TEACHING GUIDE ON MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES FOR NON-PROFESSIONAL FOOD SERVICE SUPERVISORS

by 5444

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A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Institutional Management

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Manhattan, Kansas

1968

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INTRODUCTION

Food service managers are experiencing increased pressure to achieve a higher worker productivity. The supply of skilled workers is low and labor costs continue to rise. A high rate of labor turnover, with its accompanying cost of $165.00 to $1,723.00 per employee (Gray, 1967), and increased minimum wages required by law add to the already high cost of kitchen operation.

Lack of productivity standards also is a factor in food service labor problems. Unlike the factory, where production standard per unit time can be set, food services have found it difficult to establish standards because of the diversity of foods prepared. This places increased responsibility on the supervisor for motivating employees to improve performance.

Many food service employees have a low motivation level. They often come from less privileged groups and have had few "winning" experiences. They see little advantage in extending themselves if they never win (Lundberg, 1964).

Management can best reach its employees through first line supervisors because they are in constant, direct contact with the workers. Supervisor's attitudes and skills in human relations can either encourage creativity and productivity in employees or demoralize them and make them inefficient. Through proper understanding of motivation, supervisors can learn how to create a climate that will foster worker satisfaction, increase productivity, and thus meet management expectations.

In the food service industry, the role of the non-professional supervisor is enhanced by the lack of professionally educated dietitians.

Food service supervisors have had to assume more responsibilities than their counterparts in other industries. This fact accentuates the need for preparing them to meet the challenges of these responsible positions.

The purpose of this report was to develop a teaching guide on motivation of employees for non-professional food service supervisors. Such a guide would be incorporated into an in-service training program.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

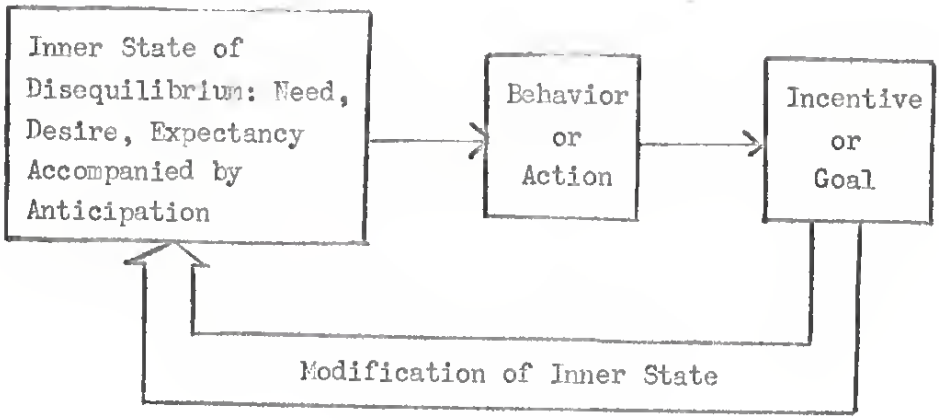
The Nature of Motivation

Dormant in each person are capabilities that wait to be stirred into action. Mobilizing these potentialities into performance requires motivation, according to Maier (1965). However, motivation can influence only when an ability is inherent in a person; in the absence of the capacity or if there is no potential, then motivation can not be productive.

Calhoon (1963) has defined motivation as a force that transforms a need into a goal-directed behavior. By definition, motivation has two integral parts: needs that operate from within the individual and the goals in the outside environment toward or away from which the individual moves.

Psychologists distinguish between needs, drives and motives. However, Teevan (1967) ignored the minor distinctions and used these terms interchangeably to mean a shortage or a deficiency in a person.

In an attempt to explain the complex phenomena involved in motivation, Dunnette and Kirchner (1967) have sketched a motivational model illustrating the interrelationship between need, behavior, and goal.



A tension or an inner state of disequilibrium can be caused by deprivation, pain, or anticipation of enjoyment. Calhoon (1963) described tensions as pushing, driving forces that are selective in nature; that is, they choose actions most likely to bring satisfaction and that most probably will be achieved. This selectivity is aided by perception which refers to the way a person sees, understands, or interprets a situation. An individual is consistent in his perceptions. He may be continually prejudiced or continually suspicious or he may be consistently optimistic.

Attainment of a goal modifies the inner state of disequilibrium and changes the level of the forces that impel the individual to action. Gellerman (1963) referred to this as a reshuffling of motives. Once a need has been satisfied, it sinks into the background and another need replaces it. Motivation, therefore, is a dynamic process: it refers to the needs of an individual, his behavior, and the goal toward which his behavior is directed, as well as the energy released for accomplishment of those goals. The energy of an individual increases with the intensity of his needs.

Motives cannot be seen, they can only be inferred from behavior. Since the motivational proeess deals with abstract concepts, it is often poorly understood (Calhoon, 1963).

The motivational process is not as simple as Dunnette and Kirchner's diagram indicate. Calhoon (1963) found it difficult to identify one dominant motive related to an action because motives do not exist alone or in isolation. A person may experience an interplay of three or more motives at one time, or one motive may result in various manifestations. However, it also is possible for different responses to arise from the same stimulus.

