1983b) aided in the development of these concepts through a large study of 47 organizations in retail merchandise corporations, electronics manufacturing, and general hospitals. The purpose of these studies was to better understand the conditions under which employees commit theft, a type of property deviance, in formal organizations (Hollinger & Clark, 1983a, p. 399). Hollinger and Clark studied the impact of general job dissatisfaction, deterrence, and formal and informal social control on employee theft. Results indicated that the reaction of coworkers (informal social control) was more influential in whether one engages in theft than the reaction of management (formal social control) (Hollinger & Clark, 1982). Also, deterrence from this deviant behavior was strongest when both certainty of detection and severity of punishment were high (Hollinger & Clark, 1983a).

Service Sabotage

Service sabotage, or the intentional destruction of services by employees, is a type of both property and production deviance. Ambrose, Seabright, and Schminke (2002) studied individual accounts of service sabotage in the workplace. They were interested in understanding the factors that were related to, or led to sabotage. The researchers found that service sabotage was most likely to occur if an individual felt that they were treated

unfairly (59.8%), felt powerless (19.7%), or were bored or looking for fun (10.7%) (p. 958). This illustrates that there is a wide variety of reasons why an employee engages in production deviance through service sabotage. While there are many studies that focus on organizational deviance, it is also important to consider interpersonal deviance when examining the workplace.

Political Deviance

According to Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000), political deviance is considered a minor form of interpersonal deviance and consists of showing favoritism, gossiping about coworkers, and blaming coworkers for certain work-related outcomes. While this type of deviance itself is studied very little in the literature on employee deviance, it is important to briefly mention it since aspects of political deviance have been considered alongside other types of employee deviance. As mentioned above, Tucker (1993) studied employee resistance, and found that gossip was a type of resistance used by employees to resist unwanted work conditions. This illustrates that while political deviance is generally not studied on its own, measures of it have been included in studies that address other forms of employee deviance.

Personal Aggression

Many of the studies that examine interpersonal deviance in the workplace focus on bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006). Einarsen and colleagues (2003) discussed the primary types of bullying behavior and how bullying is generally measured in empirical studies. While their focus was mainly on European countries, many of their findings can still be applied in places like the United States. The primary types of bullying behavior are comments or actions regarding a person's work

performance, social isolation of coworkers, personal attacks or attacks on someone's private life, verbal threats in public, spreading rumors, and physical violence (Einarsen et al., 2003, p. 9). Bullying is usually measured by individual perceptions of exposure to bullying behaviors and personal victimization from bullying at work. However, as Einarsen at al. (2003) indicate, it is just as important to consider the reasons why bullying occurs in the workplace. There may be an imbalance in power between the bully and the victim, which makes bullying a viable option for the bully to exercise power in the workplace. Also, bullying is a process where at certain points the bully may or may not have clear intentions for the behavior. These are factors that need to be considered when studying bullying in the workplace.

Lutgen-Sandvik (2006) investigated the types of resistance utilized by employees who had been bullied. Out of the types she discussed, one in particular is important because it facilitates other forms of deviance. For example, subversive disobedience was used by employees who had been bullied and involved slowing production in order to retaliate against the bully. This is similar to the concept of production deviance (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992) which was discussed in detail in the previous section. When an individual has been a victim of bullying, he or she retaliated against the bully in ways that hurt both the organization and the individual coworker. The results of Lutgen-Sandvik's (2006) study illustrate the significance of studying how being a victim of workplace deviance can lead to involvement in more employee deviance.

Understanding employee deviance from the perspectives of organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance is

important for the current study. Defining employee deviance in this way determined the behaviors that were included in the study. Beyond that, this section illustrated that deviance in the context of the workplace can be conceptualized in many different ways. The following sections illustrate the ways in which these conceptualizations are further defined in terms of specific deviant acts and causes of those acts within the restaurant setting.

Types of Crime/Deviance in Restaurant Settings

Research that has examined employee deviance in a restaurant setting is limited. The majority of these studies focus on property and production deviance such as drug and alcohol use (Doern & Kates, 1998; Kjaerheim et al., 1995; Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003), service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), and theft (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Krippel et al., 2008; Thoms et al., 2001). Research on interpersonal deviance in restaurant settings, such as sexual harassment (Agrusa et al., 2002; Erickson, 2004; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Weber et al., 2002) and bullying (Johns & Menzel, 1999; Mathisen et al., 2008), is less prevalent. Additionally, only very few studies address more than one type of deviant behavior by employees in restaurants (Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Liao et al., 2004; Poulston, 2008). Table 1 presents seventeen of the most significant studies on restaurant deviance, including their method, sample, and main focus. The following sections in this chapter discuss these studies in detail. Organizational deviance, which includes property and production deviance, are considered first, and then studies that have focused on interpersonal deviance are presented. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the few studies that have addressed more than one type of deviant behavior in the restaurant setting.

Table 1

Studies Examining Employee Deviance by Restaurant Employees

Date	Author(s)	Method	Sample	Topic
1995	Kjaerheim et al.	Survey	3,267 restaurant employees	Alcohol Use
1998	Doern & Kates	Observations and Interviews	5 restaurant employees (interviews)	Alcohol Use
2003	Larsen & Jorgensen	Survey	176 students	Alcohol Use
1993	Anders	Interviews	Not reported	Sexual Harassment
1994	Giuffre & Williams	Interviews	18 servers	Sexual Harassment
2002	Agrusa et al.	Survey	674 restaurant employees	Sexual Harassment
2002	Weber et al.	Survey	330 restaurant employees	Sexual Harassment
2004	Erickson	Observations and Interviews	Not reported	Sexual Harassment
2008	Mathisen et al.	Survey	207 restaurant employees	Bullying and Sexual Harassment
1999	Johns & Menzel	Interviews	Not reported	Bullying
1984	Hawkins	Survey	41 waiters	Theft
1992	Hollinger, Slora, & Terris	Survey	341 fast food employees	Theft
1998	Ghiselli & Ismail	Survey	103 restaurant employees	Theft
2001	Thoms et al.	Survey	152 students	Theft
2008	Poulston	Survey	534 food service employees	Theft
2008	Krippel et al.	Survey	116 restaurant employees	Theft
2002	Harris & Ogbonnna	Interviews	182 restaurant and hotel workers	Service sabotage

Production Deviance in Restaurants

Drug and alcohol use. Using drugs and/or alcohol while at work is a category of organizational deviant behavior that employees often engage in while working in restaurants. Most studies tend to focus on drinking on the job, due to the fact that many restaurants contain bars and a large supply of alcohol easily accessible by employees. Factors such as position in the restaurant (front of the house or back of the house) and the

nature of working in restaurants (shift/hours worked, proximity to alcohol, stress of customer service) are significant in explaining drinking on the job. Doern and Kates (1998) studied front of the house staff consisting of waiters, waitresses, and bartenders and used social learning theory as an explanation why social drinking occurred among restaurant employees. Their findings illustrated that this type of behavior may be learned in the context of the restaurant. Using participant observation and in-depth interviews with five employees, the researchers found that there are incentives for employees to drink at work "[which are] initiated by staff, management, and/or restaurant policy [and] are common and may be considered necessary to the effective operation of the restaurant" (Doern & Kates, 1998, p. 483). Ultimately, it is the context of the restaurant that influences employees to engage in drug and alcohol use while working or after the restaurant is closed. While this study had an extremely small sample, it does provide support for further studying social learning theory and its relationship to employee deviance in the restaurant industry.

In a similar study, Kjaerheim, Mykletun, Aasland, Haldersen, and Anderson (1995) studied both waiters and cooks and how working in a restaurant affected drinking patterns of employees. In their sample of 3,267 employees, they found that having coworkers who drank after work both at the restaurant and elsewhere and working in an establishment that did not exert much control over drinking greatly influenced alcohol drinking patterns among waiters and cooks. While this study was completed in Norway, it is still applicable to restaurants in the United States, as it provides reasons to study the influence of coworkers on deviance by employees.

Larsen and Jorgensen (2003) took a different approach to studying alcohol use in restaurants. They wanted to test whether self-selection into the industry or learning and socialization better explained drinking of hotel and restaurant workers. After an analysis of the survey responses of 176 college students studying hotel/restaurant management and other majors, Larsen and Jorgensen (2003) found that the hotel/restaurant students had higher alcohol scores than the other students. The alcohol scores were compiled from the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT), where respondents indicate the amount and frequency of alcohol consumed in a specific time frame. They also discovered that those that had little or no experience in the industry had lower alcohol consumption than those that had worked in the industry longer. The results of this study were inconclusive as to whether socialization also plays a role, indicating that further studies are needed.

The findings of these three studies indicate the importance of socialization factors and their potential influence on alcohol use by employees in the restaurant setting. Specifically, the individual actions and reactions of both coworkers and managers can aid in the learning and acceptance of these behaviors. It is also possible that the conditions of working in a restaurant, such as proximity to alcohol, can influence the alcohol use of restaurant employees. Engaging in alcohol use during work is considered a form of production deviance because it affects the employee's ability to work effectively, resulting in damage to the organization through mistakes on food orders, slower work progress, or unintentional destruction of restaurant property. In addition to both alcohol use and service sabotage, it is also important to consider the significance of theft when discussing the actions of employees against the restaurant organization.

Property Deviance in Restaurants

Theft. Theft is one of the most common deviant behaviors studied in the context of the restaurant (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Krippel et al., 2008; Thoms et al., 2001). Hawkins (1984) presented one of the earliest and most influential studies on employee theft in the restaurant industry. In order to understand the frequency of employee theft, and the reasons why employees engaged in this act, Hawkins focused on five different types of theft by waiters. Hawkins (1984) defined giving food to friends without charge and stealing items from the restaurant as social restaurant theft, while failing to add items to a bill and selling items from the restaurant after they had been stolen was defined as pecuniary restaurant theft. In addition, pecuniary customer theft occurred when waiters did one of three things to a customer's bill: added extra items (bill padding), did not give enough change, and added more of a tip to a credit card. Other waiters were victims of theft when waiters took tips that were not theirs or did not contribute any tip money to the tip pool. The last category of theft, infrequent theft, consisted of splitting food or money with cooks, selling one's own wine at the restaurant, and stealing money from the register (Hawkins, 1984).

Using a sample of 41 waiters from four similar restaurants, Hawkins (1984) administered surveys to understand the frequency of employee theft and reasons for committing this act by waiters in the restaurant industry. Hawkins (1984) found that employee theft was widely known and committed among waiters and that theft did not occur because of work attitudes or neutralizations, but rather because of the conditions and nature of the job. Specifically, committing deviant acts within the restaurant induces a sense of solidarity within the social structure of the restaurant, especially when

employees engage in certain behaviors together. It gives employees something to talk about and increases their chances of achieving different statuses within the restaurant (Hawkins, 1984). While this is one of the landmark studies on employee deviance in restaurants that provides a basic framework for how to design a quantitative study, it could have been improved. Mainly, including a larger sample of other types of restaurant employees in different types of restaurants would increase the generalizeablity of the study and help researchers to understand more about employee deviance in the restaurant industry. In addition to Hawkins' (1984) study, other researchers have focused on different aspects of employee theft in restaurants.

Thoms et al. (2001) studied the relationship between employee turnover in restaurants and the amount of employee theft that occurred. They first collected secondary data obtained from a single restaurant chain regarding theft and turnover rates. Next, they surveyed 152 undergraduate students in business and hospitality management, most of whom had worked in the restaurant industry at some point. Using hypothetical scenarios that presented a situation conducive to theft, Thoms et al. (2001) found that most individuals were likely to steal from the restaurant when the employee planned to quit the job in the near future. This illustrates that the temporary nature of most restaurant positions can influence employees to engage in theft because the job is only a temporary one for them at that time.

Other factors have been studied in relation to employee theft in restaurants. For example, Ghiselli & Ismail (1998) were specifically interested in social control aspects of theft and whether any control mechanisms prevented employee theft. Using a self report method, the authors surveyed 103 employees from 18 different restaurants regarding their

engagement in theft during work. Ghiselli and Ismail (1998) used the survey to ask employees to quantify their deviant behaviors and report the extent to which other employees engaged in certain behaviors. While the authors only asked respondents to estimate the extent to which other employees engaged in theft, they did not study the perceived acceptability of theft within the restaurant. Including this aspect in the study would have helped to better interpret the impact of control mechanisms within the restaurant. However, Ghiselli and Ismail (1998) found that there were no significant differences when a specific policy or procedure was in place to control for deviant opportunities. This included the use of inventory control practices (cameras, use of special keys, inspecting employees' belongings) and cash-handling practices (one person access to cash register, cameras) (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998, p. 182-184). Instead, the context of the employee's position and opportunity were more important in encouraging theft than control mechanisms prevented theft. For example, cooks were more likely to steal food, while bartenders or servers who had access to the register were more likely to steal money. The authors also found that eating food from the restaurant without permission was the most prevalent type of theft, followed by providing free food and/or drinks to friends and taking money or restaurant property (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998, p. 8). Other studies have similar findings in regard to what employees steal from the restaurant setting where they work.

In their analyses, Krippel et al. (2008) identified particular items that were typically stolen in the restaurant industry, such as cash, food, beverages, inventory, and prepared meals. Their study took place in tourism related restaurants and bars in Myrtle Beach, South Carolina. Using two samples of employers in 2000 and 2005, 116 and 64

employees respectively, the authors investigated the total involvement in theft, characteristics of those who committed the act, and how the organization discovered the theft (Krippel et al., 2008, p. 228). Over 50% of the employers reported that employee theft was a problem, mostly occurring during the day shift when full time employees were working. Besides shift worked and tenure, age, gender, and drug and alcohol use were significant in predicting theft. Males in their mid 20s were most involved in this behavior. For the most part, the restaurants in this study did not use many preventative measures to control employee theft. Reactions to theft ranged from alerting other employees of the punishment, firing the employee, formally prosecuting the employee, or suing the guilty employee (Krippel et al., 2008). In addition to focusing on reactions of others to employee theft, some studies examined the excuses given by employees when engaging theft in the restaurant setting.

Poulston's (2008) study built on both Hawkins (1984) and Ghiselli and Ismail (1998), but focused on the importance of employee perceptions and engagement in theft and other deviant behaviors in the food service industry. Surveys were administered to 534 employees in various positions in restaurants, nightclubs, bars, and hotels, with survey items specifically measuring perceived number of instances of theft (how often theft occurred by other employees), perceived tolerance by other employees, and perceived tolerance of behaviors by managers. Theft was found to be one of the most common types of deviance within food service, with less important and unused items (i.e. food not used that would be thrown out) indicated as the most likely targets. This type of deviance was highly tolerated among restaurant staff (Poulston, 2008, p. 53).

Poulston (2008) also explored the excuses used by employees when committing theft. Using open ended questions at the end of the survey instrument, Poulston (2008) discovered eight categories of reasons and excuses for theft: error, excess, insignificance, location, cost, utility, acceptability, and ubiquity (Poulston, 2008). Error was considered an excuse when an employee stated that they did not intentionally steal the item; rather, it accidentally ended up in their possession. An example of this would be if a waiter or waitress was given pens by the employer to use to take orders, and then started bringing them home after work instead of returning them. Excess was considered an excuse most often when food items were stolen. Cooks especially claimed that certain food items were going to be thrown out anyways, so they were not doing anything wrong by taking the excess food home. Insignificance was considered an excuse when the employee admitted to stealing items they felt were not important, such as pens or paper.

Location was considered an excuse when employees admitted to eating food or using something at the restaurant and not removing it from the business. It was not considered stealing to them because they never officially took anything home with them. Cost was considered an excuse when the items stolen were thought to be of low cost from the perspective of the employee. Utility and acceptability were considered excuses when employees felt they were being helpful or that others did not care. Lastly, ubiquity was considered an excuse when employees felt that everyone else was stealing, so there was nothing wrong with them doing it as well. These excuses are important considerations in studies of restaurant deviance, especially in understanding why these behaviors occur, and how they are related to different aspects of restaurant work.

Based on a review of the literature related to theft by restaurant employees, it is evident that it is one of the most commonly researched forms of workplace deviance in restaurants. Each study notes that employee demographics such as shift worked, position in the restaurant, gender, and age, have all been found to be related to theft. Also, perceived instances of theft by other employees, perceived informal and formal control of other employees on personal engagement in theft, and approval of theft have all been found to be significantly related to the amount of employee theft that occurs in the restaurant. It is also possible, however, that employee theft occurs alongside other types of organizational employee deviance.

Hollinger, Slora, and Terris (1992) studied different components of both property and production deviance in the fast food industry by surveying 341 managers and employees in two national fast food restaurant chains. The survey consisted of self report measures of various types of deviance, workplace attitudes, and demographic characteristics. The dependent variable of deviance was divided into two different categories: property, and production. As discussed above, production deviance is classified by behaviors that disrupt the flow of production in the restaurant, such as employees arriving to work late or using drugs or alcohol during their shift. Property deviance occurs when employees steal items from the restaurant or when they purposely destroy food or drink items.

Results indicated that production deviance was committed by all categories of employees both young and old, especially when perceived employer unfairness was high (Hollinger et al., 1992, p.178). Also, property deviance is committed most by young employees (Hollinger et al, 1992, p. 174-176). The research by Hollinger et al. (1992) is

significant because it demonstrates that different classifications of organizational deviance in the workplace can be studied together in order to better understand common causal factors. In addition to theft, another specific form of deviance committed by employees, known as service sabotage, is directed against the restaurant and results in damage to the effectiveness of the organization in providing its services.

Service Sabotage

Service sabotage is the intentional destruction of services by employees, and has been examined in the restaurant industry (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Through interviews with 182 restaurant and hotel workers, Harris and Ogbonna (2002) discovered a number of factors that influence four distinct types of service sabotage committed by restaurant employees – customary-private, customary-public, sporadic-private, and sporadic-public. The factors that impact service sabotage are further separated into four categories: individual, group and role, firm, and environmental factors (p. 172). Individual factors are comprised of attitudes toward risk taking, career orientation (whether or not one plans to stay in the restaurant position as a career), personality traits (extroversion), and demographic factors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, p. 173). Group and role factors are comprised of the nature of the work, socialization and on the job training, strength and prevalence of certain subcultural values (group influence), and demographic factors (p. 173-174). Firm factors consist of surveillance techniques and various control initiatives in the workplace (both informal and formal measures) (p. 174-175). Finally, environmental factors are based on the conditions of the labor market, such as typical work hours and nature of the job (p. 175). Based on these factors, Harris and Ogbonna

(2002) constructed a typology of service sabotage: customary-private, customary-public, sporadic-private, and sporadic-public.

Customary-private sabotage is typically behavior that is hidden, especially from customers, but has become part of the behavioral norms of the restaurant. It can take the form of revenge on customers through back-of-house action, such as messing with food items. More common is the ranting and raving about customers that occurs in the back-of-house areas that are out of public view. These types of behaviors are a common component of working in restaurants, and have become an important part of the informal training and socialization process. In other words, restaurant employees learn through coworkers that it is acceptable to release frustration directed towards customers in the back-of-the-house area where the customer is unaware of what is occurring. The other types of sabotage discussed by Harris and Ogbonna (2002) can also be considered as behaviors that are learned throughout the course of employment. Customary-public sabotage is behavior that is public and visible to both customers and coworkers, but whose purpose is only known to coworkers. Common actions include frequently talking to guests who are in a hurry to leave, thus slowing down both the restaurant and the customer, or deliberately acting in a condescending manner toward a customer.

The next two types of behaviors do not occur as often, but are still significant components of service sabotage. Sporadic-private sabotage consists of workplace humor, or ways of venting frustrations through slowing down orders or discontinuing work such as not washing dishes completely. This behavior is hidden from the public, but will invariably affect their experience. Sporadic-public sabotage consists of disrupting service in a more public manner, such as damaging property of a customer or harming

customers. Taken together, all of these types of sabotage can work positively to change employee satisfaction with work by making work more satisfying and enjoyable, but also can have a negative effect on the organization and customers (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Similar to the research on alcohol use by employees, the study by Harris and Ogbonna (2002) illustrated that socialization factors by coworkers can aid in the learning and acceptance of engaging in deviant acts that can damage the production of food and services in the restaurant. While the studies presented in this section focus on deviant behaviors directed against the organization, many studies also consider deviant behaviors directed against other employees.

Political Deviance in Restaurants

As mentioned above, political deviance appears to be studied very little in the general literature on employee deviance. Some research that focuses on employee deviance in restaurants includes aspects of political deviance such as gossip when discussing other forms of deviance such as bullying (Mathisen et. al., 2008). This study is discussed in detail later in this section, alongside other studies of bullying in restaurants. Gossip in the restaurant industry appears to have not been studied alone, and it is not discussed in this section.

Personal Aggression in Restaurants

Research that has looked at personal aggression in restaurants tends to focus on two specific behaviors: sexual harassment and bullying.

Sexual harassment. Sexual harassment has been studied in detail in regard to the restaurant industry. Since the public attention given to the topic when Anita Hill charged Clarence Thomas with sexual harassment, there have been increases in sexual harassment

cases (Anders, 1993). According to Anders (1993), the restaurant industry has not been immune to sexual harassment, mainly because the nature of the work blurs the line between what is considered sexual harassment and what is not. For instance, the social structure of restaurants is more relaxed and informal than other organizations. Also, the work hours are often different than more formal occupations, requiring employees to work many nights and weekends, which can contribute to a close-knit work subculture of restaurant employees. Anders (1993) states that it is the combination of the informality of restaurant structure and irregular work hours that contributes to the blurred line between what is and is not sexual harassment. Other studies on this topic have reached the same conclusions (Agrusa, Coats, Tanner, & Leng-Leong, 2002; Erickson, 2004; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Weber, Coats, Agrusa, Tanner, & Meche, 2002).

Consistent with Anders' (1993) comments, Erickson (2004) states that "what would be labeled sexual harassment in other types of work [is] tolerated in restaurant work" (p. 81). Sexual jokes and comments are routine, and the physical nature of restaurant work arranges employees within close proximity to each other, thus increasing a sexual atmosphere (Erickson, 2004). Using observations and interviews of restaurant employees, Erickson (2004) found that it was the restaurant atmosphere that often makes it difficult for employees to distinguish between what is sexual harassment and what is not. Through experience, restaurant employees came to expect this aspect of the restaurant setting, and therefore informally socialized other employees by continuing the cycle of sexual jokes and comments and promoting their acceptability. Other research that focuses on sexual harassment explores in greater detail employee perceptions of sexual harassment in the restaurant setting.

Giuffre and Williams (1994) studied 18 servers and interviewed them concerning their work experience, relationships with coworkers, and any experiences with sexual harassment. Experiences that were distinguished as sexual harassment by servers fell into three social contexts. The first type of sexual harassment occurred by a manager or someone of a higher position who held more power. This is one of the more common types of sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment also occurred more often when the victim and offender were of different racial or ethnic backgrounds rather than of the same. Giuffre and Williams (1994) attributed this to the fact that most romantic relationships occur between two individuals of the same racial or ethnic background. If a white woman is being potentially harassed by a white man and a Hispanic man, she is more likely to label the experience with the Hispanic man as sexual harassment. The authors state that "minority men are socially constructed as potential harassers of white women", which influences perceptions of sexual harassment (Giuffre & Williams, 1994, p. 392).

Finally, Giuffre & Williams (1994) found that sexual harassment occurred when the employee and harasser were of different sexual orientation. For example, a victim may have been homosexual while the offender was heterosexual. The opposite is also possible, where the victim is heterosexual and the offender is homosexual. When sexual harassment was found to be present in restaurants, the situation generally fell into one of these three contexts. In this case, perceptions of sexual harassment are based on different aspects of power. Employees were most likely to feel victimized by sexual harassment if it was a manager, individual of a different race, or individual of a different sexual

orientation initiating the behavior. Other studies take this a step further, and focus on the perceptions between male and female employees regarding sexual harassment.

Weber et al. (2002) used a survey method to understand and measure perceptions and attitudes of 330 restaurant employees on sexual harassment in the industry. They found substantial differences between age groups and males and females, and their respective perceptions of sexual harassment. For example, when it came to perceptions of sexual harassment, males and females agreed on everything except customer flirting. Males strongly disagreed that customers flirting with employees constituted sexual harassment, while females only slightly disagreed (Weber et al., 2002, p. 82). Females self-reported experiencing more incidences of possible sexual harassment than did males, and younger workers felt that fewer behaviors should be considered sexual harassment as opposed to older workers (Weber et al., 2002, p. 82).

In a similar study, Agrusa et al. (2002) conducted a comparative study of restaurant employees in New Orleans and Hong Kong and their perceptions of sexual harassment in restaurants. Using a sample of 674 restaurant employees, Agrusa et al. (2002) surveyed participants about their perceptions of sexual harassment, awareness of sexual harassment policy, and their personal experience with sexual harassment. They found that more employees in New Orleans than in Hong Kong felt they had been sexually harassed in their workplace. The authors also found that there were differences between the two groups as to how sexual harassment was perceived in the restaurant. For example, comments made about one's own sex life were considered a form of sexual harassment in Hong Kong, but not in New Orleans. Also, commenting on a coworker's appearance was considered sexual harassment in New Orleans, but not in Hong Kong.

This study, and the others presented in this section, illustrate that sexual harassment is difficult to define within the restaurant industry, especially when considering employee perceptions of this type of deviant behavior. These studies also illustrate the prevalence of sexual harassment in the restaurant industry and the need to continue studying this area of employee deviance.

Bullying. Bullying is another type of deviant behavior that occurs in the restaurant workplace. Bloisi and Hoel (2007) provided a detailed review of the literature regarding restaurants and bullying among chefs. They found that the culture of the kitchen and restaurant, personal characteristics of the chefs, and the nature of the work environment all contribute to the frequency of bullying by chefs. Based on previous literature, bullying is loosely portrayed as "the parameters of frequency and duration of experience, the reaction of the target, [and] the balance of power between the parties and the intent of the perpetrator" (Bloisi & Hoel, 2007, p. 650). Essentially, an individual must be subjected to repeated negative acts by the bully and unable or unwilling to defend themselves (Bloisi & Hoel, 2007).

The results presented by Bloisi and Hoel (2007) are also found in other studies of bullying in restaurants. Existing research studied this act mainly in the context of the kitchen, rather than the entire restaurant organizational structure (Johns & Menzel, 1999; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2008). The authors found in both cases that bullying is related to the structure of the restaurant, both physical and social. Specifically, "kitchens are stressful workplaces in physical terms, but the socio-cultural aspects of kitchen work seem mostly to blame for violence" (Johns & Menzel, 1999, p. 107). It was reported that bullying by cooks toward cooks and other employees occurs across restaurant settings

almost always originating in the kitchen. Other research supports this finding as well (See: Fine, 1990, 1996a, 1996b).

In their qualitative study of bullying, Johns and Menzel (1999) focused specifically on the position of cooks within the restaurant. The number of individuals they interviewed is not reported, but they found that bullying was the primary deviant act reported by cooks, both as victims and offenders. Bullying in the context of the restaurant tended to have the purpose of humiliation, often through verbal and physical abuse. Bullying was more likely to occur in the kitchen because of certain structural elements, such as high temperatures in the kitchen, high level of noise, the pressure of timing in cooking orders, and the hierarchy of the kitchen staff (Johns & Menzel, 1999). While this study only focuses on cooks, other research suggests that other restaurant employees are just as likely to be involved in bullying in the workplace.

Mathisen et. al. (2008) addressed bullying and harassment in restaurants, specifically why it occurs and what consequences it has. The authors conducted a quantitative study, surveying a total of 207 restaurant employees (cooks, waiters, managers). The dependent variable was exposure to bullying, which was measured by 27 items naming specific bullying acts such as gossip, unwanted sexual attention, being ignored, threats of violence, and persistent criticism. Sexual harassment was considered a measure of bullying in this study. Respondents indicated the frequency they experienced these acts on a scale of 1 to 5 (1=never, 5=daily). Results indicated that there was a positive relationship between bullying and burnout and intention to leave the job, and a negative relationship between bullying and job satisfaction and commitment

(Mathisen et. al., 2008, p. 65). Therefore, it is important to consider social factors, such as job stress or intention to quit, in order to understand bullying in restaurants.

The research presented in this section discussed deviant acts directed against coworkers in the restaurant setting. Not only are bullying and sexual harassment both prevalent in the restaurant industry, but they are also often based on one's position within the restaurant and perceived acceptability in this context. Social factors, such as job stress or intention to quit, are also important components to studies on these types of interpersonal deviance. In addition to studies that focus solely on organizational, production, property, or interpersonal deviance, some research combines multiple types for a more comprehensive examination of employee deviance in restaurants. The next section discusses how the current study contributes to the existing literature on employee deviance.

The Current Study

In general, the studies presented in this chapter have each focused on one deviant behavior, with very few simultaneously exploring organizational, production, property, and interpersonal deviance. The studies presented above that focused on deviant behavior have found that many employees engaged in these deviant behaviors due to a number of factors, yet none of the studies directly tested the relationship of social learning to this phenomenon. This was significant for the current study for three reasons. First, it demonstrated that employee deviance in restaurants does exist and is a significant problem that needs to be studied. Second, it demonstrated that more research is needed that integrates multiple types of deviant behavior into one study in order to understand why employee deviance occurs in the restaurant industry. Finally, it illustrated that

studies are needed to address the relationship between social learning theory and employee deviance in restaurants. The current study addressed these three reasons.

The current study built on past studies of employee deviance in restaurants in a number of ways. First, it examined the types of deviance presented by Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) in the context of the restaurant. The current study examined organizational types of employee deviance including property deviance (taking food/drink items from the restaurant without paying, taking nonfood/drink items from the restaurant without paying, destroying food items, destroying nonfood items) and production deviance (consuming alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working). It also examined interpersonal types of employee deviance such as: ridiculing coworkers, verbally threatening coworkers, physically threatening coworkers, making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers, and engaging in unwanted flirting with coworkers. Additionally, the current study included a number of factors that have been found to be significant when studying employee deviance, such as shift worked, length of employment, position within the restaurant, age at time of employment, and sex.

Finally, the current study expanded upon previous results and included measures of the components of social learning theory. Some previous studies have included related aspects, such as employee perceptions of certain deviant behaviors in the restaurant like theft (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Poulston, 2008) or sexual harassment (Agrusa et al., 2002; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Erickson, 2004; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Weber et al., 2002). Many studies of social learning theory included the influence of perceptions of others. The following chapter discusses social learning theory and its applicability to employee deviance in restaurants.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

This chapter builds on the previous one by exploring how social learning theory can be used to understand employee deviance in restaurants. The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the historical development of social learning theory, discuss its criticisms, and explore how it has been measured in previous studies. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the current study and how it fits into the literature on social learning theory.

Differential Association Theory

Social learning theory has its roots in Sutherland's (1947) theory of differential association. Sutherland (1947) argued that all criminal and deviant behavior is learned through interaction with intimate personal groups. Through this learning process, individuals learn techniques, motives, drives, rationalizations, and attitudes for committing crime (Sutherland, 1947). As individuals are exposed to these associations, they begin to define laws and rules as favorable or unfavorable. When an excess of definitions favorable to law or rule violation is reached, criminal behavior occurs. Sutherland (1947) also stated that differential associations vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity, involve mechanisms involved in any other learning process, and are an expression of general needs and values. Of all of these propositions, Sutherland (1947) argued that the most important was the exposure to an excess of definitions favorable to law violation. As long as an individual believed, based on other's definitions, that a deviant behavior was acceptable, he or she was more likely to engage in deviant behavior.

While an important addition to criminological theory, differential association was criticized by other researchers on a number of counts. First, it is assumed that differential associations cause delinquency, when it is entirely possible that delinquency causes those associations (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Kornhauser, 1978; Sampson & Laub, 1993). This is often referred to as the "birds of a feather flock together" argument (Kornhauser, 1978). Individuals who are already delinquent or who have a predisposition to delinquent behavior may seek out friends who are similar. Likewise, individuals who are not delinquent are more likely to seek out friends who are also not delinquent. Second, it is difficult to empirically measure a differential association and the process by which crime is learned (Akers, 1998; Glueck & Glueck, 1950). Sutherland (1947) describes delinquency as learned through interaction with others, but does not adequately describe how the process occurs. This is most likely due to the first criticism, as it is difficult to disentangle whether individuals were already delinquent prior to selecting their close peer groups. Third, the concepts of favorable and unfavorable definitions needed to be elaborated. These vague definitions make it more difficult to understand the causal process of differential association and how to measure it (Akers, 1998). While differential association theory continued to be influential in criminology and understanding how criminal behavior is learned, criticisms led to the theory being expanded by including other significant variables of learning.

Social Learning Theory

Twenty years after Sutherland's conceptualization of differential association, Burgess and Akers (1966) and Akers (1973, 1985, 1998) expanded the theory to include other measures of learning. Four components became integral measures for

understanding social learning theory: differential reinforcement, imitation, definitions, and differential associations. Differential reinforcement occurs when certain behaviors are rewarded or punished. Akers (1998) argued that the chances that deviant behavior will occur are based on "the relative frequency, amount, and probability of past, present, and anticipated rewards and punishments perceived to be attached to the behaviors" (Akers, 1998, p. 66). If an individual perceives the likelihood of punishment to be low for a specific behavior, it is likely that he or she will engage in that behavior. Also, if the peers one associates with are encouraging the act, it is likely that the individual will engage in that behavior because it is being positively reinforced.

Imitation occurs when individuals observe others engaging in certain behaviors and then engage in those behaviors themselves. Sutherland (1947) argued that imitation occurred primarily through direct interaction with peers, yet Akers (1998) argued that individuals can imitate others through indirect interaction and observation as well. This includes different forms of the media, where individuals learn "modeling, vicarious reinforcement, and moral desensitization for criminal behavior" (Akers, 1998, p. 76). However, Akers (1998) also argued that the effects of imitation are weak when compared to the other measures of social learning. This argument is also supported by empirical studies that test social learning, and will be discussed later in this chapter.

Definitions refer to the meaning that is attached to certain behaviors through differential associations. According to Akers (1998), these are "beliefs, attitudes, justifications, and orientations" (p. 52) that influence behavior. If a deviant behavior is defined as positive by one's peers, that individual is more likely to engage in deviance than if the behavior was defined as negative by the peer group.

Differential associations include the individuals with whom one interacts, such as peers and family. According to Akers (1998), differential associations are "direct and indirect, verbal and nonverbal communication, interaction, and identification with others" (Akers, 1998, p. 52). Individuals who spend more time with peers are more likely to learn behaviors based on these processes because of consistent reinforcement. Also significant here is the duration of the associations, which is similar to Sutherland's (1947) argument. Sporadic, short term involvement with one peer group will not affect behavior as much as regular, intensive involvement with a different peer group.

Scope and Applicability of Social Learning Theory

One of the benefits of social learning theory is its applicability to many forms of both crime and deviance. The majority of the research that tests social learning theory uses a self report survey method. This is generally most appropriate since these studies are concerned with behavior that is deviant or criminal. Studies of social learning theory have often used student populations, including middle school, high school, and college aged students (Akers and Lee, 1996, 1999; Akers et al. 1979; Matsueda, 1992; Orcutt, 1987).

According to Kubrin, Stucky, and Krohn (2009), social learning theories are broad in scope and are applicable to many different behaviors from any type of crime to a variety of deviance (p. 156). Despite this, differential association and social learning theories have been used primarily to study minor forms of crime, especially in conjunction with juvenile delinquency. Smoking, drinking, and drug use are three behaviors that have consistently been found to be heavily influenced by social learning and peer influence (Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Radosevich, 1979; Akers & Lee,

1996; Orcutt, 1987; Sellers & Winfree, 1990; Warr & Stafford, 1991). Cheating among college students has also been used to test social learning theory (Lanza-Kaduce & Klug, 1986; Vowell & Chen, 2004), with results supporting the theory. Across the literature, it is evident that studies focusing on social learning have examined a wide variety of individual deviant behaviors. However, other studies have included indices that combine a variety of behaviors that can be considered both deviant and criminal.

Indices have been used in previous studies of social learning when researchers are interested in examining the influence of social learning variables on groupings of behaviors. For example, two studies used a scale of six items for the dependent variable of delinquency. This scale included the following behaviors: theft worth less than $2, theft between $2 and $50, theft worth more than $50, driving a car without permission, committing vandalism, and committing physical violence (Jensen, 1972; Matsueda, 1982). Other researchers have also used scales that have included up to 35 items that measure property, violent, and drug crimes (Alarid, Burton, & Cullen, 2000; Elliot & Ageton, 1980; Mazerolle, 1998; Miller & Matthews, 2001). These past studies illustrate the flexibility of social learning theory to measure a variety of behaviors in a variety of different ways, suggesting that social learning is a theory that can be applied generally to diverse situations of deviant and criminal behavior.

While this illustrates the scope and applicability of social learning theory, it also presents a problem that can occur. When researchers group behaviors together to measure a dependent variable of deviance or crime, it is possible that this process can cause researchers to make inferences based on mismeasurement. Using a scaled dependent variable means that involvement in deviant behavior is interpreted as a linear

process where each increase in the deviance score, no matter at what level, is considered equal (Kubrin, Stucky, & Krohn, 2009, p. 157). In order to correct this, studies that use a scale of deviant behaviors should separate the dependent variable into two or more variables for analysis purposes. The separated dependent variables should be based on previous literature or specific definitions set forth by the researcher, grouping similar behaviors together. This ensures that analyses will be more accurate in discussing the relationship of social learning variables to the different types of behavior. The current study used multiple deviant behaviors, providing more accurate results.

Measurement of Social Learning

Over the years, research that has focused on social learning has measured the theory's four variables in certain ways. The existing research identifies strengths and weaknesses of measuring each social learning variable. While it is difficult to address each strength and weakness in any given study, it is important to be aware of these issues and how they can affect interpretation of results. In this section, a summary of the measurement of social learning variables in previous studies is presented, along with a critique of the issues that are inherent in any study of social learning theory.

One of the first components of social learning is definitions, or the meaning that is attached to certain behaviors through associations with others. Definitions are measured in different ways by variables that assess individual definitions favorable or unfavorable to crime. First, Sykes and Matza's (1957) techniques of neutralization are commonly used to assess an individual's definitions of certain behaviors. These include denial of responsibility (it was someone else's fault), denial of injury (no one got hurt), denial of victim (there is not a victim), condemnation of the condemner (blaming the system), and

appeal to higher loyalties (family or friends above the law). When individuals neutralize their behavior, they are justifying their involvement in deviance.

Some studies also ask for participants to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with general statements about crime, law and other relevant subjects (Akers, 1979; Matsueda, 1982). Matsueda (1982) incorporates a number of general statements into his research, including "most things that people call delinquency don't really hurt anyone" and "to get ahead you have to do some things which are not right" (Kubrin, Stucky, & Krohn, 2009, p. 145). Respondents in this study indicated the extent to which they agree/disagree or approve/disapprove of each statement. Other researchers (Akers & Lee, 1996, 1999; Tittle, Burke, & Jackson, 1986) use this approach in their studies where they require individuals to indicate the extent to which they agree/disagree or approve/disapprove of a general statement regarding a behavior. The answer to this statement should indicate whether an individual tends to have more definitions favorable to law violation than unfavorable.

Finally, definitions can also be measured by statements regarding specific behaviors. Some researchers (Orcutt, 1987; Tittle, Burke, & Jackson, 1986) have asked about opinions or moral views of a deviant behavior. They have also asked whether an individual generally agrees/disagrees or approves/disapproves with the commission of a deviant act. If there is approval of a deviant act, that individual has favorable definitions of crime, making it more likely that they will engage in deviant behavior. Most research finds positive support for definitions favorable to crime as a predictor of criminal involvement. However, one issue that is difficult to resolve is the possibility of individuals having both criminal and noncriminal definitions toward behaviors, applying

those definitions differently depending on the situation (Kubrin, Stucky, & Krohn, 2009). Without asking the same questions in regard to different situations, it becomes challenging to understand the overall effects of favorable definitions toward crime. Also, while most studies incorporate measures of favorable definitions, they do not incorporate measures of unfavorable definitions toward crime. Including these components would offer more support for social learning theory, by providing the researcher with a comprehensive understanding of respondents' definitions across situations. In addition to measuring definitions of behaviors, researchers examining social learning need to incorporate measurements of differential associations into their studies.

Differential associations, which include the individuals with whom one interacts, are measured by variables that assess the deviant or criminal nature of those associations. The most common way to measure differential associations is asking individuals to report the number of deviant peers or the amount of deviance committed by their peers (Akers, 1979, 1985, 1998; Agnew, 1991; Thornberry, Lizotte, Krohn, Farnworth, & Jang, 1994). Another measure of differential association is asking for respondents to indicate peer's perceived approval or disapproval of a deviant act. The level of perceived approval or disapproval can have both a direct or indirect effect on an individual's deviant behavior. Some researchers (Agnew, 1991; Warr & Stafford, 1991) have found that individuals are more affected by peer's behavior rather than their attitudes/definitions, but this does not negate the importance of peer attitudes. Both measures of differential association (peer behavior and peer attitudes) should be included in studies of social learning in order to better understand the influence of peers on individual behavior. However, accurately measuring peer influence proves to be one of the more difficult issues inherent in testing

social learning theory. Usually studies are unable to incorporate direct measures of peer attitudes and depend on the respondent's perceptions (Kubrin, Stucky, & Krohn, 2009). According to Jussim and Osgood (1989), overestimation of similar peer attitudes is common because people tend to think that their peers think the same way as they do. When measuring differential associations, researchers also need to be aware of the relationships between peers (close friends, acquaintances, coworkers, etc.). The amount of time spent with peers may contribute to more or less peer influence. Other avenues of peer influence, such as imitation, also need to be measured in studies of social learning theory.

Imitation is often classified as similar to differential associations, but consists of individuals observing others engaging in certain behaviors and then engaging in those behaviors themselves. It is often measured by the reporting of how many people close to the participant engage in the behavior. This is strikingly similar to differential associations, and many times the measures of imitation and differential association are highly intercorrelated. Measuring imitation separately has sometimes resulted in inconsistent effects (Skinner & Fream, 1997). In this case, most studies on social learning combine imitation with differential association (Akers & Lee, 1999; Krohn, Skinner, Massey, & Akers, 1985).

Differential reinforcement, or the reward or punishment of certain behaviors, is measured by the perceived reaction of significant others including individuals such as peers or parents. Because social learning theory posits that both positive and negative reinforcement are necessary in learning behavior, some studies include measures of both (Akers & Lee, 1999; Akers, La Greca, Cochran, & Sellers, 1989, Krohn et al., 1985),

while others only include measures of negative reinforcement (Chappell & Piquero, 2004). However, both positive and negative reinforcement measures should be included in studies of social learning in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the ways in which rewards and punishments can influence involvement in deviant or criminal behavior. Measuring differential reinforcement has its weaknesses as well. It may be difficult to disentangle the "conceptual overlap" between definitions and differential reinforcements (Kubrin, Stucky, & Krohn, 2009, p. 154). Asking about a respondent's perceptions of the reactions of their peers can be similar to asking about perceptions of whether peers define a behavior as acceptable or unacceptable.

In addition to the possible overlap between definitions and differential reinforcements, another issue arises with the measurement of differential reinforcement. It is possible that there can be rewards and punishments that are internal to the individual that are not based on external or social factors. This could be the pleasure or excitement derived from engaging in certain behaviors that is not affected by external social factors. Therefore, if researchers want a more comprehensive understanding of differential reinforcements, questions about internal rewards and punishments need to be asked as well. Even though this measurement issue exists, very few studies address both the internal and external aspects of differential reinforcement.

This section identified the common ways social learning has been measured in previous studies. Despite empirical support and criticisms of testing social learning theory and its relationship to deviant and criminal behaviors, there are a number of general criticisms that need to be addressed.

General Criticisms of Social Learning Theory

As with other theories in criminology, social learning theory is not without its criticisms. One of the main issues is similar to that of Sutherland's differential association theory; specifically, do deviant individuals become deviant by first associating with deviant friends, or do those who are already deviant associate with others who are deviant? More longitudinal tests are needed to determine the temporal order of this relationship between peers and deviance. Another problem is the need to directly address the definitions and delinquency of friends. Relying on an individual's perceptions of the delinquency or attitudes of his or her friends may not be accurate. Obtaining information directly from a respondent's peers may help to get a more precise understanding of how peer behavior and attitudes influence an individual's actions. Finally, different types of crime and deviance and different settings where these behaviors can occur need to be studied using social learning theory. While most studies have examined minor crime and deviance from a social learning perspective, the literature illustrates that it is possible to study many different types of crime and deviance across settings. One area that is not studied often is the influence of social learning on employee deviance.

Social Learning Theory and Employee Deviance

Applications of social learning theory to employee crime and deviance appear limited. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) used a perspective that is closely related to social learning to understand the influence of work groups on antisocial behavior in the workplace. The attraction-selection-attrition perspective argues that "individuals carefully analyze their work environments and adjust their individual actions

accordingly" (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998, p. 659). The authors integrate this with social learning theory to suggest that in the work environment, employees use their coworkers to understand beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that are appropriate in that setting (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). A self-report survey was distributed to a sample of 187 full time employees from a number of different occupations. Respondents were asked to report the extent they had engaged in a number of antisocial workplace behaviors, such as damaging property, purposely hurting someone at work, and purposely breaking work rules among others (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998, p. 663). The researchers were interested in understanding the impact of satisfaction with coworkers and antisocial behavior of coworkers on individual antisocial behavior.

Results indicated that the behavior of employees is influenced by groups at work. Specifically, attraction-selection-attrition theory plays a major role. In this context "groups with stronger antisocial climates appeared to have greater ability to influence individual members' antisocial actions" (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998, p. 667). This theory is similar to social learning, as it indicates that individual employees are affected by peer related variables in the workplace, such as peer attitudes and behavior. Attraction-selection-attrition theory has also been applied in other work related studies as an extension of social learning (Schneider, 1975, 1987; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Many other studies have indicated a relationship between peer influence and occupational crime, but social learning theory itself is not tested (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Appelbaum & Shapiro, 2006; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Bryant & Higgins, 2009; Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Trevino, 1992). It is important to mention these studies,

because it illustrates that there is little done with social learning theory in studies of employee crime and deviance.

Studies focusing solely on social learning theory and employee deviance in restaurants are few and far between. Some studies mentioned that social learning is an important component in this context, but they did not actually test any of the theory's components (Aquino et al., 1999; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Doern and Kates (1998) applied social learning theory to the social meaning of drinking in the restaurant, but explored this behavior through observations and interviews. Many other restaurant studies indicate the significance of the socialization process within the industry, but do not test Sutherland's (1947) or Akers' (1998) measures of social learning or differential association (Blosi & Hoel, 2007; Harris & Ogbonna, 2001; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kjaerheim et al., 1995; Trevino & Victor, 1992). No study has attempted to measure the components of social learning theory in the context of restaurant deviance using a survey method.

The Current Study

This chapter highlighted the historical development of social learning theory, discussed its criticisms, and explored how it has been measured in previous studies. Through this information, it became evident that social learning theory could be used to study employee deviance in restaurants. The current study addressed one of the criticisms of social learning research, specifically the notion that different types of deviance and different settings of those behaviors need to be examined using social learning theory. This dissertation incorporated a number of different deviant behaviors in

a setting that has not been studied in great detail or used directly with social learning theory.

The social learning literature provided a foundation for the current study to focus on social learning and its influence on employee deviance in restaurants. First, previous studies have indicated the importance of using indices of a variety of behaviors to measure the dependent variable. This supported the methods for this dissertation, which used this approach in creating the dependent variables. Specifically, the researcher measured the dependent variables of organizational, property, production, and interpersonal deviance through eleven behaviors, based on the review of the literature as presented in the last chapter. The behaviors of theft and service sabotage were used to measure property deviance, while drug and alcohol use were used to measure production deviance. Organizational deviance was measured by all of these behaviors, and interpersonal deviance was measured by sexual harassment and bullying. By separating the behaviors into different categories, the researcher was able to understand differences and similarities between the influence of social learning and the different types of deviance. Also, studies of social learning theory have mostly used self report surveys on student populations, including middle school, high school, and college aged students. This provided support for this dissertation, which used a sample of college students with a self-report survey as the method of data collection.