Calhoon (1963) also stated that the intensity of needs and goals vary from time to time. He cited as an example an employee with a need to consult his supervisor but who has met resistance and received no help. Such a need is not likely to persist with the same intensity as before.

Motives also vary from person to person, according to Maier (1965). Each person is a unique individual whose family, social, and cultural background differs from others. Gellerman (1963) referred to this vast difference between people as a human diversity. Any approach to motivation should recognize that no two people are the same.

In spite of differences between individuals, industrial psychologists have categorized employees value orientation (Maier, 1965). They vary in degrees with different persons but tend to be uniform in an individual. Thus employees may be achievement, affiliation, security, or competence and esteem oriented depending on their set of values.

The tendency of an individual to maintain a uniform value orientation was attributed by Gellerman (1963) to a person's self concept.

Although a person may not know himself as others know him, he has developed through the years a "not-so-accurate" image of himself. From early infancy he has picked up fragments of himself from those around him and put them together like a jigsaw puzzle. As a child grows, the puzzle forms a picture and this becomes his self image. Having this self concept, the child tries to live up to it and in a sense develops a consistent pattern of motivation. Gellerman admitted there is a certain amount of illusion, particularly in a person who tends to be immature or unsure of his status.

Calhoon (1963), who referred to this concept as the imaginative ideal self or ego-ideal, considered the awareness of this concept important in any management-employee interaction because it involves the behavior of the employee.

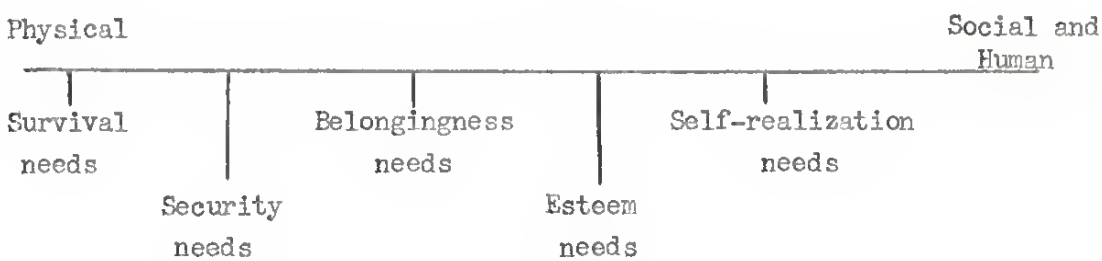
Maier (1965) defined level of aspiration as a psychological process that determines whether an action gives the fulfillment of success or the disappointment of failure. Success and failure function as reward and punishment and thus regulate the level of aspiration. The amount of effort to be exerted to achieve a goal is determined by the level of aspiration.

According to Maier (1965) each employee sets his own standards in terms of his ability, regardless of instructions given to him. Repeated success raises his level of aspiration while repeated failure lowers it, thus protecting him from frustration. Normally, a goal is never reached because as a person approaches a goal, his level of aspiration advances. Maier added that motivation is highest when the level of aspiration is equal to the fear of failure.

A study by Coch and French (1948) showed that when production standards were not commensurate with ability the level of aspiration decreased and dissatisfaction ensued. Production standards tended to pressure employees with below average ability to produce more to the point of frustration, while workers with capabilities above the average were expected to produce the same. This study concluded that industries waste potentialities by not utilizing them.

Maier (1965) stated that ability should equal the level of aspiration in a well balanced employee. Supervisors should be aware of this and help their employees to know themselves.

Hierarchy of needs refers to the concept of priority of needs. Not all needs are of equal potency in activating behavior; some are stronger than others. Maslow (1954) classified human needs into five headings, a continuum ranging from basic physical drives to social and human motives as indicated in the following chart:



Survival needs are physiological in nature. Hunger, thirst, requirement for oxygen, recovery from fatigue are examples of survival needs. Once these needs are satisfied at least to a minimum degree others supercede them and become dominant.

In security needs, also called safety needs, efforts are directed not only toward physical safety but also economic security such as job tenure, insurance, savings, and pensions.

Belongingness and love needs may be internal or external. Internal refers to a small group such as the family and external refers to a social group. Maslow (1954) believes that people need love, estcem, and self-actualization for normal growth and development.

Esteem needs are concerned with a desire for recognition and status, as expressed by the favorable reaction of otbers toward an individual and with his wish for self-respect.

Self-realization needs, also called self-actualization, are on the other extreme of the continuum. They are directed to a person's self-fulfillment, his desire to be developed to his optimum capacity.

According to Maslow's theory all five needs are present in an individual. They merge with no clear dividing line between each category, although a particular need may bo dominant at a given time. When a need is gratified, it recodes into the background and another one moves up. Rosen and Stagner (1965) compared the five needs to a vending machine: satiate a dominant need and the next one in line replaces it.