The current study also measured the variables of social learning similar to previous studies. Definitions were measured by the approval or disapproval of the specific deviant acts committed by restaurant employee. Differential associations and imitation were measured through perceived peer approval/disapproval of those deviant

acts, and perceived peer behavior. Finally, this dissertation included measures of differential reinforcement that incorporated both positive and negative reinforcements for employee deviance. The information presented in this chapter illustrated that social learning theory can be applied to employee deviance in restaurants. The next chapter provides the methodological framework for how the study was completed.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods used in this dissertation. Specifically this study used a cross-sectional design to understand the influence of social learning variables on employee deviance in restaurants. A survey is the best type of research method for this particular study because it allows for an anonymous self-report of deviant behaviors. According to Hawkins (1984), using a self report method for deviant behavior is preferred because "more than one work setting can be studied, hidden deviance can be recorded, the bias of officially reported deviance is avoided, and a standard set of questions permit a comparable measure…across work settings" (Hawkins, 1984, p. 53). When he refers to more than one work setting, he is focusing on the different restaurants used as the sample in his study. In the case of the current study, using a survey method allowed the researcher to gather information about deviant behavior from employees in many different types of restaurants. In addition, using a survey allowed the researcher to obtain a larger sample as compared to qualitative methods.

This chapter discusses major components of the current study, including the site selection, survey administration, survey design, validity issues, and human subject protections. First, however, the research question and hypotheses are presented, followed by a discussion of the pre-test.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The broad purpose of this study was to examine deviance committed by restaurant employees. Specifically, this project sought to answer the following questions:

1. How does an employee's position within the restaurant relate to certain types of deviance?
2. How is length of employment related to involvement in deviant behavior?
3. How is the primary shift an employee works related to involvement in deviant behavior?
4. What types of deviance are most prevalent by restaurant employees?
5. How often do restaurant employees engage in different types of employee deviance?
6. What is the relationship between social learning and organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance in restaurants?

As presented in the previous chapter, social learning theory has been used to study a variety of deviant behaviors, but has not been adequately tested in the restaurant setting. The existing body of research illustrated that each component of social learning (definitions, differential associations, imitation, and differential reinforcement) has been found to be indicative of criminal or deviant involvement.

Based on this information, this study seeks to test the following hypotheses:

H_1: Deviance differs between front of the house employees (FOH) and back of the house employees (BOH).

H_2: Longer employment in a restaurant results in more involvement in employee deviance.

H_3: Employee deviance is prevalent during shifts later in the day.

H_4: The components of social learning theory (definitions, differential associations, imitation, and differential reinforcement) are significantly related to organizational and interpersonal employee deviance in restaurants.

Pre-Test of Survey Instrument

Rationale

Due to the fact that this study was a new addition to the literature and no appropriate surveys were found to use, it was necessary to conduct a pre-test of the survey instrument developed for this study. Dillman, Smyth, & Christian (2009) argued that pre-tests are the best way to examine surveys and understand problems that may arise in actual data collection. Pretesting refers to "delivering a questionnaire to individuals with special knowledge of the topic or members of the survey population and asking them to complete it and report any problems they experienced" (p. 219). Pre-tests also alert researchers to other issues that may occur during the actual study, such as response rates, reliability of scales, preliminary data analysis, and other general concerns about the presentation of the survey. The purpose of the pre-test for this study was to obtain feedback on the layout of the web-based survey and the survey items themselves. The following sections discuss the site selection, survey administration, and survey instrument for the pre-test.

Site Selection

The survey instrument for the current study was pre-tested using a random sample of graduate students from Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP). According to university statistics for Fall 2009, there were approximately 2,347 graduate students attending IUP (IUP, 2009). While undergraduate students were used in the actual study,

the researcher chose to use graduate students in the pre-test. This decision was made for a few reasons. First, the age ranges for graduate students (22 and older) fell under the typical age range (18 to 34) of restaurant employees. It was possible that graduate students worked in restaurants during their undergraduate career as well as during their graduate career. Therefore, a random sample of graduate students should include close to the same number of individuals with restaurant experience as a random sample of undergraduate students. Second, Dillman and colleagues (2009) suggested obtaining feedback from individuals on different aspects of the survey, such as question structures and response categories. Receiving valuable feedback on the survey items was more likely when asking graduate students, who have been exposed to more academic research than undergraduate students.

Survey Administration

The survey for the pre-test was created and administered using Qualtrics survey software, which allows for the administration of surveys online. Using a random sample of 1,500 graduate student emails compiled by the Applied Research Lab (ARL), the survey was distributed to a large number of students at one time. The informed consent form was copied into the body of the email, and the subject line of the email read "Graduate Student Survey on Work Experience" (see Appendix A for pre-test email). The survey was distributed five weeks prior to the end of the Spring 2010 semester, and was active for two weeks. It was first sent on a Monday at 8:30 a.m. and a reminder was sent at the same time the following week. Overall, 159 surveys were completed, resulting in a response rate of 10.6%. The timing of the delivery of the survey may have negatively affected the response rate. Still, this response rate was similar to previous

studies that utilized web surveys and studies that focused on employee deviance (Antons, Dilla, & Fultz, 1997; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; Handwerk, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000; Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004; Sax, Gilmartin, & Bryant, 2003; Tomsic, Hendel, & Matross, 2000; Underwood, Kim, & Matier, 2000). For the purposes of the pre-test, these responses provided enough information regarding the layout of the web-based survey and nature of the questions and survey items.

Survey Instrument

Questions for this survey were constructed by the researcher and were broadly based on a few previous studies of general employee deviance, restaurant deviance, and social learning (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Radosevich, 1979; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Akers, 1984; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 2000). The social learning survey used by Akers and colleagues (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Krohn et al., 1984) was the primary source used to construct the current survey items measuring the components of social learning theory. Also, the specific types of organizational and interpersonal deviance that were included in the study were based on the research of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) and the seventeen restaurant studies (see Table 1) presented in the previous chapter (see Appendix B for pre-test survey).

The survey items addressed involvement in employee deviance, measures of social learning, and demographic measures. Respondents were asked to self-report their involvement in each type of deviant behavior on a scale from never to daily. They were then asked to answer questions designed to measure the different components of social learning theory. First, respondents were asked to report the most common reactions of

coworkers and mangers to each type of behavior and the likelihood of getting caught (differential reinforcement). Second, respondents were asked to report how many coworkers participated in the deviant behaviors, and if coworkers approve or disapprove of those behaviors (imitation, differential associations). Finally, respondents were asked about their own attitudes (approve or disapprove) toward participating in deviant behavior in the restaurant setting (definitions). A number of questions asking demographic information were also included. A more in-depth description of the survey instrument is presented later in this chapter.

Results

Clarity of survey items. In addition to the survey items discussed above, the pre-test included an open ended question at the end of the survey. This question asked respondents to share any additional comments regarding the survey questions and to offer any suggestions for improving the survey for the actual study.

Of the 159 respondents, 50 respondents answered the open ended question and provided helpful feedback about the structure of the survey. The most significant problem mentioned by the respondents was confusion with understanding what was included in the specific types of deviant behaviors. For example, most respondents did not understand what was meant by destroying food/drink items and nonfood items and taking food/drink items and nonfood items without paying. The way the survey was set up for the pre-test did not allow space for the researcher to explain what was and was not included in each behavior. Based on the feedback from the pre-test, the researcher changed the layout of the survey for the actual study. In doing so, the survey items

asking about each type of deviance were expanded to include a description of specific behaviors that comprised that activity.

For instance, as mentioned above, many respondents indicated that they did not understand what was meant by taking food or drink items without paying. Some suggested that it was often restaurant policy for employees to have a discounted or free meal during a shift. In this case, it would be acceptable to take food or drink items from the restaurant without paying. Since this was not a behavior the study sought to understand, the researcher added a description to the survey item regarding the activity. The survey item for taking food or drink items without paying then read as follows:

> These questions ask you about taking food or drink items from the restaurant without paying for them. This **does not** include policies where employees are allowed to take leftover food before it goes bad, or where employees are allowed discounted meals. It **does** include behaviors that are not allowed by the restaurant, such as taking food off a dish before serving it (example: sneaking a few fries), or taking any type of food or drink that you are not allowed to have without paying (example: drinking fountain drinks when you are only allowed to drink water and iced tea).

These changes helped to relieve any confusion as to what was included in each type of deviant behavior, and helped respondents to better answer the survey items. The content remained the same, but the way the questions were presented differed (see Appendix B for pre-test survey and Appendix E for the current survey). In addition to illuminating problematic wording with the survey, the pre-test offered support for the current study,

which is discussed in detail throughout the following sections. A discussion of the site selection is presented next, followed by a discussion of the survey administration.

The Current Study

Site Selection

The research for this study took place at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP). IUP has a total student population of around 14,000 (12,291 undergraduate students and 2,347 graduate students), and a faculty population of around 750. According to statistics from the Fall 2009 semester, 56% percent of the student population was female, 13% were minority, 5% were international, and 8% were of nontraditional age (IUP, 2009). The sample for this study consisted of undergraduate students from IUP who were currently working in the restaurant industry or who had ever worked in the restaurant industry at some point in their life.

Collecting data from a student population on a college campus was appropriate for studying employee deviance in restaurants. As discussed in the first chapter, the largest concentration of restaurant employees falls between the ages of 18 and 34 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). This age group tends to be attracted to restaurant work because most positions do not have educational requirements, and many high school and college students rely on restaurants to fulfill part time and seasonal employment while still attending school. Most research that examines restaurant employees has used student populations or people within this age group (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Kjaerhiem et al., 1995; Langton et al., 2006; Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Thoms et al., 2001; Trevino & Victor, 1992; Tucker, 1993). Therefore, selecting a random sample from the student

population was likely to result in a significant group of individuals who had restaurant experience.

This section discussed the site where the research was conducted. Specifically, the researcher utilized a university population to study employee deviance in restaurants. This was possible because many restaurant employees are college age. The following section discusses the process of administering the survey.

Survey Administration

The survey for this study was created and administered using Qualtrics survey software, which allows for the administration of surveys online. Qualtrics is available to students at IUP and it provides a cost-effective way to distribute surveys. The researcher was able to easily reach a large sample of students and collect responses more efficiently than using paper surveys in classrooms across campus.

Similar to the administration of the pre-test, the survey for this study was sent out on a Monday morning at 8:30 a.m. during the Spring 2011 semester. Using assistance from the Applied Research Lab (ARL) at IUP, two random samples of 1,000 IUP undergraduate student emails were compiled and the survey was sent to those addresses. The randomly selected sample of undergraduate students received an email that discussed the project, included informed consent, and provided a link to anonymously participate in the survey (see Appendix D for email). The information from the completed surveys was then stored on the researcher's Qualtrics account until the period for survey administration was complete.

The total number of students who accessed the survey was 201, which resulted in a response rate of 10%. Out of these responses, 31 respondents answered "no" to the first

question, indicating they did not have any restaurant experience. After indicating that they did not have restaurant experience, the survey ended; therefore these individuals were not able to complete the survey. Out of the 170 remaining surveys, 144 were fully completed for a response rate of 7.2%. Based on this, the total number of responses included in this study was 144. The demographic information for these respondents is presented in Chapter V.

The response rate for the current study was rather low. Most studies of employee deviance have response rates between 10% and 60% (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Krippel et al., 2008; Liao et al., 2004; Mathisen et al., 2008; Peterson, 2002; Poulston, 2008; Trevino et al., 1998). While this is a large range, it illustrates that response rates vary for studies that focus on this topic. In addition, other studies on employee deviance in restaurants that used student populations had between 100 and 200 completed surveys (Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Thoms et al., 2001; Trevino & Victor, 1992). While these were not web-based surveys, they illustrated that the total number of respondents used in the current study was similar to other studies that utilized a student sample.

In addition, surveys administered online often had low response rates (Antons, Dilla, & Fultz, 1997; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; Handwerk, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000; Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004; Sax, Gilmartin, & Bryant, 2003; Tomsic, Hendel, & Matross, 2000; Underwood, Kim, & Matier, 2000). Many of these studies also indicated that paper surveys have a higher response rate than web surveys among college students. Research that utilized student samples was often administered in

classrooms to increase responses (Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Thoms et al., 2001; Trevino & Victor, 1992). However, this was not possible in the current study. If the survey were administered in a random sample of classrooms across campus, there would be a number of students who did not have experience working in a restaurant. It would be difficult to convince faculty members to allow survey administration in their classroom because of this. Therefore, the researcher chose to utilize web-based survey administration.

Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) provided a number of ways to increase response rates when using web-based surveys. First, any contacts with potential respondents should be personalized to the best extent possible. For the current study, Qualtrics did not allow individual name personalized messages to be sent when distributing the survey to a random group of respondents. It did, however, give the email the appearance that it has been sent to only one individual, and did not list a large number of emails in the sender list. Second, any email, whether it was the survey or a reminder to complete the survey, should be sent at an appropriate time for the respondents. Since the current study was using undergraduate students, the survey was sent out during the spring semester and was active for about four weeks (not including spring break). Third, the subject line of the email should be "professional and informative" (Dillman et al., 2009, p. 286) and the researcher's full name should be listed as the sender. Qualtrics permits researchers to write their own subject line, and ensures that the researcher's full name is listed. For the current study, the subject line of the email read "IUP Student Work Survey and Chance to Win Co-Op Gift card."

Dillman and colleagues (2009) also suggested other ways to increase response rates for web-based surveys. When sending the email, clear instructions should be

provided for how to access the survey, but the email message itself should be as short as possible (Dillman et al., 2009, p. 286). The email for the current study consisted of informed consent as required by the IRB, and a link to the survey. The informed consent contained basic information on the nature of the study as well as informing potential respondents that participation in the study was voluntary. Instructions for the survey were implemented into the survey itself, helping respondents to complete it. The pre-test aided in certain changes in this area, including making the survey more user-friendly and providing more detail in each question.

Dillman et al. (2009) also suggested providing a token of appreciation for completing the survey. Doing so acts as an incentive to potential participants, thus increasing response rates. Qualtrics survey software allows researchers to add a question at the end of the survey asking respondents if they would like to be entered in a drawing to win a prize. For this study, the researcher provided respondents with the chance to win one of four $25 gift cards to the Co-Op student store at IUP. Qualtrics also ensured that any identifying information needed to enter the drawing is not associated with an individual's responses. A statement in the email and at the end of the survey reiterated this point so that respondents were more inclined to participate in the survey without worrying that their responses would be known.

In addition to these ways to increase response rates, it was important to periodically monitor progress of survey completion, and send different follow-up messages when needed (Dillman et al., 2009). Through Qualtrics, researchers can send follow up messages only to those individuals who have not completed the survey. The survey program also indicated the number of surveys opened, how many were started,

and how many were completed. A reminder email was sent out via Qualtrics on each Monday morning for the weeks the survey was active as a way to increase response rates. This section has discussed how the current study takes into account many of the issues addressed by Dillman et al. (2009). A discussion of the survey design follows in the next section.

Survey Instrument

As discussed earlier, no surveys could be located that permitted an examination of the relationship between social learning and different types of deviance committed by restaurant employees. Hence, one had to be developed. As briefly mentioned in the discussion of the pre-test, survey items were developed by the researcher and were broadly based on previous studies of general employee deviance, restaurant deviance, and social learning (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Radosevich, 1979; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Akers, 1984; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 2000). The social learning survey used by Akers and colleagues (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Radosevich, 1979; Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Akers, 1984) was the primary source used to construct the items related to social learning in the current study. Since Akers' survey was not designed to study employee deviance, the researcher adapted some survey item response categories from questions regarding informal and formal social control used by Hollinger and Clark (1982). These items were used to measure differential reinforcement in the current study and were better indicators of this social learning component when studying employee deviance in restaurants. Also, the specific types of deviance (organizational, property, production, and interpersonal) that were included were based on the research of Robinson

and Bennett (1995, 2000) and the seventeen restaurant studies (see Table 1) presented in the previous chapter (See Appendix E for survey).

Dependent Variables. The dependent variables for this dissertation were organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance. This was built on the research of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) where they defined employee deviance as four different types of behavior – three directed against the organization, and the other directed against coworkers. The current study classified the following as organizational types of employee deviance: theft (taking food/drink items from the restaurant without paying, taking non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying), service sabotage (destroying food items, destroying non-food items), drug use (using illegal drugs while working), and alcohol use (consuming alcohol while working). Out of these behaviors, using illegal drugs and consuming alcohol while working were considered production deviance. The other four behaviors were considered property deviance. The current study also classified the following as interpersonal types of employee deviance: bullying (ridiculing coworkers, verbally threatening coworkers, physically threatening coworkers) and sexual harassment (making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers, unwanted flirting with coworkers). All together there were eleven total behaviors that comprised four dependent variables: organizational deviance, property deviance, production deviance, and interpersonal deviance. A detailed description of these deviant behaviors is located in Appendix C.

The dependent variables were measured through survey questions asking respondents to indicate the frequency of their involvement in these behaviors. The response categories used by Akers and colleagues (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers,

Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Radosevich, 1979; Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Akers, 1984) were used as a guide. In their studies, they provided six possible response categories for frequency of involvement in certain behaviors: never, once or twice, less than once a month, once or twice a month, once or twice a week, and nearly every day. However, for this dissertation, respondents chose one of four possible responses: never, 2-3 times a month, 2-3 times a week, and daily. The researcher selected these response categories in order to alleviate issues with respondent recall. These categories made it easier for respondents to indicate how often they were involved in each deviant behavior, even if they had not worked in a restaurant recently. Using similar distinctions of response categories for the dependent variable are common in studies of social learning (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Higgins, Mahoney, & Ricketts, 2009; Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, & Akers, 1984; Krohn, Skinner, Massey, & Akers, 1985; Lee, Akers, & Borg; 2004; Wareham, Boots, & Chavez, 2009).

Using the classification of deviance by Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000), the responses to involvement in organizational deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking non food/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying non food/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working), interpersonal deviance (ridiculing coworkers, verbally threatening coworkers, physically threatening coworkers, making sexual jokes, and engaging in unwanted flirting) deviance, production deviance, and property deviance were examined separately. The survey items for each category of employee deviance included a description of specific behaviors that comprised that activity. In this way, respondents were aware of what behaviors were or

were not included in each category. As mentioned above, these specific behaviors are presented in Appendix C.

Independent Variables. There were eleven independent variables used in this study, six of which measured social learning, while the other five were demographic measures that were found significant in previous studies. The social learning variables are presented first, followed by a description of the demographic variables used in this study.

Social learning variables. Social learning theory is measured by differential associations, imitation, definitions, and differential reinforcement. The questions used to measure these variables were taken in their general format from Akers and colleagues and adapted to fit the content of restaurant deviance (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Krohn et al., 1984). Three of the social learning components (definitions, differential association, and imitation) were measured by one item each, while the component of differential reinforcement was measured by three separate items. As discussed above, the researchers in many social learning studies utilized more survey items to measure differential reinforcement because of the numerous dimensions of this concept (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Krohn et al., 1984; Krohn et al. 1985). Therefore, the current study measured differential reinforcement in a similar manner. The components of social learning theory and their measurement in the current study are discussed in detail below.

Definitions. Definitions refer to the meaning that is attached to certain behaviors through interaction with others. In the context of this study, this referred to an individual's approval or disapproval of deviant behaviors in the restaurant. For each of

the eleven deviant behaviors, respondents were asked to report their attitudes toward restaurant employees engaging in those acts. Using the format employed by other social learning studies (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Akers & Lee, 1996, 1999; Krohn et al., 1984), the response categories were as follows: disapprove of the behavior, depends on the circumstance, approve of the behavior, and don't know. Approving of each different type of employee deviance indicated whether a restaurant employee had an excess of definitions that regarded employee deviance in the restaurant as acceptable.

Differential associations. Differential associations include the individuals with whom one interacts, such as peers and family. In the context of the study, this referred to interactions with coworkers. Some social learning studies measured differential associations by asking individuals to report the number of deviant peers or the amount of deviance committed by their peers. Other studies also asked for respondents to indicate their peer's perceived approval or disapproval of a deviant act (Akers, 1998; Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Agnew, 1991; Thornberry et al., 1994). The current study used respondent's perceptions of how other restaurant employees view each type of organizational and interpersonal deviance as a measurement of differential association. Response categories were similar to those used to measure definitions, and included: disapprove of the behavior, depends on the circumstance, approve of the behavior, and don't know.

Imitation. The social learning measure of imitation is similar to differential associations, but was measured separately in this study. Imitation occurs when individuals observe others engaging in certain behaviors and then engage in those behaviors themselves. It is usually measured by the reporting of how many people close

to the participant engage in the behavior. Based on previous research (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Akers & Lee, 1996, 1999; Krohn et al., 1984), participants were asked to report how many (none, few, most, all) of their coworkers engaged in each of the behaviors in the restaurant. As mentioned previously, imitation is often considered very close to the measure of differential association. However, the measures of both imitation and differential association were not highly intercorrelated, so they were treated as separate measures in this study.

Differential reinforcement. Differential reinforcement occurs when certain behaviors are rewarded or punished, and is measured in this study in two different ways. First, individuals were asked how likely it is that restaurant employees would get caught if they participated in certain deviant behaviors. This is similar to the questions employed by Akers and colleagues (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Akers & Lee, 1996, 1999; Krohn et al., 1984). A five category scale was used for the response categories, ranging from very unlikely to get caught to very likely to get caught. Second, individuals were asked whether the reactions of managers and coworkers to employees engaging in each behavior were positive or negative. Including measures of both positive and negative reinforcements for deviance gave a more comprehensive understanding of how differential reinforcements work in the restaurant setting. Response categories for rewards or punishments were similar to those used by Hollinger and Clark (1982), Akers and colleagues (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Akers & Lee, 1996, 1999; Krohn et al., 1984; Lee et al., 2004), and others (Wareham et al., 2009). Respondents reported their perceived reaction from managers if employees engaged in each behavior: do nothing, reward or promote the employee, reprimand or punish the employee, and fire

the employee. Respondents also reported their perceived reaction from coworkers if employees engaged in each behavior: do nothing, encourage the coworker, discourage the coworker, and inform managers. The option of "don't know" was also available for each of these questions, since it was possible that some restaurant employees were not exposed to certain deviant behaviors in the workplace. In addition to the six survey items used to measure the components of social learning, a number of questions regarding demographics were included.

Demographic variables. Respondents were asked a number of demographic questions throughout the survey. Three items were specific to the restaurant and have been found to be significantly related to different types of employee deviance. These included primary shift worked, length of employment, and position within the restaurant.

In the current study, respondents were asked to report information about their most recent employment only. Primary shift worked was divided into the following response categories: early morning, lunch (morning/afternoon), dinner (afternoon/evening), and late night. Respondents chose the one that exemplified the shift they worked most often. Length of employment was divided into less than three months, four to six months, seven to nine months, ten to twelve months, and over a year.[2] Finally, respondents were asked to choose their primary position they worked in the restaurant. This included the following categories: host/hostess, bartender, waiter/waitress, cook/chef, dishwasher, busser, manager, and other. Responses that were listed in other were reviewed by the researcher and placed into one of the previous categories. Two

[2] Both length of employment and shift were interpreted as continuous variables because the response categories could be interpreted as ranging from low to high. For the purposes of this study, it is acceptable to interpret these variables as continuous, which is supported by previous studies (Carifio, 1976, 1978; Carifio & Perla, 2008).

demographic items are specific to the individual and have been found to be related to employee deviance – age and gender of the respondent. The researcher included these demographic items because in previous studies many of them were found to be significantly related to employee deviance in restaurants.

Validity

Validity examines "the crucial relationship between concept and indicator" (Carmines & Zeller, 1979, p. 12), and in this study refers to the components of social learning and the survey items designed to measure them. More specifically, content validity addresses "the extent to which a specific set of items reflects a content domain" (DeVellis, 2003, p. 49). The survey used in this study was based on previous literature which aided in reducing threats to content validity. First, Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 2000) classification of employee deviance was used to select the deviant behaviors that comprised the dependent variables. Second, the survey used by Akers and colleagues to measure social learning theory was closely adapted to fit the context of the restaurant. However, creating a new survey to measure social learning theory in a new context could also contribute to problems with content validity. It was possible that there were items that were not included in the survey that could have increased the validity of the study. The researcher took this into consideration when interpreting the results.

Human Subject Protections

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the sample for the study consisted of undergraduate students at IUP, which was not considered to be a vulnerable population. While this study has minimum human subject issues, certain human subject protections must be discussed. First, while most college students should have been over the age of

18 during the spring semester, it was possible that a few students were younger than 18. The ARL was able to filter out students who were not 18 years old, and exclude them from the random sample. Second, informed consent was provided to participants through the email sent to the random sample of students. The email contained details about the study, along with contact information for the researcher, and notification of IRB approval. It was made clear that participants were giving their informed consent if they chose to participate, but could withdraw at any time by closing their Internet browser and exiting the survey.

Third, anonymity was ensured to participants through the informed consent form as well. The random sample of email addresses selected by the ARL and entered in the researcher's Qualtrics account was only viewed by the researcher and the dissertation chair. Once the time period for the survey was complete, all survey files were exported to SPSS, excluding the email addresses. At this point, there was no way to identify which survey was associated with each email address. Finally, participation in this study posed no more than minimal risk to those who chose to participate. While participants were self-reporting their involvement and possible involvement of other restaurant employees in deviant acts, it was likely that these acts have been witnessed by more than one employee in the restaurant.

Summary

This chapter presented the methods used in the current study. Specifically, the researcher administered a web-based survey to a random sample of undergraduate students. Those who had restaurant experience were able to participate in the survey and answer questions about their involvement in deviant behavior while working. Out of the

170 restaurant employees who started the survey, only 144 fully completed it; therefore data is only presented for these individuals. The next chapter presents and discusses the descriptive statistics for the demographic information for the sample, the independent variables, and the dependent variables. In addition, the regression analyses are presented and the research questions and hypotheses are addressed.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the analysis of the survey data. First, the descriptive statistics for the sample and variables used in the study are presented. Next, tests for multicollinearity between the independent and dependent variables are presented. The chapter ends with a presentation of the results of the logistic regression analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

Presented in this section are the descriptive statistics for the sample, the independent variables, and the dependent variables. Table 2 presents the frequencies and percentages of the demographics of the sample, including age, age at time of employment, sex, and race. The current ages of the respondents ranged from 18 to 54, with a mean age of 21.48 (SD= 4.723).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Sample

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Currently Work in a Restaurant	54	37.5
Current Age		
18 – 54 years	M = 21.48 (SD = 4.723)	
Age at Employment		
15 – 39 years	M = 19.55 (SD = 3.208)	
<18 years	37	25.7
18	17	11.8
19	29	20.1
20	23	16.0
21	12	8.3
22	10	6.9
>23 years	16	11.1
Sex		
Female	103	71.5
Male	41	28.5

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Race		
Caucasian	129	89.6
African American	4	2.8
Hispanic	2	2.8
Asian	2	1.4
Other	5	3.5

Out of the total respondents, only 37.5% were working in a restaurant at the time the survey was administered. Therefore, former restaurant employees were asked to report their age at the time of their last employment. The respondents' age at the time of their last employment ranged from 15 to 39, with a mean age of 19.55 (SD= 3.208). This included the ages for those who reported currently working in a restaurant. The majority of the respondents in this study were female (71.5%) and Caucasian (89.6%). According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, most restaurant employees are between the ages of 18 and 34, which generally include high school and college students (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). In the current study, the majority of the respondents were high school or college age during their restaurant employment, which reflects the information reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In addition, the BLS reports that females account for the majority of restaurant employees (56%), as do Caucasians (67%) (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008). Based on this information, the sample used in this study is broadly representative of the larger population of restaurant employees with regard to age, sex, and race.

In addition to questions regarding age, sex, and race, respondents were asked about the type of restaurant where they worked, and the primary position they held while working there. The majority of the respondents reported working in a fast food chain restaurant (26%), a local/family owned restaurant with a bar (24.3%), or a local/family

owned restaurant without a bar (22.9%). Less common were corporate chain restaurants with a bar (14.6%) and corporate chain restaurants without a bar (11.8%). The survey item for type of restaurant originally included a sixth option of "other" in case respondents were unsure of where to classify their restaurant. Out of the 144 responses, 16 chose "other" and specified where they worked. After consideration, the researcher moved each response to the best fitting category. For example, places such as Sheetz and Rita's Italian Ice were placed in the fast food category, while country clubs and hotel restaurants were placed in the local/family owned with a bar category. If respondents listed multiple restaurants, the researcher placed their response in the first category listed. Table 3 lists the frequencies of the type of restaurant and position within the restaurant of the sample.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Type of Restaurant and Position

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Type of Restaurant		
Fast food chain	38	26.4
Corporate chain w/ bar	21	14.6
Corporate chain w/o bar	17	11.8
Local/family w/bar	35	24.3
Local/family w/o bar	33	22.9
Position		
Host/Hostess	34	23.6
Bartender	4	2.8
Waiter/Waitress	49	34.0
Cook/Chef/Food Preparer	37	25.7
Dishwasher	14	9.7
Busser	3	2.1
Manager	3	2.1

Respondents were asked to report their primary position within the restaurant during their most recent work experience. The majority of the respondents indicated their

position as waiter/waitress (34%), cook/chef/food preparer (25.7%), and host/hostess (23.6). Other positions, such as dishwasher, bartender, busser, and manager, were less common. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the positions of waiter/waitress, host/hostess, and cook/chef/food preparer are the most common due to their necessity in running a restaurant (2009a; 2009b). Therefore, the distribution of positions in the sample for this study, with a higher percentage of waiters, cooks, and hosts, reflects what is presented by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the restaurant industry. As with the question regarding type of restaurant, the survey item asking about position also included an option of "other." Out of the 144 total responses, 19 specified positions they did not think fit into the above mentioned categories. After consideration, the researcher moved each response to the best fitting category. For example, "sandwich artists" at Subway were placed in the cook/chef/food preparer category, while cashiers were placed into the host/hostess category. If respondents listed multiple positions, the researcher placed their response in the first category listed.

As presented in Table 3, some position categories (bartender, dishwasher, busser, and manager) contained less than 10% of the sample. The low number of respondents in these categories was likely due to the large majority of respondents being under 22 years of age (82%) and female (71.5%). The Bureau of Labor Statistics (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a; 2009b) reports that while restaurant employees must be at least 18 years old to serve alcohol, most restaurants hire bartenders who are at least in their mid to late 20's due to knowledge of alcohol and alcohol related laws. Therefore, the low number of bartenders is most likely to due to the fact that most respondents in the sample were 21 or younger at the time of their most recent employment. In addition, the low number of

dishwashers and bussers was most likely due to the fact that the respondents in this sample were mostly female, while these positions in the restaurant are primarily male.

As mentioned previously, the analytic method used in this project is logistic regression. In order to run logistic regression, categorical variables should contain at least 15% of the total cases in each category, otherwise the results will be biased due to little variation in the responses. Therefore, since some of the position categories contained few respondents, the researcher collapsed the independent variable "position" into a dichotomous measure of "front of the house" (62.5%) and "back of the house" (37.5%). This strategy has been employed in another study where the researchers examined employee deviance among various positions in the restaurant (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998).

Table 4 presents the frequencies and percentages of hourly wage, shift worked, and length of employment. The majority of respondents indicated earning an hourly wage between $4 and $8 (56.9%). The most common shift worked was the dinner shift (68.1%), which is one of the busiest times in the vast majority of restaurants. In addition, nearly half (49.3%) of the respondents indicated that they were employed over a year at their most recent restaurant work experience.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Hourly Wage, Shift Worked, and Length of Employment

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Hourly Wage		
$4.00 or less	44	30.6
$4.00 to $8.00	82	56.9
More than $8.00	18	12.5
Shift		
Early morning	7	4.9
Lunch	19	13.2
Dinner	98	68.1
Late night	20	13.9
Length of Employment		
Less than 3 months	19	13.2
4 to 6 months	24	16.7
7 to 9 months	17	11.8
10 to 12 months	13	9.0
Over a year	71	49.3

Since most wages are directly related to the position, Table 5 presents the cross-tabulation of wage and position. It is clear that most waiters/waitresses earned less than $4.00, which is the usual wage excluding tips (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a; 2009b). The Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that the median hourly wage for waiters and waitresses is $8.01, which includes tips (2008; 2009a; 2009b). Cooks/chefs/food preparers and hosts/hostesses earned between $4 and $8, which is lower than the median hourly wage of $10.93 and $8.42 for these positions (BLS, 2008; 2009a; 2009b). Therefore, what is reported by the sample in this study varies slightly from the information presented by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2008; 2009a; 2009b).

Table 5

Cross-tabulation of Wage and Position

	$4.00 or less	$4.01 to $8.00	More than $8.00	Total
Host/Hostess	3	26	5	34
Bartender	3	1	0	4
Waiter/Waitress	35	13	1	49
Cook/Chef	1	27	9	37
Dishwasher	0	12	2	14
Busser	2	0	1	3
Manager	0	3	0	3
Total	44	82	18	144

This section presented the descriptive statistics for the demographic characteristics of the sample. The following sections present and discuss the remaining independent variables and the dependent variables used in the study. While it is standard to discuss all independent variables prior to discussing the dependent variables, the researcher is first going to present and discuss the dependent variables. A main component of this study was to understand the relationship between different types of employee deviance and the components of social learning. Each of the components of social learning is discussed in relation to specific acts of deviance. Therefore, it would be helpful to have a better understanding of these types of deviance, specifically how frequently they occur, prior to the discussion of how the social learning variables were measured. For purposes of clarification, the dependent variables used in this study are presented and discussed prior to the discussion of the remaining independent variables.

Dependent Variables

As discussed previously, one goal of this research project was to understand the extent to which restaurant employees are involved in eleven different types of deviant

behaviors, which comprised organizational, production, property, and interpersonal deviance. The frequencies for involvement in each individual type of behavior are presented below. Table 6 presents the reported frequencies of involvement for organizational deviance, which include the behaviors of taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying nonfood/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working.

Table 6

Frequencies for Involvement in Organizational Deviance

	Never	2-3 times/month	2-3 times/week	Daily	Total
Take food/drink*	80 (55.6%)	29 (20.1%)	14 (9.7%)	21(14.6%)	144 (100%)
Take nonfood/drink*	117 (81.3%)	12 (8.3%)	7 (4.9%)	8 (5.6%)	144 (100%)
Destroy food/drink*	123 (85.4%)	10 (6.9%	6 (4.2%)	5 (3.5%)	144 (100%)
Destroy nonfood/drink*	132 (91.7%)	9 (6.3%)	2 (1.4%)	1 (0.7%)	144 (100%)
Alcohol while working**	130 (90.3%)	12 (8.3%)	2 (1.4%)	0 (0.0%)	144 (100%)
Drugs while working**	132 (91.7%)	3 (2.1%)	6 (4.2%)	3 (2.1%)	144 (100%)

Note. A * denotes behaviors that comprise property deviance and ** denotes behaviors that comprise production deviance.

As shown in this table, the vast majority of respondents reported that they had never engaged in any of the deviant behaviors about which they were queried. However, 44.4% (n=64) of respondents reported involvement in taking food/drink items without paying.

Table 7 presents the reported frequencies of involvement for interpersonal deviance, which includes the behaviors of ridiculing coworkers, verbally threatening coworkers, physically threatening coworkers, making sexual jokes/comments to coworkers, and engaging in unwanted flirting.

Table 7

Frequencies for Involvement in Interpersonal Deviance

	Never	2-3 times/month	2-3 times/week	Daily	Total
Ridiculing coworkers	110 (76.4%)	23 (16.0%)	5 (3.5%)	6 (4.2%)	144 (100%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	138 (95.8%)	4 (2.8%)	2 (1.4%)	0 (0.0%)	144 (100%)
Physical threat to coworkers	140 (97.2%)	3 (2.1%)	1 (0.7%)	0 (0.0%	144 (100%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	88 (61.1%)	30 (20.8%)	14 (9.7%)	12 (8.3%)	144 (100%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	123 (85.4%)	12 (8.3%)	5 (3.5%)	4 (2.8%)	144 (100%)

As shown in this table, and similarly to organizational deviance, the majority of respondents reported that they had never engaged in any of these deviant behaviors. However, 24.6% (n=34) of respondents reported ridiculing coworkers and 38.9% (n=56) reported making sexual jokes to coworkers. Given that previous studies have primarily focused on the deviant behaviors of taking food/drink items without paying (theft), ridiculing coworkers (bullying), and making sexual jokes to coworkers (sexual harassment) (Agrusa et al., 2002; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Erickson, 2004; Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Johns & Menzel, 1999; Krippel et al., 2008; Mathisen et al., 2008; Poulston, 2008;

Thoms et al., 200; Weber et al., 2002) and that these are the most prevalent behaviors reported in this study, a closer examination of these behaviors is warranted.

Based on the frequencies of involvement in these three types of employee deviance, it was evident that these dependent variables were not normally distributed; rather the majority of respondents reported no involvement in these behaviors. The distribution of responses violated a major assumption of OLS regression (normal distribution of the dependent variables), which indicated that this statistical technique could not be used. Therefore, the most appropriate analytic technique to use was logistic regression. In order to run logistic regression, the dependent variable must be dichotomous. To accomplish this, the three behaviors were transformed into dichotomous variables. Responses to the questions regarding involvement in each type of deviance were originally coded as follows: never (0), 2-3 times a month (1), 2-3 times a week (2), and daily (3). To dichotomize each behavior, responses of "never" were left as 0, while the other three responses were collapsed and recoded as 1. Based on this, each respondent was categorized as not participating in any deviance (0), or participating in deviance (1). Table 8 presents the frequencies of involvement in the three dichotomized deviant behaviors.

Table 8

Frequencies of Involvement in Dichotomized Deviant Behaviors

	No	Yes	Total
Take food/drink	80 (55.6%)	64 (44.4%)	144 (100%)
Ridiculing coworkers	110 (76.4%)	34 (23.6%)	144 (100%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	88 (61.1%)	56 (38.9%)	144 (100%)

One of the main purposes for this study was to examine the relationship between organizational, production, property, and interpersonal deviance and social learning. The conceptual framework used in this study was based on the research of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000), who divided workplace deviance into constructs measuring deviance against the organization and deviance against coworkers. Therefore, in order to assess the relationship of each component of social learning (definitions, imitation, differential associations, and differential reinforcement) to the four types of deviance, the survey items regarding involvement in each category of deviance had to be combined (6 behaviors for organizational deviance, 2 for production deviance, 4 for property deviance, 5 for interpersonal deviance). The six items measuring deviance against the restaurant (taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying nonfood/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working) were added together to create the dependent variable of organizational deviance. If a respondent indicated no involvement in any of the six behaviors, he or she received a score of 0. However, if the respondent was involved in one or more of the six behaviors, he or she received a score of 1, indicating involvement in organizational deviance. Involvement in interpersonal deviance was measured in the same way, but the dichotomous responses to involvement in the five behaviors that comprised interpersonal deviance were added together.

The researcher also chose to study production deviance (minor organizational deviance) and property deviance (serious organizational deviance) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 2000). Production deviance included consuming alcohol and using drugs while working. These two behaviors are considered to be production deviance because an

employee who engaged in these behaviors would slow down or disturb food production in the restaurant. Property deviance included taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, and destroying nonfood/drink. These four behaviors were considered to be property deviance because an employee who engaged in these behaviors was purposely tampering with restaurant items. The same process used to create the variables for organizational and interpersonal deviance was also used to create the variables for production and property deviance. Table 9 presents the frequencies of these newly created variables.

Table 9

Frequencies for Total Organizational and Interpersonal Deviance

	No	Yes	Total
Production Deviance	122 (84.7%)	22 (15.3%)	144 (100%)
Property Deviance	69 (47.9%)	75 (52.1%)	144 (100%)
Organizational Deviance	64 (44.4%)	80 (55.6%)	144 (100%)
Interpersonal Deviance	69 (47.9%)	75 (52.1%)	144 (100%)

After combining the behaviors into four measures, the responses were more evenly distributed between no involvement and involvement in deviance. These four variables, in addition to the three individual deviant behaviors (taking food/drink without paying, ridiculing coworkers, making sexual jokes/comments), were the dependent variables in the logistic regression models.

This section presented the dependent variables used in the study. The purpose of explaining these variables first was to provide an understanding of what these acts of deviance are, and how frequently they occur, prior to discussing the social learning

variables. The following section presents and discusses the social learning independent variables, which are linked to these specific acts of deviance.

Social Learning Variables

This research project sought to understand the relationship between social learning and employee deviance in restaurants. The four components of social learning (definitions, imitation, differential associations, and differential reinforcement) were measured in the same way as previous studies of employee deviance that addressed similar components, such as socialization/peer influence, and reaction of managers and coworkers to deviant employees (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Appelbaum & Shapiro, 2006; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Bryant & Higgins, 2009; Hollinger & Clark, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Jones & Kavanagh, 1996; Trevino, 1992). Studies that examined employee deviance in restaurants have mentioned that social learning is an important component to include, but they did not actually test any of the theory's components (Aquino et al., 1999; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Other researchers indicated the significance of the socialization process or peer influence within the restaurant industry, but did not test Akers' (1998) measures of social learning using a survey method (Blosi & Hoel, 2007; Doern & Kates, 1998; Harris & Ogbonna, 2001; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kjaerheim et al., 1995; Trevino & Victor, 1992).

Since none of these previous studies of employee deviance directly tested all of the components of social learning, the researcher constructed the survey for this study using research by Akers and colleagues as a guide (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al., 1979; Krohn et al., 1984). For each of the eleven types of deviant behavior (discussed above), the survey contained questions designed to measure the four

components of social learning (see Appendix E for survey instrument). First, the social learning component "definitions" was measured by the respondent's approval or disapproval of various types of deviance committed by restaurant employees. Approving of certain deviant employee behaviors indicated favorable definitions of deviance. Second, "differential association" was measured through the respondents' perception of whether other employees approved or disapproved of various types of deviance. If the respondent perceived that coworkers held favorable definitions toward engaging in deviance while working, this indicated that employee deviance was accepted. Third, "imitation" was measured by the perceived number of coworkers involved in various types of deviance. If more coworkers were perceived to be involved in deviance while working, this indicated that there were opportunities that the respondent could model or imitate deviant behavior. Finally, the current study included three measures of "differential reinforcement" that included the perceived reaction of managers to deviance, the perceived reaction of coworkers to deviance, and the likelihood of an employee getting caught if he or she engaged in deviance while working. If the respondent perceived that managers and coworkers would have a negative reaction to the deviant behavior, or if the respondent perceived that the likelihood of getting caught was high, then this indicated that deviant behavior was not accepted. The frequencies of the responses for each of the social learning measures are located in Appendix G.

After examining the frequency distributions of the responses to the categorical items measuring the components of social learning, it was evident that some of the response categories contained less than 15% of the total cases, indicating little variation between the responses (see Appendix G). For example, the frequencies of responses for

the survey items measuring the respondent's perception of different types of deviance (definitions) were below 15% for approving of each type of behavior (See Appendix G). In order to use the categorical variables of differential association, definitions, and differential reinforcement (reaction of managers and reaction of coworkers) in the logistic regression models, each category needed to contain at least 15% of the total cases, otherwise the analyses would be biased due to inflated odds ratios. Therefore, the researcher needed to collapse the categorical variables. Some of the response categories for the social learning variables were conceptually similar, and it could be argued that they should be combined. The next section discusses the conceptual justification for dichotomizing the variables of differential association, definitions, and differential reinforcement (reaction of managers and reaction of coworkers). The remaining social learning variables of imitation and differential reinforcement (likelihood of getting caught) are discussed later.

Differential Association and Definitions

For the variable measuring differential association, the response categories were originally coded as follows: disapprove (1), depends (2), approve (3), and don't care (4). These were collapsed into disapprove (0) and approve/depends/don't care (1). The researcher chose this dichotomization for two reasons. First, it could be argued that the response categories of approve, depends, and don't care are conceptually similar. A respondent who answered "depends" may believe other restaurant employees would approve of the deviant behavior given the right situation. Similarly, a response of "don't care" may indicate that a respondent perceived that restaurant employees would not participate in deviance but would not disapprove if it took place. Second, the

dichotomization of "differential association" presented the least issues with variation between responses, and thereby minimized the problem of having less than 15% of the cases per response category. Table 10 presents the frequencies of the dichotomized variables for differential association.

Table 10

Frequencies of Dichotomized Differential Association Variables

	Disapprove	Approve/ Don't Care
Organizational Deviance		
Take food/drink	23 (16%)	121 (84%)
Take nonfood/drink	78 (54.2%)	66 (45.8%)
Destroy food/drink	91 (63.2%)	53 (36.8%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	98 (68.1%)	46 (31.9%)
Alcohol while working	93 (64.6%)	51 (35.4%)
Drugs while working	102 (70.8%)	42 (29.2%)
Interpersonal Deviance		
Ridiculing coworker	72 (50%)	72 (50%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	122 (84.7%)	22 (15.3%)
Physically threaten coworkers	129 (89.6%)	15 (10.4%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	47 (32.6%)	97 (67.4%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	78 (54.2%)	66 (45.8%)

After dichotomizing the measure for differential associations, only the measure for disapproval or approval of employees physically threatening coworkers contained less than 15% in one category. This indicated little variance in responses – with an overwhelming majority suggesting that coworkers would disapprove of this behavior. A similar number of respondents had the same perceptions regarding verbally threatening coworkers. This indicated that behaviors that are of a threatening nature are seen as very problematic in restaurants.

For both taking food/drink items without paying and making sexual jokes or comments, more respondents indicated that they perceived other restaurant employees

would approve of the behavior rather than disapprove. This indicates that these behaviors are viewed as more acceptable in the restaurant setting. Conversely, respondents perceived that restaurant employees were more likely to disapprove of all other types of deviance.

Similar to differential association, the response categories for the variable measuring "definitions" were originally as follows: disapprove (1), depends (2), approve (3), and don't care (4). These were collapsed into disapprove (0) and approve/depends/don't care (1). The rationale for this dichotomization was the same as discussed for differential association. First, it could be argued that the response categories of approve, depends, and don't care are conceptually similar. Given the right situation, an employee who responded "depends" may approve of deviant behavior. Similarly, a response of "don't care" could indicate that the respondent may not participate in deviance but would not disapprove if it took place. Second, the dichotomization of "definitions" presented the least issues with variation between response categories. Table 11 presents the frequencies of the dichotomized variables for definitions.

Table 11

Frequencies of Dichotomized Definitions

	Disapprove	Approve/ Don't Care
Organizational Deviance		
Take food/drink	37 (25.7%)	107 (74.3%)
Take nonfood/drink	87 (60.4%)	57 (39.6%)
Destroy food/drink	105 (72.9%)	39 (27.1%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	111 (77.1%)	33 (22.9%)
Alcohol while working	107 (74.3%)	37 (25.7%)
Drugs while working	118 (81.9%)	26 (18.1%)

Interpersonal Deviance		
Ridiculing coworker	100 (69.4%)	44 (30.6%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	128 (88.9%)	16 (11.1%)
Physically threaten coworkers	132 (91.7%)	12 (8.3%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	69 (47.9%)	75 (52.1%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	99 (68.8%)	45 (31.3%)

After dichotomizing the measure for definitions, only the deviant behaviors of making verbal threats to coworkers and making physical threats to coworkers contained less than 15% in one category, which indicated little variance in responses. This indicates that the majority of respondents disapproved of these behaviors and viewed them as problematic. For both taking food/drink items without paying and making sexual jokes or comments, more respondents indicated that they approved of the behavior rather than disapproved. Conversely, more respondents disapproved rather than approved of involvement in all other types of deviance.

Differential Reinforcement: Reaction of Managers and Coworkers

The categorical variables of reaction of managers and reaction of coworkers to deviance, which both measured differential reinforcement, also had to be collapsed for analysis. Similar to the other social learning variables, doing so presented the least issues with variation between response categories. In addition, it could be argued that some of the response categories were conceptually similar. For the perceived reaction of managers to employee involvement in deviant behavior, the responses were do nothing (1), support the employee (2), reprimand the employee (3), fire the employee (4), and don't know (5). These were collapsed into do nothing/reward/don't know (0), and reprimand/fire (1). This indicated the perceived reaction of managers as either positive/neutral or negative. Table 12 presents the frequencies of these dichotomized variables for this measure of differential reinforcement.

Table 12

Frequencies of Dichotomized Differential Reinforcement – Reaction of Managers

	Do Nothing/ Reward/Don't Know	Reprimand/Fire
Organizational Deviance		
Take food/drink	72 (50.0%)	72 (50.0%)
Take nonfood/drink	39 (27.1%)	105 (72.9%)
Destroy food/drink	38 (26.4%)	106 (73.6%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	28 (19.4%)	116 (80.6%)
Alcohol while working	24 (16.7%)	120 (83.3%)
Drugs while working	20 (13.9%)	124 (86.1%)
Interpersonal Deviance		
Ridiculing coworker	60 (41.7%)	84 (58.3%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	27 (18.8%)	117 (81.2%)
Physically threaten coworkers	15 (10.4%)	129 (89.6%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	83 (57.6%)	61 (42.4%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	80 (55.6%)	64 (44.4%)

After dichotomizing this measure of differential reinforcement, two deviant behaviors (using drugs while working and physically threatening coworkers) contained less than 15% of the cases in one category, indicating little variance in responses. An overwhelming majority perceived that managers would reprimand or fire an employee for these behaviors. Fewer respondents perceived managers to reprimand or fire a deviant employee when he or she verbally threatened coworkers, used alcohol while working, or destroyed nonfood/drink. Conversely, more than half of the respondents perceived that if an employee made sexual jokes and comments to coworkers or engaged in unwanted flirting, most managers would not reprimand or fire the employee. This suggests these behaviors are not viewed as very serious or problematic by restaurant employees.

For the perceived reaction of coworkers to employee involvement in deviant behavior, the responses were do nothing (1), encourage the coworker (2), discourage the coworker (3), inform managers (4), and don't know (5). These were collapsed into a

dichotomous measure indicating the perceived reaction of coworkers to a deviant employee as encouraging the employee, doing nothing, or not knowing how they would respond (0) or discouraging the employee or informing managers (1). The same reasoning was applied to this variable as with the other categorical social learning variables. First, it could be argued that the response categories of discourage the coworker and inform managers are conceptually similar because they indicate a negative reaction to employee deviance. The other response categories indicate a positive or neutral reaction to employee deviance. Second, dichotomizing "reaction of coworkers" in this way presented the least issues with variation between response categories. Table 13 presents the frequencies of these dichotomized variables for the second measure of differential reinforcement, reaction of coworkers to deviant behavior.

Table 13

Frequencies of Dichotomized Differential Reinforcement – Reaction of Coworkers

	Encourage/ Do Nothing/ Don't Know	Discourage/Inform Managers
Organizational Deviance		
Take food/drink	113 (78.5%)	31 (21.5%)
Take nonfood/drink	86 (59.7%)	58 (40.3%)
Destroy food/drink	58 (40.3%)	86 (59.7%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	51 (35.4%)	93 (64.6%
Alcohol while working	55 (38.2%)	89 (61.8%)
Drugs while working	53 (36.8%)	91 (63.2%)
Interpersonal Deviance		
Ridiculing coworker	71 (49.3%)	73 (50.7%)
Verbally threaten coworkers	34 (23.6%)	110 (76.4%)
Physically threaten coworkers	17 (11.8%)	127 (88.2%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	101 (70.1%)	43 (29.9%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	73 (50.7%)	71 (49.3%)

After dichotomizing this measure of differential reinforcement, only one deviant behavior (physically threatening coworkers) contained less than 15% of the cases in one category,

indicating little variance in those responses. This is similar to the perceived reaction of managers for employees physically threatening coworkers. Also, slightly fewer respondents perceived that coworkers would discourage or inform managers of a coworker who was verbally threatening others.

For over half of the deviant behaviors, most respondents perceived that the reaction of coworkers would be to discourage or inform managers if deviance occurred. However, the majority of respondents perceived that coworkers would encourage a deviant coworker or do nothing if the coworker was taking food or drink items without paying or making sexual comments/jokes to others. This indicates that these behaviors are not viewed as problematic.

Unlike the social learning variables of definitions, differential associations, and differential reinforcement (reaction of managers and coworkers), the remaining social learning variables of imitation and differential reinforcement (likelihood of getting caught) were interpreted as continuous variables, and did not need to be collapsed. The response categories for these variables ranged from low to high. For example, imitation was measured by respondents' perceptions of the number of coworkers involved in deviance. Possible responses were none, few, most, and all. Similarly, the likelihood of getting caught in deviance ranged from very unlikely to very likely. For the purposes of this study, these items could be interpreted as continuous data, which has been supported by other researchers (Carifio, 1976, 1978; Carifio & Perla, 2008). The frequencies for these continuous variables are presented in Appendix H.

Combined Measures for Social Learning Components

One of the main purposes for this study was to examine the relationship between organizational, production, property, and interpersonal deviance and social learning. As previously discussed, the conceptual framework used in this study was based on the research of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000), who divided workplace deviance into constructs measuring deviance against the organization (both production and property) and deviance against coworkers. Therefore, in order to assess the relationship of each component of social learning (definitions, imitation, differential associations, and differential reinforcement) to these four types of deviance, the survey items for each component of social learning had to be combined. These newly created variables provided measures of social learning for organizational deviance, property deviance, production deviance, and interpersonal deviance. This was accomplished by adding the responses to the survey items regarding each social learning component for the four categories of deviance (6 behaviors for organizational deviance, 5 for interpersonal deviance, 2 for production deviance and 4 for property deviance) (refer to Tables 6 and 7 for included behaviors). The following sections discuss how these combined variables were created and present the frequencies for the newly created variables.

Imitation and Differential Reinforcement (Likelihood of Getting Caught)

In the current study, the variables of imitation and differential reinforcement were interpreted as continuous interval variables based on the range of responses from low to high. Carifio and Perla (2008) argue "it is perfectly appropriate to sum Likert items and analyze the summations" (p. 1151). Therefore, to create the variables for imitation and differential reinforcement for organizational deviance, production deviance, property

deviance, and interpersonal deviance, the researcher summed the responses for the survey items measuring these social learning components. To further clarify, below is the survey item that was used to measure "imitation" for each deviant behavior

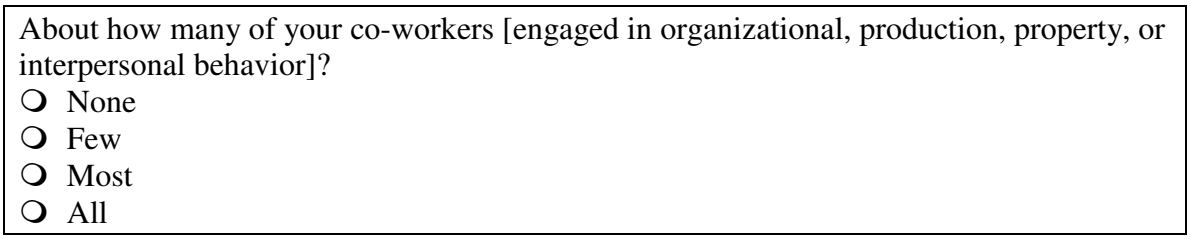

Figure 2. Survey item measuring "imitation."

The responses to the above question were coded as follows: none (0), few (1), most (2), and all (3). To compute each respondent's imitation score for organizational deviance, the researcher created a continuous variable by adding together the responses to this question for the six types of organizational deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking non food/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying non food/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working). Once the responses were combined into the one continuous variable, the total possible range was 0-18, and the range for the respondents in this study was 0-12. The same process was used to create imitation scores for production, property, and interpersonal deviance.

The total possible range for the imitation score for production deviance was 0-6, and the range for the respondents was 0-4. The total possible range for the imitation score for property deviance was 0-12, and the range for the respondents was 0-10. Finally, the total possible range for the imitation score for interpersonal deviance was 0-15, and the range for the respondents in this study was 0-9. Based on this, each respondent had a score that indicated the perceived number of coworkers who were involved in organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and

interpersonal deviance. While the individual scores do not correspond directly with an exact number of coworkers, based on the responses to the imitation questions it can be argued that as a respondent's imitation score increased, he or she perceived more coworkers to be engaging in deviant behavior. Table 14 presents the ranges for "imitation".

Table 14

Ranges of Imitation

	Possible Range	Actual Range
Organizational	0 – 18	0 – 12
Production	0 – 6	0 – 4
Property	0 – 12	0 – 10
Interpersonal	0 – 15	0 – 9

The same process used to create the combined imitation variables was used to create one of the measures of differential reinforcement, the likelihood of getting caught. The other two measures of differential reinforcement, reaction of managers and coworkers, were categorical variables that could not be interpreted as continuous; therefore they were kept as categorical. These variables are discussed in the next section. For the "likelihood of getting caught" measure of differential reinforcement for organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance, the researcher summed the responses for the survey items measuring this social learning component. Below is the survey item that was used to measure this component for each behavior.

If an employee of the restaurant [engaged in organizational, property, production, or interpersonal deviance], how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

Figure 3. Survey item measuring "likelihood of getting caught."

The responses to the above question were coded as follows: very unlikely (1), unlikely (2), equally unlikely or likely (3), likely (4), and very likely (5). To compute each respondent's differential reinforcement score for organizational deviance, the researcher created a continuous variable by adding together the responses to this question for the six types of organizational deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking non food/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying non food/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working). Once the responses were combined into one continuous variable, the total possible range was 6-30, which was also the range for the respondents in this study.

The same process was used to create differential reinforcement scores for production, property, and interpersonal deviance. The possible and actual ranges of responses for the differential reinforcement score for production deviance were 2-10. The possible and actual ranges of responses for the differential reinforcement score for property deviance were 4-20. Finally, the possible and actual ranges for the differential reinforcement score for interpersonal deviance were 5-25. As a respondent's differential reinforcement score increased, they reported a higher likelihood of getting caught engaging in deviant behavior. Table 15 presents the ranges for "differential reinforcement" for organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance.

Table 15

Ranges of Likelihood of Getting Caught (Differential Reinforcement)

	Possible Range	Actual Range
Organizational	6 – 30	6 – 30
Production	2 – 10	2 – 10
Property	4 – 20	4 – 20
Interpersonal	5 – 25	5 – 25

Differential Reinforcement: Reaction of Managers and Coworkers

In addition to the likelihood of getting caught, this study included two other measures of differential reinforcement, the reaction of managers and the reaction of coworkers to deviant behavior. The same process discussed above could not be used for these variables because the original responses were categorical and could not be interpreted as continuous. As detailed above, for the variable, "reaction of managers to deviant behavior", the responses were do nothing, reward the employee, reprimand the employee, fire the employee, and don't know. These were first collapsed into do nothing/reward/don't know (0), and reprimand/fire (1). This indicated the perceived reaction of managers as either positive or negative. However, the problem of little variation between responses still existed. The researcher chose to collapse this measure of differential reinforcement into a dichotomous measure indicating the reaction of managers to a deviant employee as not firing the employee (0) or firing the employee (1). The perceived reaction of managers as firing a deviant employee results in the termination of employment, while the other reactions do not.

To measure the reaction of managers and the reaction of coworkers for organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance, the researcher added together the responses from the questions regarding these

social learning measures for each behavior. For example, to measure the "reaction of managers for organizational deviance", the researcher added together the responses to this question for the six organizational types of deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying nonfood/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working). If a respondent perceived that managers would react to involvement in each type of employee deviance in a way other than firing the employee, the respondent would have a score of 0. Otherwise, if a respondent perceived that managers would react to any of the six acts of deviance by firing the deviant employee, the respondent would have a score of 1. Table 16 presents the dichotomized differential reinforcement variable of reaction of managers to the different types of deviance.

Table 16

Dichotomous Differential Reinforcement (Managers)

	Frequency	Percent
Organizational		
Not fired	28	19.4%
Fired	116	80.6%
Production		
Not fired	34	23.6%
Fired	110	76.4%
Property		
Not fired	84	58.3%
Fired	60	41.7%
Interpersonal		
Not fired	40	27.8%
Fired	104	72.2%

For all categories of deviance, except property deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink items, and destroying nonfood/drink items), more respondents perceived that managers would fire a deviant

employee. Conversely, less than half of the respondents perceived that a manager would fire a deviant employee if he or she engaged in property deviance.

As discussed above, for the variable, "reaction of coworkers to deviant behavior", the responses were do nothing, encourage the coworker, discourage the coworker, inform managers, and don't know. These were first collapsed into a dichotomous measure indicating the perceived reaction of workers to a deviant employee as negative (discourage the coworker, inform managers) or positive (encourage the coworker, do nothing, don't know). However, little variation between these response categories existed. Therefore, these were collapsed into a dichotomous measure indicating the perceived reaction of coworkers to a deviant employee as not informing managers (0) or informing managers (1). It could be argued that the response categories of do nothing, encourage the coworker, discourage the coworker, and don't know are conceptually similar because they do not result in the possibility of formal punishment. If a manager is informed of an employee's deviance, then it is possible that a formal punishment (i.e. termination of employment, suspension) could result. Table 17 presents the dichotomized differential reinforcement variables of reactions of coworkers to the different types of deviance.

Table 17

Dichotomous Differential Reinforcement (Coworkers)

	Frequency	Percent
Organizational		
Managers not informed	61	42.4%
Managers informed	83	57.6%
Production		
Managers not informed	73	50.7%
Managers informed	71	49.3%
Property		
Managers not informed	90	62.5%
Managers informed	54	37.5%
Interpersonal		
Mangers not informed	54	37.5%
Managers informed	90	62.5%

For interpersonal and organizational deviance, more respondents perceived that managers would be informed if a deviant behavior occurred. For property deviance, which includes theft and destruction of food, it was less likely that managers would be informed. However, if employees engaged in production deviance, which includes consuming alcohol and using drugs while working, it was equally likely whether managers would be informed or not.

Differential Association and Definitions

As presented and discussed earlier in this chapter, the response categories for the variables measuring differential association and definitions were originally as follows: disapprove (1), depends (2), approve (3), and don't care (4). These were collapsed into disapprove (0) and approve/don't care (1). To create the measures of differential association and definitions for organizational deviance, production deviance, property deviance, and interpersonal deviance, the researcher added together the responses to the questions regarding these social learning measures for each behavior.

The measure of differential association for organizational deviance was constructed by adding together the responses to the question measuring differential association for the six organizational types of deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying nonfood/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working). If a respondent perceived that restaurant employees were more likely to disapprove of all six types of organizational employee deviance, he or she received a score of 0. Conversely, if a respondent perceived that restaurant employees were more likely to approve or not care about one or more of the six types of organizational employee deviance, he or she received a score of 1. Table 18 presents the frequencies of the newly created dichotomous variables for differential association.

Table 18

Dichotomous Differential Association

	Frequency	Percent
Organizational*		
Disapprove	13	9.0%
Approve/Don't Care	131	91.0%
Production		
Disapprove	80	55.6%
Approve/Don't Care	64	44.4%
Property*		
Disapprove	16	11.1%
Approve/Don't Care	128	88.9%
Interpersonal		
Disapprove	27	18.8%
Approve/Don't Care	117	81.3%

* <15% in one category

In all but one category of deviance, more respondents perceived that restaurant employees approved or did not care about employee deviance. Also, it should be noted that after transforming differential association into a dichotomous variable, organizational

deviance and property deviance contained less than 15% of the cases in the disapprove category. This indicated that there was little variation in these responses.

The dichotomized measure of definitions was created in the same way as the measure for differential association. The measure of definitions for organizational deviance was constructed by adding together the responses to the question measuring definitions for the six types of organizational deviance. If a respondent disapproved of all six types of organizational deviance, he or she received a score of 0. Conversely, if a respondent approved or did not care about one or more of the six types of organizational deviance, he or she received of 1. There were no problems with variation in the dichotomous definitions variables, which are presented below in Table 19.

Table 19

Dichotomous Definitions

	Frequency	Percent
Organizational		
Disapprove	28	19.4%
Approve/Don't Care	116	80.6%
Production		
Disapprove	100	69.4%
Approve/Don't Care	44	30.6%
Property		
Disapprove	31	21.5%
Approve/Don't Care	113	78.5%
Interpersonal		
Disapprove	48	33.3%
Approve/Don't Care	96	66.7%

In all but one category, respondents were more likely to approve or not care whether restaurant employees engaged in deviance. The exception was production deviance, which consists of using drugs and alcohol while working. For this category of

deviance, approximately 70% of respondents disapproved of employees using drugs or consuming alcohol while working.

This section discussed the social learning variables included in the current study. The remainder of the chapter presents the logistic regression models and a brief discussion of the results. A number of logistic regression models were used to analyze the data. This included separate models for production deviance, property deviance, organizational deviance, interpersonal deviance, and the three frequently reported deviant behaviors (taking food/drink without paying, ridiculing coworkers, and making sexual jokes/comments to coworkers). The following section presents the results of the regression analyses. First, however, tests for multicollinearity between the independent variables are presented and discussed.

Tests for Multicollinearity

Prior to running the logistic regression models, the researcher tested for multicollinearity between the independent variables (see Appendix I). This was done in two ways. First, bivariate correlations were computed between each dependent variable and the eleven independent variables. There is no agreed upon cutoff number for multicollinearity; however, as a general rule, as long as the correlations between the independent variables are less than .80, there are no problems with multicollinearity (Lewis-Beck, 1980; Studenmund, 1997). After reviewing the correlation matrices, it was evident that there were no problems with multicollinearity between any of the variables in this study.

However, it was evident that some of the independent variables were significantly correlated with the dependent variables. Positive correlations were found between

organizational deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying nonfood/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working) and "sex" (r = .224), "definitions" (r = .479), and "imitation" (r = .540). A negative correlation was found between organizational deviance and "the likelihood of getting caught" (r = -.204). This indicates that males appear to be more involved in organizational deviance than females. In addition, the respondents who approve of organizational deviance tend to be involved in this type of behavior. Finally, as respondents report that the likelihood of getting caught decreases and perceive a higher number of deviant coworkers, organizational deviance is committed.

Positive correlations were found between interpersonal deviance (ridiculing coworkers, verbally threatening coworkers, physically threatening coworkers, making sexual jokes/comments to coworkers, and engaging in unwanted flirting) and "sex" (r = .501), "definitions" (r = .501), "differential associations" (r = .323), and "imitation" (r = .455). This indicates that males appear to be more involved in interpersonal deviance. In addition, respondents tend to report involvement in deviance if they perceive other restaurant employees to approve of interpersonal deviance and perceive a higher number of deviant coworkers.

Positive correlations were found between production deviance (drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working) and "sex" (r = .203), "definitions" (r = .514), differential associations (r = .281), and "imitation" (r = .435). Negative correlations were found between production deviance and "the reaction of coworkers" (r = -.226) and "the likelihood of getting caught" (r = -.246). First, this indicates that males

appear to be more involved in production deviance. Second, respondents who approve of production deviance, and perceive other restaurant employees to approve, tend to be involved in production deviance. Third, respondents who perceive a higher number of deviant coworkers tend to be involved in this type of deviance. Finally, involvement in production deviance occurs as the likelihood of getting caught decreases and when the perceived reaction of coworkers is not to inform managers.

Positive correlations were found between property deviance (taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, and destroying nonfood/drink) and "sex" (r = .236), definitions (r = .478), and imitation (r = .570). Negative correlations were found between property deviance and "the likelihood of getting caught" (r = -.169). This indicates that males appear to be more involved than females in property deviance. In addition, respondents who approve of production deviance and perceive a higher number of deviant coworkers, tend to be involved in this type of deviance. Finally, involvement in property deviance occurs as the likelihood of getting caught decreases.

According to Cohen (1988), the effects of bivariate correlations can be interpreted as small (.10 - .29), medium (.30 - .49), and large (.50 – 1.0). For each dependent variable, there was either a medium or large positive correlation with the measures of imitation and definitions. The strength of this relationship indicates that these variables are important and could be significant in the regression models. In addition, the demographic variable, "sex" was significantly correlated with each dependent variable. A medium relationship existed for interpersonal deviance and making sexual jokes/comments, and a small relationship existed for the other deviant behaviors. This

indicates that "sex" could be significant in the regression models for interpersonal deviance and making sexual jokes/comments to coworkers.

In addition to using bivariate correlations to test for multicollinearity, the researcher also checked the variance inflation factors (VIF) for the variables used in the study. None of the VIF factors were above 4, indicating that there was not a problem with multicollinearity between the independent and dependent variables. It is also important to note that based on the correlation matrices and the VIF factors, there was no conceptual overlap between the variables that measure the components of social learning theory.

Logistic Regression Analyses

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the majority of the responses indicating involvement in the different types of deviant behavior were greatly skewed toward no involvement. Because the dependent variables were not normally distributed, this violated a major assumption of OLS regression. Unlike OLS regression, which allows researchers to determine the relationship between a continuous dependent variable and multiple independent variables, logistic regression allows researchers to determine the relationship between a dichotomous or categorical dependent variable and multiple independent variables (Liao, 1994). Logistic regression is used "to predict the probability that a case will be classified into one as opposed to the other of the two categories of the dependent variable" (Menard, 2002, p. 12).

Many previous studies of social learning have analyzed data using logistic regression (Higgins, Mahoney, & Ricketts, 2009; Krohn, Skinner, Massey, & Akers, 1985; Monroe, 2004; Wareham, Boots, & Chavez, 2009). This was due to the fact that

the dependent variable was skewed toward zero, or no involvement in certain deviant behaviors. Since this violated a significant assumption of OLS regression, logistic regression was used. For the current study, the researcher checked the distribution of the dependent variables (organizational and interpersonal deviance). Since they were highly skewed, the dependent variables were transformed into dichotomous measures (0 = no deviance involvement, 1 = deviance involvement) and logistic regression was used in place of OLS regression. The components of social learning theory and a number of demographic measures were used to predict involvement in different types of employee deviance in restaurants. The regression equation is as follows:

$$\text{logit}\,(y) = a_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \ldots + b_kX_k$$

Where:

logit (y) = the log odds of the dependent variable, level of employee deviance (organizational or interpersonal)

a_0 = the constant

b = the coefficient for each independent variable

X_1 = differential reinforcement (1)

X_2 = differential reinforcement (2)

X_3 = differential reinforcement (3)

X_4 = differential association

X_5 = imitation

X_6 = definitions

X_7 = position in restaurant

X_8 = shift worked

X_9 = length of employment

X_{10} = sex

X_{11} = age

A total of seven regression models were run to understand the relationship between eleven independent variables (social learning and demographics) and the different types of employee deviance.[3] The remainder of this chapter presents the regression models, and addresses the research questions and hypotheses for the study.

Organizational and Interpersonal Deviance

The first two logistic regression models run were for involvement in organizational and interpersonal deviance. Table 20 presents the results from the logistic regression model for organizational deviance. This included the behaviors of taking food/drink without paying, taking nonfood/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying nonfood/drink, drinking alcohol while working, and using illegal drugs while working.

[3] In each of the seven regression models, the odds ratios were extremely high for the variable of definitions. This is most likely due to the small sample size for this study, which contributed to low cell counts for the categorical independent variables when included in a crosstab with the dependent variables. According to Menard (2002), there are options for addressing low cell counts. For the purposes of this study, the researcher chose to leave these variables in the regression models because they were statistically significant, but interpret them cautiously. Menard (2002) states that this is "acceptable if [the researcher is] concerned more with the overall relationship between a set of predictors and a dependent variable than with the effects of the individual predictors" (p. 79).

Table 20

Logistic Regression Results for Organizational Deviance

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	-.407	.360	.666
Emp Length	-.048	.167	.953
Position	.594	.576	1.811
Age	-.086	.083	.918
Sex	.968	.659	2.634
Definitions	*3.107	.903	22.354
Diff Assoc	--	--	--
DR1	.903	.648	2.468
DR2	.778	.533	2.178
DR3	.022	.066	1.022
Imitation	*.699	.150	2.012
Constant	-4.334	2.218	.013
Cox/Snell R^2	.436		
Nagelkerke R^2	.583		

* $p < .05$

Only two variables, definitions and imitation, were statistically significant in this model. The odds of engaging in deviance directed against the restaurant increase by 69.9% for each increase in the perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior.[4] If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in deviance, he or she was more likely to be involved in deviance as well. In addition, the odds of engaging in deviance directed against the restaurant are higher[5] for respondents who don't care or approve of this type of behavior as opposed to those respondents who disapprove.[6]

[4] For all continuous independent variables, the researcher used Roncek and Swatt's (2006) method of interpretation. This entailed multiplying the logit coefficient by 100 which allows "[a direct interpretation] as the percentage change in the odds give a unit change in the independent variable" (Roncek & Swatt, 2006, p. 731).

[5] As mentioned in Footnote 1, some of the odds ratios in this study are extremely high. For those odds ratios that would be interpreted as an 1000% increase or greater, the researcher omitted these percentages, and interpreted the relationship as higher odds (see Footnote 1 for explanation).

[6] For all dichotomous independent variables, the researcher used Pampel's (2000) method of interpretation. This entailed subtracting one from the exponentiated coefficient and multiplying it by 100. This allows a comparison between the reference category and the category of interest, and can be interpreted as a percentage change in the odds.

Table 21 presents the results from the logistic regression model for interpersonal deviance. This included the behaviors of ridiculing coworkers, verbally threatening coworkers, physically threatening coworkers, making sexual jokes, and engaging in unwanted flirting.

Table 21

Logistic Regression Results for Interpersonal Deviance

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	.253	.357	1.288
Emp Length	.085	.166	1.089
Position	-.441	.586	.643
Age	-.109	.085	.897
Sex	*2.053	.747	7.793
Definitions	*2.216	.645	9.168
Diff Assoc	.102	.875	1.107
DR1	.527	.593	1.694
DR2	-.027	.521	.973
DR3	.054	.067	1.055
Imitation	*.493	.132	1.638
Constant	-3.806	2.387	.022
Cox/Snell R^2	.410		
Nagelkerke R^2	.547		

* $p < .05$

For this model, three variables are statistically significant. This includes definitions, imitation, and sex of the respondent. First, the odds of engaging in interpersonal deviance increase by 49.3% for each increase in the perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior. If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in deviance, he or she was more likely to be involved in deviance as well. Second, the odds of engaging in interpersonal deviance are 816% higher for respondents who don't care or approve of this type of behavior as opposed to those respondents who disapprove. Finally, the odds of engaging in interpersonal deviance are 679% higher for males than females.

Property and Production Deviance

Following Robinson and Bennett's (1995, 2000) conceptualization of employee deviance, this study was not only interested in organizational and interpersonal deviance, but also in property and production deviance as well. As discussed above, the six behaviors used to measure organizational deviance were divided into production deviance, which is considered minor (using alcohol and using drugs while working) and property deviance, which is considered serious (taking food/drink without paying, taking non food/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying non food/drink). Table 22 presents the results from the logistic regression model for production deviance.

Table 22

Logistic Regression Results for Production Deviance

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	*1.450	.733	4.262
Emp Length	-.431	.299	.650
Position	.301	.864	1.351
Age	-.103	.172	.902
Sex	.252	.870	1.287
Definitions	*4.376	1.248	79.507
Diff Assoc	-.187	1.062	.830
DR1	.629	.839	1.875
DR2	-.662	.842	.516
DR3	.452	.297	1.572
Imitation	*2.043	.546	7.711
Constant	-11.543	4.962	.000
Cox/Snell R^2	.350		
Nagelkerke R^2	.609		

* $p < .05$

In this model, three variables are statistically significant. This includes definitions, imitation, and shift worked. First, the odds of engaging in production deviance increase by 204% for each increase in perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior. If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in production

deviance, he or she was more likely to be involved in these behaviors as well. Second, the odds of engaging in production deviance are higher for respondents who don't care or approve of drinking or using illegal drugs while working. Finally, the odds of engaging in production deviance increase by 145% for each increase in shift. Individuals who work later shifts in the day are more likely to engage in production deviance than those who work earlier.

Table 23 presents the results of the logistic regression model for property deviance. This includes the following behaviors: taking food/drink without paying, taking non food/drink without paying, destroying food/drink, destroying non food/drink.

Table 23

Logistic Regression Results for Property Deviance

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	-.384	.389	.681
Emp Length	.075	.168	1.077
Position	.641	.585	1.899
Age	-.061	.087	.941
Sex	.970	.652	2.639
Definitions	*2.708	.874	15.004
Diff Assoc	--	--	--
DR1	.787	.549	2.197
DR2	.361	.525	1.435
DR3	.076	.097	1.079
Imitation	*1.014	.210	2.756
Constant	-5.215	2.284	.005
Cox/Snell R^2	.453		
Nagelkerke R^2	.605		

* $p < .05$

In this model, two variables are statistically significant. This includes definitions and imitation. The odds of engaging in property deviance increase by 101% for each increase in perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior. If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in deviance, he or she was more likely to be

involved in deviance as well. The odds of engaging in property deviance are higher for respondents who don't care or approve of engaging in this type of deviance.

Frequently Reported Types of Employee Deviance

Out of the eleven behaviors included in the study, taking food and drink without paying, ridiculing coworkers, and making sexual jokes/comments were the most prevalent, with 44.4% (n=64), 24.6% (n=34), and 38.9% (n=56) of respondents reporting involvement in these behaviors, respectively. As previously discussed, these three behaviors have been studied more than other types of employee deviance in restaurants (Agrusa et al., 2002; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Erickson, 2004; Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Johns & Menzel, 1999; Krippel et al., 2008; Mathisen et al., 2008; Poulston, 2008; Thoms et al., 200; Weber et al., 2002). Given that these behaviors were the most prevalent behaviors reported in the current study, separate regression models were run for taking food and drink without paying, ridiculing coworkers, and making sexual jokes and comments to coworkers. This section presents the results of the regression models for each of these individual behaviors. Table 24 presents the results for taking food and drink without paying.

Table 24

Logistic Regression Results for Taking Food and Drink without Paying

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	-.268	.382	.765
Emp Length	.152	.176	1.164
Position	*1.427	.644	4.168
Age	*-.196	.091	.822
Sex	1.163	.668	3.198
Definitions	*1.978	.916	7.228
Diff Assoc	-1.118	.887	.327
DR1	.370	.581	1.448
DR2	-1.478	.929	.228
DR3	.222	.312	1.249
Imitation	*2.922	.602	18.578
Constant	-2.417	2.066	.089
Cox/Snell R^2	.488		
Nagelkerke R^2	.653		

* $p < .05$

In this model, four variables are statistically significant. This includes definitions, imitation, position, and age. First, the odds of taking food or drink without paying increases by 292% for each increase in perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior. If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in deviance, he or she was more likely to be involved in deviance as well. Second, the odds of taking food or drink without paying are 622% higher for respondents who don't care or approve of this behavior as opposed to those who disapprove. Third, the odds of engaging in this behavior decrease by 19.6% for each increase in age of the employee. Older employees are less likely than younger employees to take food or drink from the restaurant without paying. Finally, the odds of engaging in this behavior are 316% higher for back of the house employees as opposed to front of the house.

The next behavior that 24.6% (n=34) of respondents reported involvement in is ridiculing coworkers. Table 25 presents the results of the logistic regression model for this deviant behavior.

Table 25

Logistic Regression Results for Ridiculing Coworkers

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	.573	.574	1.774
Emp Length	-.097	.249	.908
Position	.822	.786	2.275
Age	-.070	.150	.933
Sex	.964	.814	2.621
Definitions	*5.374	1.351	215.749
Diff Assoc	-2.240	1.270	.106
DR1	-.004	.805	.996
DR2	-1.129	.889	.323
DR3	-.042	.393	.959
Imitation	*2.135	.676	8.461
Constant	-5.119	3.929	.006
Cox/Snell R^2	.491		
Nagelkerke R^2	.738		

* $p < .05$

In this model, two variables are statistically significant. This includes definitions, and imitation. The odds of ridiculing coworkers increase by 213% for each increase in the perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior. If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in deviance, he or she was more likely to be involved in deviance as well. In addition, the odds of ridiculing coworkers are higher for respondents who don't care or approve of ridiculing coworkers as opposed to those who disapprove.

The final behavior that 38.9% (n=56) of respondents reported involvement in is making sexual jokes or comments toward coworkers. Table 26 presents the results of the logistic regression model for this behavior.

Table 26

Logistic Regression Results for Making Sexual Jokes or Comments

	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Shift	.381	.437	1.464
Emp Length	.331	.210	1.365
Position	-1.135	.758	.321
Age	-.056	.095	.946
Sex	*1.833	.864	6.255
Definitions	*1.943	.679	6.979
Diff Assoc	-.321	.930	.725
DR1	-.382	.680	.683
DR2	-8.76	.951	.417
DR3	.373	.312	1.453
Imitation	*1.847	.525	6.340
Constant	-5.753	2.791	.003
Cox/Snell R^2	.486		
Nagelkerke R^2	.660		

* $p < .05$

In this model, three variables are statistically significant. This includes definitions, imitation, and sex. First, the odds of making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers increase by 184% for each increase in the perceived number of coworkers participating in this behavior. If a respondent perceived more coworkers to be involved in deviance, he or she was more likely to be involved in deviance as well. Second, the odds of making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers are 597% higher for respondents who don't care or approve of making sexual jokes or comments as opposed to those who disapprove. Finally, the odds of engaging in this behavior are 525% higher for males than for females.

This section presented the results of the logistic regression analyses, which included seven different models assessing the relationship between social learning and employee deviance. The following section addresses the research questions and hypotheses.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions 1 and 2

The first two research questions investigated in this study were a) "what types of deviance are most prevalent", and b) "how often do employees engage in deviance"? The descriptive statistics presented at the beginning of this chapter provided the answers to these questions. Out of the eleven behaviors included in the study, taking food and drink items without paying, ridiculing coworkers, and making sexual jokes and comments to coworkers were the most prevalent. Most respondents indicated that they never engaged in these behaviors, but a significant number of respondents indicated that they had engaged in these behaviors 2-3 times a month and 2-3 times a week. Engaging in these behaviors daily was less frequent (see Tables 15 and 16).

The answers to these research questions suggest that although employees may be involved in certain types of deviance more than others, they do not engage in those behaviors often. Therefore, it is possible that employee deviance is not very prevalent in restaurants. This is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Research Question 3

The third research question investigated in this study was, "how does an employee's position within the restaurant relate to certain types of deviance"? The hypothesis for this question was that deviance would differ between front of the house employees (FOH) and back of the house employees (BOH). This hypothesis was based on the previous literature, which argued that an employee's position within the restaurant was related to involvement in different types of deviance (Doern & Kates, 1998; Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Johns & Menzel, 1999; Poulston, 2008). Out of the seven regression

models, position was only significant for taking food or drink items without paying, which was the most reported type of deviance. Back of the house employees, such as cooks/chefs/food preparers and dishwashers, were more likely to take food or drink without paying. This was most likely due to their proximity to food and drink items and often less supervision by managers. Since position was only significant in one model, this hypothesis was only partially supported.

Research Question 4

The fourth question investigated in this study was, "how is length of employment related to involvement in deviant behavior"? The hypothesis was that longer employment in a restaurant would result in more involvement in deviant behavior. Previous research that focused on employee deviance in restaurants has illustrated that knowledge of high turnover in the restaurant industry often contributes to involvement in deviant behavior (Hollinger et al., 1992; Mathisen et al., 2008; Thoms et al., 2001). Most restaurant employees enter their jobs knowing that they will be working only part-time or seasonally. Therefore, the longer an employee worked at a restaurant, the more likely he or she was to quit the job for various reasons. The knowledge of high turnover in the industry could contribute to a higher involvement in deviance the longer one was employed, because part-time or seasonal employees do not have a long-term investment in the overall success of the restaurant. However, in the current study, length of employment was not significant in any of the regression models. Based on these results, this hypothesis was not supported in this study.

Research Question 5

The fifth research question investigated in this study was, "how is the primary shift an employee works related to involvement in deviant behavior"? The hypothesis was that employee deviance would be more prevalent in shifts later in the day. Past research has had mixed results regarding the relationship of shift to involvement in deviance. In the current study, the primary shift worked was only significant in the model for production deviance. Employees who worked shifts later in the day were more likely to use illegal drugs or consume alcohol while working. Based on these results, this hypothesis was partially supported.

Research Question 6

The final research question investigated in this study was, "what is the relationship between social learning and organizational and interpersonal employee deviance"? The hypothesis was that the components of social learning would be significantly related to organizational, property, production, and interpersonal employee deviance in restaurants. Some previous research indicated the importance of studying the relationship between social learning and employee deviance in restaurants, but did not directly test the theory (Aquino et al., 1999; Blosi & Hoel, 2007; Doern & Kates, 1998; Harris & Ogbonna, 2001; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kjaerheim et al., 1995; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Trevino & Victor, 1992). In the current study, the social learning variables of imitation and definitions were statistically significant in each of the seven logistic regression models. For each type of deviant behavior, the odds of engaging in deviance increased as more coworkers were perceived to be involved. In

addition, if respondents approved or did not care whether employees engaged in a specific type of deviance, they were more likely to engage in that behavior as well. While not all of the social learning variables were found to be significant, this hypothesis was partially supported.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the current study, which sought to understand the relationship between social learning and employee deviance in restaurants. Overall, the results were unexpected and interesting. First, only the measures for the social learning components of imitation and definitions were significantly related to the different types of deviance in all seven regression models. This indicated that these two components help to understand employee deviance in restaurants more than the other social learning components.

A second unexpected finding was that the demographic variables were not significantly related to employee deviance in each of the regression models. While length of employment was not significant at all, shift, age, and position were significant in one model. In addition, the demographic variable of sex was significant in two regression models. Since these demographic variables were not significant in every model, this illustrates that different demographic characteristics may be associated with different types of deviance. This was unexpected since most of these variables were consistently significant across many previous studies.

A detailed discussion of these findings is presented in the next chapter, along with the strengths and limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Many studies have examined employee deviance in restaurants and argued that this is a problem that deserves attention (Agrusa et al., 2002; Anders, 1993; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Doern & Kates, 1998; Erickson, 2004; Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Hawkins, 1984; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Johns & Menzel, 1999; Kjaerheim et al., 1995; Krippel et al., 2008; Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Mathisen et al., 2008; Poulston, 2008; Thoms et al., 2001; Weber et al., 2002). Just like other businesses, the restaurant industry is subject to acts of employee deviance that may affect the restaurant and the general public. Employee deviance, whether organizational or interpersonal, can affect the production of and the quality of the food served. Therefore, most Americans are potential victims of the employee deviance that occurs in restaurants.

The purpose of this study was to further understand specific types of employee deviance within restaurants, such as theft, destruction of property, sexual harassment, bullying, as well as drug and alcohol use while working. Most previous studies of employee deviance in restaurants focused on only one type of deviant behavior (Agrusa et al., 2002; Anders, 1993; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Doern & Kates, 1998; Erickson, 2004; Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Hawkins, 1984; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Johns & Menzel, 1999; Kjaerheim et al., 1995; Krippel et al., 2008; Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Mathisen et al., 2008; Poulston, 2008; Thoms et al., 2001; Weber et al., 2002). The current project has expanded the understanding of employee deviance by examining multiple deviant behaviors in one

study. Specifically, the researcher utilized the conceptual framework of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) to understand employee deviance as either directed against the restaurant (organizational deviance, property deviance, and production deviance) or directed against coworkers (interpersonal deviance). The primary goal of the current study was to understand the relationship between employee deviance and a number of factors, such as social learning. Some previous studies have suggested testing the relationship between the components of social learning and employee deviance in restaurants (Aquino et al., 1999; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). In addition, while other studies have included measures similar to social learning, no studies have directly addressed this relationship. This study was the first to create a survey to measure the relationship between social learning and deviance by restaurant employees. The results of the analysis were presented in the previous chapter, including the main findings. The purpose of this chapter is to further discuss the important findings of this study, address its limitations and strengths, and provide directions for future research. A detailed discussion of the main findings in this study is presented first.

Discussion of Findings

The findings from this study warrant detailed discussion. The answers to the research questions and hypotheses that were discussed at the end of the previous chapter can be summarized into two significant findings. First, although restaurant employees may be involved in certain types of deviance more than others, they are not deviant often. Second, only two of the measures of social learning, imitation and definitions, were significant in explaining increased involvement in employee deviance. This section

discusses these findings in detail, and provides possible explanations for why they occurred.

Involvement in Deviance

One of the most important findings of this study was that it is possible that employee deviance in restaurants does not occur frequently. Few restaurant employees stole nonfood/drink without paying, destroyed food or nonfood items, drank alcohol while working, used illegal drugs while working, verbally threatened a coworker, or physically threatened a coworker. Slightly more employees stole food or drink items, ridiculed coworkers, and made sexual jokes or comments to coworkers. These three behaviors are examples of theft, bullying, and sexual harassment.

Employee theft. Previous studies that focused on employee theft in restaurants found that stealing food and drink items without paying was the most common form of theft (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger et al., 1992; Poulston, 2008). There are a number of reasons why this type of deviance may be a common occurrence in restaurants. These are discussed in detail below.

First, restaurant employees may steal food or drink items if they think that their actions would be a useful way to get rid of excess food or resources. When food is nearing its expiration date, or when a significant amount of food is leftover from a buffet or banquet, employees may consider taking the food as a way to help the restaurant. Employees may think that if the soon to be expired food is eaten or taken home, then they are preventing that food from going to waste (Poulston, 2008).

Second, employees may steal food or drink from their restaurant if they feel negatively about the job or their employer. If restaurant employees view their job as

temporary and unimportant to their future, they may steal food or drink to balance out their negative feelings (Thoms et al., 2001). In addition, if restaurant employees feel that their employer is treating them unfairly based on work hours, job duties, or pay, then employees may steal food or drink from the restaurant to retaliate (Hollinger et al., 1992).

Finally, restaurant employees may steal food or drink items from the restaurant if they think that what they are doing is not wrong. Employees often view stealing inexpensive items as acceptable (Poulston, 2008). They may rationalize stealing food from a plate before serving it, or drinking the remaining pot of coffee because they do not feel that these items cost much when compared to other food items, such as a box of frozen steaks. To summarize, when employee theft in restaurants occurs, it is likely viewed as a way to use excess food or resources, rationalize negative attitudes toward the job or the employer, or it is not viewed as a problem at all. Not surprisingly, this is similar to employee theft in other industries.

According to the National Retail Security Survey, employee theft accounts for approximately 43% of inventory shrinkage in a number of retail markets (Hollinger & Davis, 2009). In addition, studies of the business industry have illustrated that employees often steal office supplies (Loeb, 2007; Villano, 2006). The reasons for workplace theft in both the retail and business industry are similar to why restaurant employees steal from their workplaces. First, negative attitudes toward the duties of one's job or employer provide an excuse for stealing from work (Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 2000). For example, employees who were dissatisfied with their job or felt they were treated unfairly tended to steal from their workplace (Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Robinson & Bennett, 2000). By stealing

items from work, employees may think they are getting revenge for how they were treated. In addition to negative attitudes, employees in the retail and business industries also steal because they do not think that what they are doing is wrong. Rather, they feel that taking a few office supplies home from work out of necessity is acceptable (Loeb, 2007), or because "the supply cabinet at work overflows with pens and Post-it notes" (Villano, 2006, p. BU11).

Overall, employee theft both inside and outside of the restaurant industry may be thought of as a way to use excess food or resources so that they do not go to waste, or to justify negative feelings toward a job or employer. Also, across industries, employees may not view theft as a problem so long as the items they steal are of minor importance.

Bullying and sexual harassment. Previous studies of bullying and sexual harassment in the restaurant industry had results similar to the current study, with the majority of respondents reporting that they had never bullied or harassed coworkers (Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Mathisen et al, 2008; Poulston, 2008). Despite finding little evidence of frequent bullying and sexual harassment, other studies found that restaurant employees perceive these behaviors to occur frequently in their workplaces (Agrusa et al., 2002; Anders, 1993; Erickson, 2004; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Johns & Menzel, 1999; Mathisen et al., 2008; Weber et al., 2002). Bullying and sexual harassment are likely to occur in restaurants because of personal attitudes towards the job or employer, and the nature of restaurant work. These are discussed in detail below.

First, negative attitudes toward the job or employer may influence restaurant employees to bully or sexually harass coworkers (Mathisen et al., 2008; Robinson & Bennett, 2000; Weber et al., 2002). Anger toward the restaurant may be directed at

coworkers in the form of bullying or harassment. Likewise, if an individual has been a victim of bullying or harassment, he or she may retaliate against other coworkers by engaging in those behaviors as well (Giuffre & Williams, 1994).

Second, the nature of restaurant work has been viewed as a contributing factor to bullying and sexual harassment (Anders, 1993; Erickson, 2004; Johns & Menzel, 1999). The physical nature of restaurant work arranges employees within close proximity to each other, thus increasing a sexual atmosphere (Erickson, 2004). Erickson (2004) describes how the tight spaces in kitchens, pantries, coolers, bars, or between tables "draws bodies into contact so routinely that the physicality of this work plays a significant role in the occupational atmosphere" (p. 80). Similarly, Johns and Menzel (1999) found that bullying was more likely to occur in the kitchen because of certain structural elements, such as high temperatures in the kitchen, high levels of noise, the pressure of timing in cooking orders, and the hierarchy of the kitchen staff. This is a unique characteristic of restaurants that separates this industry from others. However, other industries experience problems of bullying and sexual harassment as well.

Sexual harassment across industries, such as construction, manufacturing, retail, public administration, and business, can also be explained by negative personal attitudes toward the job or employer (Einarsen et al., 2003; Lopez, Hodson, & Roscigno, 2009; Salin, 2003). Similar to employee theft, bullying and sexual harassment may be caused by employees who are dissatisfied in jobs with little long-term security (Lopez et al., 2009). It is also possible that employees who bully or harass coworkers may have been victims themselves, thus prompting them to retaliate. Overall, bullying or sexual

harassment by employees both inside and outside of the restaurant industry may be thought of as a way to rationalize negative attitudes toward the job or the employer.

Summary of employee deviance in restaurants. While previous research has argued that employee deviance affects the restaurant industry, some of these studies found that employee deviance is not very common (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Poulston, 2008; Thoms et al., 2001). Despite finding little evidence of employee deviance, many researchers presented their findings in a way that indicated that employee deviance was a bigger problem than their evidence suggested (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger et al., 1992; Mathisen et al, 2008; Poulston, 2008). For example, the results of these studies suggested that "theft is ubiquitous" (Poulston, 2008, p. 52) or "bullying prevails in the restaurant industry" (Mathisen et al., 2008, p. 66). Even though the number of employees engaging in deviant behavior while working is not very high, the end result of their deviance can be costly to restaurants. Employee deviance in the form of theft "[has cost] the foodservice industry an estimated $3 billion to $6 billion each year" (Garber & Walkup, 2004, para. 7). Therefore, while employee deviance may not be prevalent, it is still costing the restaurant industry a great deal of money. This may be why these previous studies present employee deviance in restaurants as a major problem, even though it does not occur frequently.

Social Learning Variables

A second finding in the current study was that only two of the measures of social learning, imitation and definitions, were significant in explaining employee deviance. The odds of committing each type of employee deviance increased if employees thought

coworkers were deviant. Previous studies that tested social learning theory found this to be true (Akers et al., 1979; Agnew, 1991; Thornberry & Krohn, 1997). However, as discussed by previous researchers, when individuals are asked to report how many people they know (peers, coworkers, etc.) are deviant, they tend to overestimate (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hawkins, 1984; Hollinger et al., 1992; Jussim & Osgood, 1989). It is possible that restaurant employees in the current study thought more coworkers were committing employee deviance, even though their perceptions may be inaccurate. If this is true, then the number of deviant coworkers reported in the current study is actually an inflated number, which may have contributed to the variable of imitation as significant.

In addition to imitation, the current study found that if restaurant employees approved or did not care whether other employees engaged in a specific type of deviance, they were more likely to be deviant themselves. In past studies, when researchers have used questions that ask whether respondents approve or disapprove of a specific deviant behavior, they found a significant relationship to involvement in that exact behavior (Akers & Lee, 1996; Tittle et al., 1986). For example, adolescents who approve of underage drinking are likely to be drinking illegally themselves. This is a more effective measurement of definitions favorable to crime instead of examining definitions favorable to generalized behaviors.

This section discussed the main findings of the current study and provided possible explanations for why they occurred. To reiterate, although restaurant employees in the current sample may be involved in certain types of deviance more than others, they are not deviant often. Employee deviance may not be committed frequently by restaurant employees, which is also supported by previous studies. Also, only two of the measures

of social learning, imitation and definitions, were significant in explaining increased involvement in employee deviance. The following sections discuss the strengths and limitations of the current study and directions for future research.

Strengths and Limitations of the Current Study

Strengths

The most noteworthy strength of the current study was the application of social learning theory to multiple types of employee deviance in the context of the restaurant industry. Social learning theory has been primarily tested in relation to minor forms of deviance with adolescents. The current study expanded on this by examining a wide range of deviant behaviors committed by restaurant employees. Previous restaurant studies typically focused on one type of employee or one type of deviant behavior. The current study provided a more comprehensive focus by including different types of restaurant employees and different types of deviant behaviors in one study. Few studies have aimed for such a comprehensive examination of this subject. Based on the findings of previous literature, the researcher felt that a comprehensive study was the next step in understanding more about employee deviance in the restaurant industry.

A second important strength of this study was the process of constructing the survey. The researcher first created a survey based on previous literature and pre-tested the survey prior to conducting the actual study. Based on feedback from a random sample of graduate students, the pre-test helped to formulate better survey questions. Most importantly, the pre-test alerted the researcher to the necessity of providing more detail in regard to what behaviors are included in a specific type of deviance. In the current study, the researcher added descriptions to each behavior, which specified what

actions were or were not included. This helped to alleviate some of the uncertainty of what was considered to be deviant. Without those descriptions, there could be confusion when recalling certain behaviors. Despite these strengths, the current study also had several limitations, which are discussed below.

Limitations

The current study has a number of limitations. This includes the sample (size, response rate, and characteristics), use of a survey method, and exclusion of questions designed to understand the context of the restaurant. The sample size was a substantial limitation and is discussed first.

Sample size. The major limitation of this study was the sample, which includes the response rate, size of the sample, and the characteristics of the respondents. As discussed in Chapter IV, the survey for this study was emailed to a randomly selected group of 2,000 undergraduate students. The total number of students who accessed the survey was 201, which resulted in a response rate of 10%. However, 31 students did not have any experience working in a restaurant, so they were unable to complete the survey. Out of the 170 remaining surveys, 144 were fully completed for a response rate of 7.2%. This response rate is similar to other studies that administer surveys online and those that study employee deviance (see Chapter IV). However, the resulting sample size of 144 was small, making it difficult to accurately use logistic regression.

The previous chapter noted that in the regression models, some of the odds ratios for the significant variables were extremely high. This was most likely caused by the small sample size. In general, previous studies that used logistic regression had larger samples (Higgins, Mahoney, & Ricketts, 2009; Krohn, Skinner, Massey, & Akers, 1985;

Monroe, 2004; Wareham, Boots, & Chavez, 2009). A small sample size can contribute to low cell counts, thereby inflating the odds ratios. This was the case with the current study, which resulted in a cautious interpretation of the logistic regression analyses.

In addition to the small sample size, the characteristics of those who responded to the survey were also a limitation. First, the majority of the restaurant employees in the current study were female (71.5%). While slightly more females (56%) than males work in the restaurant industry (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), the current study and past research on employee deviance in restaurants has found that males are more likely than females to engage in employee deviance (Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hollinger & Clark, 1983a, 1983b; Krippel et al., 2008; Mangione & Quinn, 1975). The small number of males in the current study prevented the researcher from further understanding deviance committed by male employees.

Second, the majority of the restaurant employees in the current study were under the age of 21 at the time of their most recent employment (73.6%). This may have affected the number of those who worked as bartenders. As discussed in the previous chapter, while restaurant employees must be at least 18 years old to serve alcohol, most restaurants hire bartenders who are at least in their mid to late 20s due to knowledge of alcohol and alcohol related laws (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009a; 2009b). It is possible that bartenders are more likely to be deviant because of their access to money and alcohol (Doern & Kates, 1998; Miller, 1988; Plotkin, 1988). Without a larger number of bartenders in the sample, the researcher was unable to determine if the deviance committed by bartenders is similar to the deviance committed by other types of restaurant employees.

Third, since this survey was only sent to undergraduate students at IUP, the entire sample consisted of only college students. While it was previously discussed that many college students work in restaurants and many restaurant employees are between the ages of 18 and 34, it is possible that the more deviant employees are not attending college. The fact that the sample only contained college students may have affected the low involvement in deviance. Overall, the restaurant employees in this study were primarily female, under the age of 21, and college students. In order to have a more accurate representation of restaurant employees, not only would the sample have to be larger, but it would have to contain more male employees over the age of 21, as well as respondents who were not attending college.

The small sample size may have contributed to the significance of certain demographic variables as opposed to others. The relationship between employee deviance and many of the demographic variables (position, length of employment, primary shift, sex, and age at time of employment) were not statistically significant in each model. This may have been affected by the small sample and the characteristics of the restaurant employees. For example, the variable of position was divided into front of the house and back of the house for analysis. The small number of employees who were bartenders, bussers, dishwashers, and managers were combined with the larger number of employees who were waiters/waitresses, hosts/hostesses, and cooks/chefs/food preparers. This did not allow the researcher to understand the relationship between the different positions and involvement in types of employee deviance.

The small sample size in this study also affected the interpretation of the social learning variables. Since there was not enough variation in the responses, the social

learning variables had to be collapsed into combined categories. The variables measuring "definitions" and "differential association" were collapsed from disapprove, depends, approve, and don't care to disapprove and approve/depends/don't care. By having multiple responses in one category, it was impossible to determine any differences between individuals who approved of deviance and those who did not care about deviance or did not know how to respond. Two of the variables measuring differential reinforcement were also collapsed in a similar manner (see Chapter V). This dichotomization changed the interpretation of the variables. Therefore, a larger sample size and more variation in responses would help to further distinguish the relationship between social learning and involvement in deviance.

Overall, the findings in the current study were most likely affected by the small sample size. As noted many times throughout this study, the survey items were developed by the researcher and were broadly based on previous studies of general employee deviance, restaurant deviance, and social learning (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers, et al., 1979; Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Krohn et al., 1984; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 2000). Additionally, previous studies of social learning consisted of large sample sizes, and often contained multiple measures of each component of social learning, which was not included in the current study (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers, et al., 1979; Krohn et al., 1984; Krohn et al. 1985). The components of definitions, imitation, and differential association were measured by one survey item, while the component of differential reinforcement was measured by three items. Researchers in many social learning studies utilized more survey items to measure differential reinforcement because of the numerous dimensions of this concept (Akers and Cochran, 1985; Akers et al.,

1979; Krohn et al., 1984). Therefore, the current study measured differential reinforcement in a similar manner. However, the small sample size in this study contributed to the problem of little variation between responses, which necessitated collapsing categorical variables into dichotomous measures. This dichotomization of the variables affected not only the significance, but also the interpretation of the variables.

Survey method. The use of a survey method to understand employee deviance may also be a limitation. When using a survey method, there is always a chance that questions may be misinterpreted. Therefore, even though the researcher added descriptions of what was included in each type of deviance, the students taking the survey could have misread or skipped over those descriptions.

Besides the problem of misinterpretation, surveys may not be the best way to thoroughly examine employee deviance. When previous studies are compared in more detail, it is evident that studies using qualitative methods (participant observation, interviews) (Anders, 1993; Doern & Kates, 1998; Erickson, 2004; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Johns & Menzel, 1999) found more employee deviance than studies that used quantitative methods (survey, secondary data) (Agrusa et al., 2002; Ghiselli & Ismail, 1998; Hollinger et al, 1992; Hawkins, 1984; Kjaerheim et al, 1995; Krippel et al., 2008; Larsen & Jorgensen, 2003; Mathisen et al, 2008; Poulston, 2008; Thoms et al., 2001; Weber et al., 2002). The rationale for using surveys to study deviant behavior was that this method allows for obtaining a larger representative sample of restaurant employees by collecting personal information without being overly intrusive (Hollinger et al, 1992; Hawkins, 1984; Mathisen et al, 2008; Kjaerheim et al, 1995). However, qualitative studies that utilized direct observation, participant observation, or

interviews provided a more detailed description of the context of the restaurant and found more employee deviance (Anders, 1993; Doern & Kates, 1998; Erickson, 2004; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Johns & Menzel, 1999). Using a survey to understand employee deviance in restaurants may not provide a fully accurate representation of this phenomenon, as respondents may misinterpret items or underreport their deviant behavior.

Context of the restaurant. The current study did not ask questions regarding the context of the restaurant; rather, it focused on individual employee deviance and perceptions of coworker's deviance. Previous research has argued that the way in which individual and group behavior is perceived within an organization can influence deviant behavior (Peterson, 2002; Trevino, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998; Trevino & Victor, 1992). Some researchers suggest that, "[the] social context within an organization provides norms and expectations as well as rewards and punishments that can influence organization members' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors" (Trevino & Victor, 1992; p. 41). Norms determine what behaviors are appropriate and accepted as well as those that are not. Each person that participated in the current study answered based on his or her experiences in a specific restaurant. In order to help the employees recall information, the survey items asking about each type of deviant behavior were expanded to include a description of specific behaviors that comprised that activity (see Chapter IV, Clarity of Survey Results). The researcher listed what was included in a specific deviant behavior, which excluded restaurant policies. The current survey did not include separate questions that asked directly about specific restaurant policies; rather, it specified that respondents should not answer based on behaviors that were condoned by restaurant policies (see

Appendix E for survey). Thus, it is difficult to fully understand whether an employee was deviant without directly asking questions about the policies in place at the restaurant where he or she was most recently employed. This limitation, along with the others discussed in this section, provide directions for future research. These are discussed next.

Directions for Future Research

Future research that examines the relationship between social learning theory and employee deviance in restaurants should focus on the following objectives. First, the current survey should be further refined with more measures of social learning applicable to the restaurant industry. Previous studies of employee deviance in restaurants have noted the potential of examining social learning in the context of the restaurant (Aquino et al., 1999; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). This is supported by the current study, which found that two components of social learning, definitions and imitation, were significant in understanding involvement in employee deviance. However, this study only included six items designed to measure the components of social learning. Future studies should expand on these six items to include a variety of survey items that measure the four components of social learning. By doing so, this could result in more accurate findings regarding the relationship between social learning and employee deviance in restaurants.

Second, surveys of employee deviance in restaurants should address the context of the restaurant. Specifically, surveys should include questions about company policies to better understand how those policies may affect behavior. In the current study, the researcher added descriptions to each behavior, which listed what actions were included in a specific deviant behavior. While this helped to alleviate some of the confusion of what was considered to be deviant, the current survey did not include questions that

directly asked about specific restaurant policies. Employees may over or underreport behavior based on their knowledge of their restaurant's policies, contributing to inaccurate measurements of employee behavior. Furthermore, not all restaurants are exactly the same when it comes to certain policies, so assumptions regarding specific behaviors cannot be made. Future studies should incorporate separate questions regarding different company policies that may coincide with certain behaviors, such as taking food or drink without paying, taking nonfood or drink without paying, destroying food or drink items, and fraternizing with coworkers, among others. This will provide a more detailed account of employee deviance, and allow researchers to understand more about why it occurs.

A final suggestion for future studies is concerned primarily with the research methods used to study employee deviance. Researchers should aim to conduct research that includes multiple methods to understand the complex nature of employee deviance in restaurants. One of the limitations of this study was the use of a survey method to understand employee deviance. There is always a chance that survey questions will be misinterpreted. Thus, using a combination of surveys, observations, and interviews would provide a more complete picture of employee deviance in the restaurant industry and how social learning may affect it. A multi-method study would also make it easier to increase the sample size, which would allow the results to be generalized to the restaurant industry.

Conclusion

Employee deviance has long been considered a problematic issue in society, and has been studied in the context of many different types of organizations and occupations.

In general, these studies are important because of the range of individuals who are affected by workplace deviance. While restaurants operate differently than other industries, they are also susceptible to employee deviance. Research that focuses on the nature and extent of these behaviors is important, since many members of society are unknowingly victims of employee deviance. Even though employee deviance may not be prevalent in the restaurant industry, understanding why it occurs could lead to industry-wide changes within restaurants.

This study sought to examine the relationship between employee deviance within restaurants and the components of social learning theory. The behaviors were based on the research of Robinson and Bennett (1995, 2000) who defined employee deviance as two categories of behavior – one directed against the organization (organizational, property, and production deviance), and the other directed against coworkers (interpersonal deviance). The current study was one of the first to apply this framework of employee deviance to the restaurant industry and test social learning theory in this context. This makes a contribution to the literature on social learning theory and employee deviance and providing a direction for future studies.

The results from this study suggest that little employee deviance occurs in the restaurant industry. Although employees may be involved in certain types of deviance more than others, they do not engage in those behaviors often. Additionally, when examining the relationship between employee deviance and social learning, only the measures for imitation and definitions were significantly related to the different types of deviance in the separate regression models. This indicated that these two better explain

employee deviance in restaurants than the other social learning components. However, more research is needed to further understand this relationship.

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APPENDIX A

Pre-Test Email

You have been invited to participate in a pre-test of a survey for a dissertation designed to explore behaviors of restaurant employees. In order to participate in this study, you must have worked in a restaurant at some point in your life. The following information is intended to help you make an informed decision whether or not to participate. You are eligible to participate in this study because you are a graduate student at IUP.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. At any time, you are free to decide not to participate in this study. If you withdraw from the study, all information gathered from you will not be used. If you do choose to participate, all information collected will be confidential. Your answers will be considered collectively with the answers from other participants, and all information will be collected in a way that ensures confidentiality. No characteristics that specifically identify you will be included in the research report. Also, the information obtained in the study may be published in academic journals or presented at academic conferences but your identity will be kept confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please click on the link provided. The survey should take no more than 5 to 10 minutes of your time. Also, as this is a pre-test of a survey, please provide any comments/feedback to the researcher that you feel is necessary.

Thank you for your time.

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The Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board has approved this project for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724-347-7730).

Follow this link to the Survey:
Take the Survey

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:
http://iup.qualtrics.com/WRQualtricsSurveyEngine?SID=SV_2lbW5KmZFXH9lLS&SVID=Prod&_=1

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
http://iup.qualtrics.com/CP/Register.php?OptOut=true&RID=null&LID=null&_=1

APPENDIX B

Pre-Test Survey

At any point in your life, have you worked in a restaurant?
- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Do you currently work in a restaurant?
- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Which of the following best describes the restaurant(s) were you worked?
- ❍ Fast food chain (McDonald's, Wendy's, Burger King, etc.)
- ❍ Corporate chain with a bar (TGIFriday's, Applebee's, etc.)
- ❍ Corporate chain without a bar (Eat n Park, Denny's, etc.)
- ❍ Local/family owned restaurant with bar (Culpeppers, Benjamins, etc.)
- ❍ Local/family owned restaurant without a bar (Rose Inn, etc.)
- ❍ Other _____

What was/is your primary position while working in the restaurant?
- ❍ Host/Hostess
- ❍ Bartender
- ❍ Waiter/Waitress
- ❍ Cook/Chef
- ❍ Dishwasher
- ❍ Busser
- ❍ Manager
- ❍ Other _____

What is/was your hourly wage as a restaurant employee (not including tips)?
- ❍ $4.00 or less
- ❍ $4.01 to $8.00
- ❍ More than $8.00

What shift do/did you work most often?

- ❍ Early morning
- ❍ Lunch (Morning/Afternoon)
- ❍ Dinner (Afternoon/Evening)
- ❍ Late night
- ❍ All shifts

How long were you employed by the restaurant?

- ❍ Less than 3 months
- ❍ 4 to 6 months
- ❍ 7 to 9 months
- ❍ 10 to 12 months
- ❍ Over a year

The following question asks about your involvement in certain behaviors while working in the restaurant. Please indicate which response comes closest to how often you participated in each behavior.

	Never	Once or Twice	Less Than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Daily
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

The following question asks about your involvement in certain behaviors while working in the restaurant. Please indicate which response comes closest to how often you participated in each behavior.

	Never	Once or Twice	Less Than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Daily
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

If an employee of the restaurant participated in any of the following behaviors, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

	Reward or Promote	Do Nothing	Reprimand or Punish	Inform the Police	Don't Know
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

If an employee of the restaurant participated in any of the following behaviors, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

	Reward or Promote	Do Nothing	Reprimand or Punish	Inform the Police	Don't Know
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

If an employee of the restaurant participated in any of the following behaviors, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

	Encourage	Do Nothing	Discourage	Avoid the Person	Inform Managers	Don't Know
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

If an employee of the restaurant participated in any of the following behaviors, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

	Encourage	Do Nothing	Discourage	Avoid the Person	Inform Managers	Don't Know
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

If an employee of the restaurant participated in any of the following behaviors, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

	Unlikely	Likely		
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍

If an employee of the restaurant participated in any of the following behaviors, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

	Unlikely	Likely		
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍

About how many of your co-workers participated in the following behaviors?

	None	Few	All	
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍

About how many of your co-workers participated in the following behaviors?

	None	Few	All	
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward participating in each of the following behaviors while working in a restaurant?

	Approve	Depends on the circumstance	Disapprove	Don't care
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward participating in each of the following behaviors while working in a restaurant?

	Approve	Depends on the circumstance	Disapprove	Don't care
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍

How often do/did you socialize with other restaurant employees outside of work?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Less than Once a Month
- ❍ Once a Month
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Month
- ❍ Once a Week
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Week
- ❍ Daily

What is your attitude toward employees participating in each of the following behaviors while working in a restaurant?

	Approve	Depends on the circumstance	Disapprove	Don't care
Took food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Took non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Destroyed non-food items	❍	❍	❍	❍
Provided free food/drinks to friends	❍	❍	❍	❍
Arrived late to work	❍	❍	❍	❍
Consumed alcohol while working	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs while working	❍	❍	❍	❍

What is your attitude toward employees participating in each of the following behaviors while working in a restaurant?

	Approve	Depends on the circumstance	Disapprove	Don't care
Took property from co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teased co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Verbally threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Physically threatened co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made sexual jokes or comments to co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍
Flirted with co-workers	❍	❍	❍	❍

What is your age in years?

What is your sex?

- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

What is your class standing?

- ❍ Freshman
- ❍ Sophomore
- ❍ Junior
- ❍ Senior
- ❍ Graduate student

Which of the following best describes your race?

- ❍ Caucasian
- ❍ African American
- ❍ Hispanic
- ❍ Asian
- ❍ Other

Thank you for taking part in this survey. If you have any additional comments about this survey for the researcher, please use the space provided. This can also include suggestions for improving the survey for the actual study that will take place later this year.

APPENDIX C

Deviant behaviors included in the dependent variables

Organizational deviance	**Behaviors included**	**Behaviors not included**
Taking food/drink without paying (Organizational)	Taking food off a dish before serving it, or taking food/drink that you are not allowed to have without paying	Policies where employees are allowed to take leftover food before it goes bad, or where employees are allowed discounted meals
Taking non-food/drink items without paying (Organizational)	Taking items home and using them for non-work purposes, or taking items such as dishes, bar glasses, silverware, and money from the cash register	Policies where employees are allowed to use pens, paper, uniform shirts, towels, aprons, etc.
Destroying food/drink items (Organizational)	Tampering with food in any way before serving it	Accidently burning food and throwing it out, or throwing out expired food
Destroying non-food/drink items (Organizational)	Behaviors done on purpose, such as tampering with equipment or purposely breaking things	Accidently breaking dishes or equipment
Consuming alcohol while working (Organizational)	Drinking alcohol while on the job	Drinking alcohol after your shift is over
Using illegal drugs while working (Organizational)	Using illegal drugs while on the job	Using illegal drugs after your shift is over

Interpersonal deviance	Behaviors included	Behaviors not included
Ridiculing coworkers (Interpersonal)	Purposely ridiculing a coworker such as making fun of someone because of how they look, act, etc.	Teasing coworkers after your shift
Verbally threatening coworkers (Interpersonal)	Verbal statements directed to someone about hurting them in some way ("I'm going to hurt you if you don't do this right")	Verbally threatening coworkers after your shift
Physically threatening coworkers (Interpersonal)	Behaviors that could result in physical harm or purposely attempting to inflict physical harm	Accidentally hurting someone at work
Making unwanted sexual jokes/comments to coworkers (Interpersonal)	Behaviors that are offensive in the workplace (talking about sexual history, making lewd comments, etc.)	Dating a coworker
Unwanted flirting with coworkers (Interpersonal)	Flirting where the other person involved was not welcoming/wanting the attention	Dating a coworker or flirting that is accepted

APPENDIX D

Survey Email

You have been invited to participate in a survey for a dissertation designed to explore behaviors of restaurant employees. In order to participate in this study, you must have worked in a restaurant at some point in your life. The following information is intended to help you make an informed decision whether or not to participate. You are eligible to participate in this study because you are an undergraduate student at IUP.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. At any time, you are free to decide not to participate in this study. If you withdraw from the study, all information gathered from you will not be used. If you do choose to participate, all information collected will be anonymous. Your answers will be considered collectively with the answers from other participants, and all information will be collected in a way that ensures anonymity. No characteristics that specifically identify you will be included in the research report. Also, the information obtained in the study may be published in academic journals or presented at academic conferences but your identity will be kept confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please click on the link provided. The survey should take no more than 10 to 20 minutes of your time. Once you have completed the survey, you will have the option to be entered into a drawing to win one of four $25 gift cards to IUP's Co-Op store. Choosing to be entered in the drawing will not be connected back to your survey responses.

Thank you for your time.

Katie Pantaleo, Doctoral Candidate
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Department of Criminology
Wilson Hall, Room 200
Indiana, PA 15705
Email: k.pantaleo@iup.edu
Phone: (724) 357-2720

Jamie Martin, Ph.D.
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
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Phone: (724) 357-5975

The Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board has approved this project for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724-347-7730).

Follow this link to the Survey:
Take the Survey

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:
http://iup.qualtrics.com/WRQualtricsSurveyEngine?SID=SV_2lbW5KmZFXH9lLS&SVID=Prod&_=1

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
http://iup.qualtrics.com/CP/Register.php?OptOut=true&RID=null&LID=null&_=1

APPENDIX E

Survey Instrument

At any point in your life, have you worked in a restaurant?
- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

For the following questions, if you have worked in more than one type of restaurant, please mark the choice based on your most recent work experience.

Do you currently work in a restaurant?
- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Which of the following best describes the restaurant(s) were you worked?
- ❍ Fast food chain (McDonald's, Wendy's, Burger King, etc.)
- ❍ Corporate chain with a bar (TGIFriday's, Applebee's, etc.)
- ❍ Corporate chain without a bar (Eat n Park, Denny's, etc.)
- ❍ Local/family owned restaurant with bar (Culpeppers, Benjamins, etc.)
- ❍ Local/family owned restaurant without a bar
- ❍ Other _____

What was/is your primary position while working in the restaurant?
- ❍ Host/Hostess
- ❍ Bartender
- ❍ Waiter/Waitress
- ❍ Cook/Chef
- ❍ Dishwasher
- ❍ Busser
- ❍ Manager
- ❍ Other _____

What is/was your hourly wage as a restaurant employee (not including tips)?
- ❍ $4.00 or less
- ❍ $4.01 to $8.00
- ❍ More than $8.00

What shift do/did you work most often?

- ❍ Early morning
- ❍ Lunch (Morning/Afternoon)
- ❍ Dinner (Afternoon/Evening)
- ❍ Late night
- ❍ All shifts

How long were you employed by the restaurant you worked at recently?

- ❍ Less than 3 months
- ❍ 4 to 6 months
- ❍ 7 to 9 months
- ❍ 10 to 12 months
- ❍ Over a year

How often do/did you socialize with other restaurant employees outside of work?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Less than Once a Month
- ❍ Once a Month
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Month
- ❍ Once a Week
- ❍ 2-3 Times a Week
- ❍ Daily

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about taking food or drink items from the restaurant without paying for them. This does not include policies where employees are allowed to take leftover food before it goes bad, or where employees are allowed discounted meals. It does include behaviors that are not allowed by the restaurant, such as taking food off of a dish before serving it (example: sneaking a few fries), or taking any type of food or drink that you are not allowed to have without paying (example: drinking fountain drinks when you are only allowed water and iced tea).

How often do/did you take food or drink items from the restaurant without paying for them?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant took food or drink items without paying, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant took food or drink items without paying, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant took food or drink items without paying, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers took food or drink items without paying?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward taking food or drink items without paying while working in a restaurant?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees taking food or drink items without paying while working in a restaurant?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about taking non-food/drink items from the restaurant without paying for them. This does not include policies where employees are allowed to use pens, paper, uniform shirts, towels, aprons, etc. in the context of the restaurant. It does include behaviors that are not allowed by the restaurant, such as taking these items home and using them for non-work purposes, or taking items such as dishes, bar glasses, silverware, and money from the cash register.

How often do/did you take non food/drink items from the restaurant without paying for them?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant took non food/drink items without paying, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant took non food/drink items without paying, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant took non food/drink items without paying, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers took non food/drink items without paying?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward taking non food/drink items without paying while working in a restaurant?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees taking non food/drink items without paying while working in a restaurant?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about destroying food items in the restaurant. This does not include accidentally burning food and throwing it out, or throwing out expired food. It does include behaviors that are not allowed by the restaurant, such as tampering with food in any way before serving it (such as dropping it on the floor and still serving it).

How often do/did you destroy food items from the restaurant?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant destroyed food items, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant destroyed food items, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant destroyed food items, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers destroyed food items?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward destroying food items?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees destroying food items while working in a restaurant?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about destroying non-food/drink items in the restaurant. This does not include accidentally breaking dishes, etc. It does include behaviors that are not allowed by the restaurant and that are done on purpose, such as tampering with equipment or purposely breaking things.

How often do/did you destroy non-food items from the restaurant?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant destroyed non-food items, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant destroyed non-food items, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant destroyed non-food items, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers destroyed non-food items?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward destroying non-food items?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees destroying non-food items while working in a restaurant?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about consuming alcohol while working.

How often do/did you consume alcohol while working?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant consumed alcohol while working, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant consumed alcohol while working, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant consumed alcohol while working, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers consume alcohol while working?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward consuming alcohol while working?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees consuming alcohol while working?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about using illegal drugs while working.

How often do/did you use illegal drugs while working?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant used illegal drugs while working, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant used illegal drugs while working, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant used illegal drugs while working, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers used illegal drugs while working?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward using illegal drugs while working?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees using illegal drugs while working?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about ridiculing coworkers. This includes behaviors that are used to purposely irritate a coworker (example: making fun of someone for how they look) or behaviors that are used in good fun (example: making fun of someone because of their new significant other).

How often do/did you ridicule coworkers while working?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant ridiculed coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant ridiculed coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant ridiculed coworkers, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers ridiculed coworkers?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward ridiculing coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees ridiculing coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about verbally threatening coworkers. This does not include joking about hurting someone. This does include behaviors that are verbal statements directed to someone about hurting them in some way (example: "I'm going to hurt you if you talk to me again" or "If you sleep with me I won't tell anyone about your mistakes at work").

How often do/did you verbally threaten coworkers while working?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant verbally threatened coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant verbally threatened coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant verbally threatened coworkers, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers verbally threatened coworkers?
- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward verbally threatening coworkers?
- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees verbally threatening coworkers?
- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about physically threatening coworkers. This includes behaviors that could result in physical harm, such as starting a physical fight with someone, or purposely attempting to inflict physical harm (punched, hit, kicked, slapped, or burned someone).

How often do/did you physically threaten coworkers while working?
- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant physically threatened coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of managers?
- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant physically threatened coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant physically threatened coworkers, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers physically threatened coworkers?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward physically threatening coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees physically threatening coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers.

How often do/did you make sexual jokes or comments to coworkers?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant made sexual jokes or comments to coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant made sexual jokes or comments to coworkers, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant made sexual jokes or comments to coworkers, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers made sexual jokes or comments to coworkers?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees making sexual jokes or comments to coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience. These questions ask you about unwanted flirting with coworkers (flirting where the other person involved was not welcoming/wanting the attention).

How often do/did you flirt with coworkers where the flirting was unwanted?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ 2-3 times a month
- ❍ 2-3 times a week
- ❍ Daily

If an employee of the restaurant flirted with coworkers where the flirting was unwanted, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Reward the employee
- ❍ Reprimand or punish the employee
- ❍ Fire the employee
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant flirted with coworkers where the flirting was unwanted, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

- ❍ Do nothing
- ❍ Encourage
- ❍ Discourage
- ❍ Inform managers
- ❍ Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant flirted with coworkers where the flirting was unwanted, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

- ❍ Very Unlikely
- ❍ Unlikely
- ❍ Equally unlikely or likely
- ❍ Likely
- ❍ Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers flirt with coworkers where the flirting is unwanted?

- ❍ None
- ❍ Few
- ❍ Most
- ❍ All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward unwanted flirting with coworkers?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees flirting with coworkers where the flirting is unwanted?

- ❍ Disapprove
- ❍ Depends on the Circumstance
- ❍ Approve
- ❍ Don't Care

What is your age in years?

What is your sex?

- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female

What is your class standing?

- ❍ Freshman
- ❍ Sophomore
- ❍ Junior
- ❍ Senior
- ❍ Graduate student

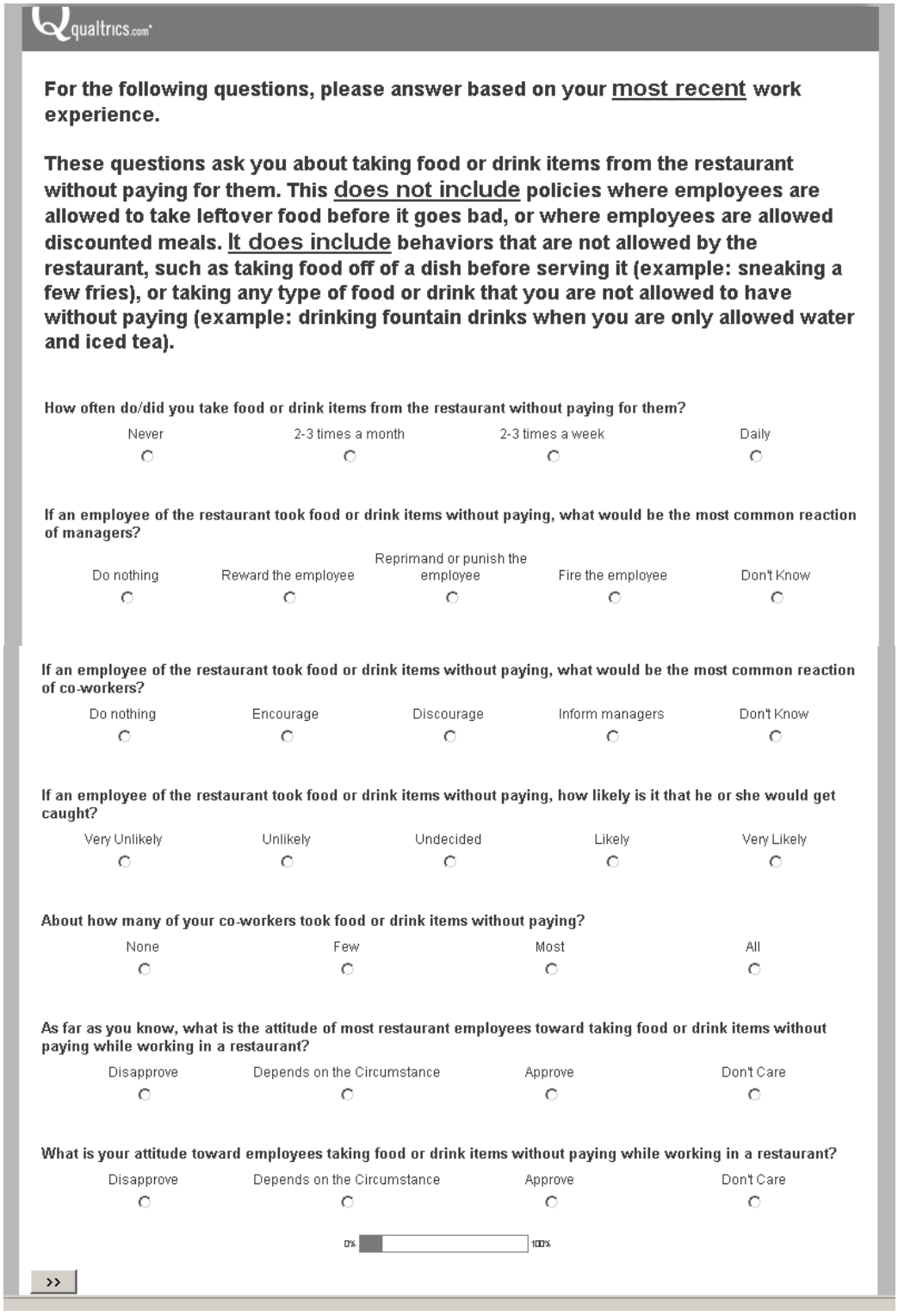
Which of the following best describes your race?

- ❍ Caucasian
- ❍ African American
- ❍ Hispanic
- ❍ Asian
- ❍ Other

Thank you for taking part in this survey. If you have any additional comments about working in a restaurant, please use the space provided.

APPENDIX F

Example of Survey in Qualtrics



qualtrics.com

For the following questions, please answer based on your most recent work experience.

These questions ask you about taking food or drink items from the restaurant without paying for them. This does not include policies where employees are allowed to take leftover food before it goes bad, or where employees are allowed discounted meals. It does include behaviors that are not allowed by the restaurant, such as taking food off of a dish before serving it (example: sneaking a few fries), or taking any type of food or drink that you are not allowed to have without paying (example: drinking fountain drinks when you are only allowed water and iced tea).

How often do/did you take food or drink items from the restaurant without paying for them?

Never | 2-3 times a month | 2-3 times a week | Daily

If an employee of the restaurant took food or drink items without paying, what would be the most common reaction of managers?

Do nothing | Reward the employee | Reprimand or punish the employee | Fire the employee | Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant took food or drink items without paying, what would be the most common reaction of co-workers?

Do nothing | Encourage | Discourage | Inform managers | Don't Know

If an employee of the restaurant took food or drink items without paying, how likely is it that he or she would get caught?

Very Unlikely | Unlikely | Undecided | Likely | Very Likely

About how many of your co-workers took food or drink items without paying?

None | Few | Most | All

As far as you know, what is the attitude of most restaurant employees toward taking food or drink items without paying while working in a restaurant?

Disapprove | Depends on the Circumstance | Approve | Don't Care

What is your attitude toward employees taking food or drink items without paying while working in a restaurant?

Disapprove | Depends on the Circumstance | Approve | Don't Care

0% 100%

>>

APPENDIX G

Frequencies of Social Learning Variables

Frequencies of the Reaction of Managers to Organizational Deviance (differential reinforcement)

	Do nothing	Support	Reprimand	Fire	Don't Know
Take food/drink	44 (30.6%)	6 (4.2%)	62 (43.1%)	10 (6.9%)	22 (15.3%)
Take nonfood/drink	13 (9.0%)	4 (2.8%)	71 (49.3%)	34 (23.6%)	22 (15.3%)
Destroy food/drink	13 (9.0%)	5 (3.5%)	81 (56.3%)	25 (17.4%)	20 (13.9%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	10 (6.9%)	3 (2.1%)	71 (49.3%)	45 (31.3%)	15 (10.4%)
Alcohol while working	14 (9.7%)	1 (0.7%)	45 (31.3%)	75 (52.1%)	9 (6.3%)
Drugs while working	12 (8.3%)	1 (0.7%)	25 (17.4%)	99 (68.8%)	7 (4.9%)

Frequencies of the Reaction of Coworkers to Organizational Deviance (differential reinforcement)

	Do nothing	Encourage	Discourage	Inform Managers	Don't Know
Take food/drink	85 (59.0%)	18 (12.5%)	22 (15.3%)	9 (6.3%)	10 (6.9%)
Take nonfood/drink	52 (36.1%)	9 (6.3%)	35 (24.3%)	23 (16.0%)	25 (17.4%)
Destroy food/drink	30 (20.8%)	5 (3.5%)	59 (41.0%)	27 (18.8%)	23 (16.0%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	21 (14.6%)	4 (2.8%)	58 (40.3%)	35 (24.3%)	26 (18.1%)
Alcohol while working	33 (22.9%)	10 (6.9%)	40 (27.8%)	49 (34.0%)	12 (8.3%)
Drugs while working	29 (20.1%)	9 (6.3%)	33 (22.9%)	58 (40.3%)	15 (10.4%)

Frequencies of Employee Perceptions of Engaging in Organizational Deviance (differential association)

	Disapprove	Depends	Approve	Don't Care
Take food/drink	23 (16.0%)	66 (45.8%)	17 (11.8%)	38 (26.4%)
Take nonfood/drink	78 (54.2%)	39 (27.1%)	6 (4.2%)	21 (14.6%)
Destroy food/drink	91 (63.2%)	40 (27.8%)	2 (1.4%)	11 (7.6%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	98 (68.1%)	34 (23.6%)	0 (0.0%)	12 (8.3%)
Alcohol while working	93 (64.6%)	31 (21.5%)	3 (2.1%)	17 (11.8%)
Drugs while working	102 (70.8%)	20 (13.9%)	1 (0.7%)	21 (14.6%)

Frequencies of Own Perception of Organizational Deviance (definitions)

	Disapprove	Depends	Approve	Don't Care
Take food/drink	37 (25.7%)	46 (31.9%)	16 (11.1%)	45 (31.3%)
Take nonfood/drink	87 (60.4%)	28 (19.4%)	5 (3.5%)	24 (16.7%)
Destroy food/drink	105 (72.9%)	22 (15.3%)	2 (1.4%)	15 (10.4%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	111 (77.1%)	21 (14.6%)	0 (0.0%)	12 (8.3%)
Alcohol while working	107 (74.3%)	22 (15.3%0	1 (0.7%)	14 (9.7%)
Drugs while working	118 (81.9%)	10 (6.9%)	1 (0.7%)	15 (10.4%)

Frequencies of Reaction of Managers to Interpersonal Deviance (differential reinforcement)

	Do Nothing	Support	Reprimand	Fire	Don't Know
Ridiculing coworkers	36 (25.0%)	12 (8.3%)	79 (54.9%)	5 (3.5%)	12 (8.3%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	15 (10.4%)	2 (1.4%)	64 (44.4%)	53 (36.8%)	10 (6.9%)
Physical threat to coworkers	6 (4.2%)	3 (2.1%)	33 (22.9%)	96 (66.7%)	6 (4.2%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	54 (37.5%)	15 (10.4%)	47 (32.6%)	14 (9.7%)	14 (9.7%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	58 (40.3%)	3 (2.1%)	63 (43.8%)	1 (0.7%)	19 (13.2%)

Frequencies of Reaction of Coworkers to Interpersonal Deviance (differential reinforcement)

	Do Nothing	Encourage	Discourage	Inform Managers	Don't Know
Ridiculing coworkers	42 (29.2%)	16 (11.1%)	58 (40.3%)	15 (10.4%)	13 (9.0%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	18 (12.5%)	2 (1.4%)	49 (34.0%)	61 (42.4%)	14 (9.7%)
Physical threat to coworkers	9 (6.3%)	2 (1.4%)	48 (33.3%)	79 (54.9%)	6 (4.2%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	48 (33.3%)	41 (28.5%)	24 (16.7%)	19 (13.2%)	12 (8.3%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	49 (34.0%)	9 (6.3%)	55 (38.2%)	16 (11.1%)	15 (10.4%)

Frequencies of Employee Perceptions of Engaging in Interpersonal Deviance (differential association)

	Disapprove	Depends	Approve	Don't Care
Ridiculing coworkers	72 (50.0%)	46 (31.9%)	5 (3.5%)	21 (14.6%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	122 (84.7%)	14 (9.7%)	1 (0.7%)	7 (4.9%)
Physical threat to coworkers	129 (89.6%)	11 (7.6%)	1 (0.7%)	3 (2.1%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	47 (32.6%)	44 (30.6)	21 (14.6%)	21 (22.2%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	78 (54.2%)	33 (22.9%)	0 (0.0%)	33 (22.9%)

Frequencies of Own Perception of Organizational Deviance (definitions)

	Disapprove	Depends	Approve	Don't Care
Ridiculing coworkers	100 (69.4%)	34 (23.6%)	3 (2.1%)	7 (4.9%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	128 (88.9%)	9 (6.3%)	2 (1.4%)	5 (3.5%)
Physical threat to coworkers	132 (91.7%)	9 (6.3%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.4%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	69 (47.9%)	41 (28.5%)	10 (6.9%)	24 (16.7%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	99 (68.8%)	28 (19.4%)	1 (0.7%)	16 (11.1%)

APPENDIX H

Frequencies of Social Learning Variables

Frequencies of the Likelihood of Getting Caught Engaging in Organizational Deviance (differential reinforcement)

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Equally	Likely	Very Likely
Take food/drink	29 (20.1%)	52 (36.1%)	45 (31.3%)	14 (9.7%)	4 (2.8%)
Take nonfood/drink	9 (6.3%)	38 (26.4%)	49 (34.0%)	43 (29.9%)	5 (3.5%)
Destroy food/drink	8 (5.6%)	22 (15.3%)	50 (34.7%)	50 (34.7%)	14 (9.7%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	7 (4.9%)	16 (11.1%)	43 (29.9%)	59 (41.0%)	19 (13.2%)
Alcohol while working	6 (4.2%)	20 (13.9%)	43 (29.9%)	40 (27.8%)	35 (24.3%)
Drugs while working	6 (4.2%)	27 (18.8%)	39 (27.1%)	39 (27.1%)	33 (22.9%)

Frequencies of Number of Coworkers Engaging in Organizational Deviance (imitation)

	None	Few	Most	All
Take food/drink	14 (9.7%)	74 (51.4%)	39 (27.1%)	17 (11.8%)
Take nonfood/drink	53 (36.8%)	72 (50.0%)	13 (9.0%)	6 (4.2%)
Destroy food/drink	70 (48.6%)	62 (43.1%)	9 (6.3%)	3 (2.1%)
Destroy nonfood/drink	83 (57.6%)	57 (39.6%)	3 (2.1%)	1 (0.7%)
Alcohol while working	87 (60.4%)	54 (37.5%)	3 (2.1%)	0 (0.0%)
Drugs while working	63 (43.8%)	70 (48.6%)	10 (6.9%)	1 (0.7%)

Frequencies of the Likelihood of Getting Caught Engaging in Interpersonal Deviance (differential reinforcement)

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Equally	Likely	Very Likely
Ridiculing coworkers	17 (11/8%)	30 (20.8%)	51 (35.4%)	37 (25.7%)	9 (6.3%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	12 (8.3%)	12 (8.3%)	44 (30.6%)	56 (38.9%)	20 (13.9%)
Physical threat to coworkers	6 (4.2%)	4 (2.8%)	23 (16.0%)	58 (40.3%)	53 (36.8%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	23 (16.0%)	46 (31.9%)	47 (32.6%)	16 (11.1%)	12 (8.3%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	26 (18.1%)	28 (19.4%)	57 (39.6%)	26 (18.1%)	7 (4.9%)

Frequencies of Number of Coworkers Engaging in Interpersonal Deviance (imitation)

	None	Few	Most	All
Ridiculing coworkers	35 (24.3%)	79 (54.9%)	25 (17.4%)	5 (3.5%)
Verbal threat to coworkers	94 (65.3%)	47 (32.6%)	3 (2.1%)	0 (0.0%)
Physical threat to coworkers	114 (79.2%)	26 (18.1%)	3 (2.1%)	1 (0.7%)
Sexual jokes to coworkers	29 (20.1%)	65 (45.1%)	41 (28.5%)	9 (6.3%)
Unwanted flirting to coworkers	38 (26.4%)	94 (65.2%)	10 (6.9%)	2 (1.4%)

APPENDIX I

Correlation Matrices

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Org Dev
Shift	1										
Employment Length	.077	1									
Position	.040	-.130	1								
Age	.126	.202*	-.021	1							
Sex	.198*	-.166*	.465*	.002	1						
Definitions	.168*	.047	-.054	-.009	.193*	1					
Differential R1	-.040	-.045	-.018	-.080	-.157	-.108	1				
Differential R2	.052	.077	.054	.033	-.051	-.031	.254*	1			
Differential R3	-.305	.121	-.034	.128	-.191*	-.239*	.373*	.380*	1		
Imitation	.043	.124	-.052	.003	.119	.360*	-.070	-.224*	-.405*	1	
Organizational Deviance	.005	.021	.058	-.056	.224*	.479*	.055	-.003	-.204*	.540*	1

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	Diff Assoc	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Int Dev
Definitions	-.116	.058	.030	.020	.185*	1						
Diff Association	-.169*	.040	.078	-.029	.027	.604*	1					
Differential R1	-.175*	-.012	.000	-.083	.013	.088	-.060	1				
Differential R2	-.125	.008	-.022	-.020	-.083	-.091	-.152	.448*	1			
Differential R3	-.062	.093	-.138	.115	-.013	-.093	-.264*	.370*	.343*	1		
Imitation	-.066	.246*	-.029	-.074	.111	.303*	.427*	-.065	-.121	-.124	1	
Interpersonal Deviance	.016	.087	.054	-.088	.501*	.501*	.323*	.119	-.025	.031	.455*	1

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	Diff Assoc	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Production Dev
Definitions	.044	.016	-.047	.070	.283*	1						
Diff Association	-.149	-.040	-.087	.078	.086	.560*.	1					
Differential R1	.023	-.022	-.008	-.032	-.157	-.128	-.194*	1				
Differential R2	.050	.047	.039	.031	-.130	-.353*	-.435*	.287*	1			
Differential R3	.010	.056	-.028	.056	-.181	-.473*	-.527*	.417*	.524*	1		
Imitation	-.034	.238*	-.036	.027	.039	.350*	.466	-.134	.-282*	.-348*	1	
Production Deviance	.085	-.003	.030	-.037	.203*	.514*	.281*	-.037	-.226*	-.246*	.435*	1

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Property Dev
Definitions	.180*	.022	-.048	-.016	.218*	1					
Differential R1	-.075	.021	-.044	-.004	-.034	-.106	1				
Differential R2	-.003	.123	-.007	.029	-.012	-.048	.306*	1			
Differential R3	-.057	.133	-.029	.143	-.147	-.196*	.332*	.274*	1		
Imitation	.068	.041	-.047	-.009	.126	.391*	-.234*	-.226	-.394*	1	
Property Deviance	.016	.032	.054	-.031	.236*	.478*	-.007	-.032	-.169*	.570*.	1

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	Diff Assoc	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Theft of Food
Definitions	.133	.009	-.037	.006	.230*	1						
Diff Association	.110	-.101	-.093	-.067	.023	.438*	1					
Differential R1	-.051	-.005	-.029	-.076	-.046	-.302*	-.360*	1				
Differential R2	.020	-.022	.048	.016	-.068	-.427*	-.279*	.389*	1			
Differential R3	-.045	.097	-.042	.177*	-.050	-.208*	-.165*	.314*	.211*	1		
Imitation	.054	.132	-.125	.116	-.015	.429*	.264*	-.236*	-.199*	-.206*	1	
Theft of food	.016	.088	.087	.000	.179*	.430*	.123	-.196*	-.366*	-.208*	.627*	1

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	Diff Assoc	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Ridicule
Definitions	-.157	-.053	-.047	-.081	.116	1						
Diff Association	-.092	.014	-.086	-.020	-.046	.573*	1					
Differential R1	-.030	-.048	-.015	-.181*	.003	-.357*	-.366*	1				
Differential R2	.053	-.047	-.011	.069	-.086	-.311*	-.486*	.434*	1			
Differential R3	-.055	.074	-.127	.158	-.006	-.142	-.211*	.081	.270*	1		
Imitation	.000	.213*	-.077	-.026	.000	.405*	.484*	-.102	-.213	.291*	1	
Ridiculing of Coworkers	-.023	-.042	.042	-.070	.229*	.696*	.360*	-.359*	-.335*	-.178*	.483*	1

	Shift	Length	Position	Age	Sex	Def	Diff Assoc	DR1	DR2	DR3	Im	Sexual Jokes
Definitions	-.066	.014	-.021	..112	.328*	1						
Diff Association	-.159	-.016	.465*	.045	.144	.637*	1					
Differential R1	-.031	.042	-.112	-.042	-.229*	-.416*	-.452*	1				
Differential R2	-.003	-.027	-.098	.083	-.210*	-.468*	-.581*	.669*	1			
Differential R3	.003	.043	-.132	.065	-.125	-.233*	-.302*	.417*	.543*	1		
Imitation	-.139	.140	-.172*	-.085	.230	.491*	.584*	-.364*	-.369*	-.194*	1	
Sexual Jokes/Comments	.022	.138	.000	-.043	.349*	.566*	.434*	-.396*	-.427*	-.123	.605*	1

* p > .05