Satisfaction of basic wants (physiological, safety, and love) are considered by Maier (1965) as essential for a healthy personality. Unless basic needs are satisfied, it is difficult to appeal to the higher needs (self-esteem and self-actualization). When satisfaction is sought to an extreme, a person is prevented from advancing to the next scale. Maier (1965) does not consider this to be healthy for such an individual.

Motivation and Productivity

Before the industrial revolution, production was on a limited scale (Dunnette and Kirchner, 1965). Most employees owned their own tools, and the employer's investment was relatively small. Industrial output was under no economic pressure and though the employee's work day was long, it was relaxed and leisurely. With the advent of the industrial revolution, conditions changed drastically, investments and production expanded, the marketing process began to create widespread consumer demands, and economic competition grew.

Emergence of Scientific Management. Brown (1964) reported a system of scientific management developed by Frederick Taylor, aimed at increasing efficiency and raising the worker's standard of living. This system appeared to the workers, though, as exploitation for the benefit of owners. Taylor's time and method analysis was considered by employees as a complete standardization that undermined their intelligence and considered them as another unit of production.

Although Yoder (1962) stated that management was particularly interested in application of scientific management, its success was shortlived, for the complexities of human motivation began to show up. Taylor's system was capable of satisfying only the physical needs of the employees while the social and security drives were left untended and restless.

Role of the Informal Group. The Case of Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company is considered a classic in the study of motivation. Significant was the discovery that treating workers like human beings and allowing them to form natural groups improved production

dramatically (Gellerman, 1963). Though the study oversimplified matters by concluding that group membership and affiliation were the most fundamental and essential of human needs, Dunnette and Kirchner (1965) regarded it as a landmark in attempting to understand human behavior.

Zalesnik, Christensen and Roethlisberger (1958) found that workers valued group membership more than rewards offered by management. Output was dictated by the group rather than by the production standards of the company. The social life of the group and an employee's acceptance of a member was more important to him than the amount of pay received or the status of his job. Any deviant, isolate, or non-conformist was rejected by the group. The price of membership was high; it meant conformity to the group norms and limited aspiration in terms of self-development and progress. Because of its restricting nature, such groups were called "frozen" for they blocked the members' needs for status, recognition, self-development, self-esteem, and independence. The consequence was passivity, apathy, refusal to accept responsibility, and at times hostility toward management.

Argyris (1957) concluded that formal organizations tend to be in conflict with employees' needs. Workers responded defensively by uniting in informal groups that served as an outlet for pent-up emotions, decreased the feeling of dependence and subjection, and protected their members from the formal organization.

Informal groups do not necessarily have to be antagonistic toward management, in the opinion of Argyris (1957). The organization should heed the motives of their people and channel them to meet both the goals of the organization and those of its members.

Restriction of industrial output by group decision among white and blue collar workers was reported by French and Zander (1949). Lewin (1958) concluded that employees with high peer-group loyalty achieved management's objectives if the group accepted their goals. The more cohesive the group, according to Seashore (1954), the greater its influence on the performance of the employee. Closely knit groups give their members security and a sense of belonging. When such groups decide to cooperate with management, they improve interpersonal relationships and develop favorable attitudes toward their jobs and the organization.

Coch and French (1948), in a study of group participation in problem solving and goal setting, concluded that groups have the power to bring production up or down.

A change from an authoritative to a participative managerial system at the Harwood Manufacturing Company was reported by Marrow, Bowers and Seashore (1967). A 26 percent increase in productivity resulted, as well as a more friendly attitude of workers toward the company.

Gellerman (1963) believes that participation of employees in problem solving, decision making, and goal setting shows management's respect for experience of workers. Productivity depends on the motivation of employees, who according to Likert (1961) respond when their needs are recognized by the organization.

Style of Supervision. Studies have shown that supervisory style is related to performance of workers. Katz, Macoby, and Morse (1950), in a study of office workers, found that supervisors who were "employee-centered" or who treated their employees as individuals had high producing units. In contrast, supervisors who were "production-centered"

or mainly interested in getting the work done, had low producing units. These results were duplicated in a study of railroad workers by Katz, et al. (1951).

Mann, Indik and Vroom (1963) reported similar findings at a tractor company, but added that the supervisors, in addition to being "employee-centered," considered production important and maintained it at a high level.

Katz, Macoby and Morse (1950) reported that a general style of supervision is more effective than close supervision with office workers. Mann and Dent (1954) agreed with this conclusion. Pelz (1957) in a study of the effects of giving engineers freedom in their work, concluded that freedom leads to high performance only when there is interaction between the individual, his colleagues, and his superior.

Maintenance and Motivational Needs. Herzberg and Snyderman (1950) conducted the first large scale study of attitudes that lead to job satisfaction. This research distinguished between the terms motivators and maintenance needs. A motivator is an influence that contributes to improved performance, while a maintenance factor prevents loss of morale or efficiency but does not necessarily result in improvement in attitude or performance. Maintenance factors are essential for effective motivation but in themselves are powerless to motivate. They can forestall dissatisfaction but cannot upgrade performance or attitude. For the group of engineers and accountants in Herzberg and Snyderman's study, the traditional "bread and butter" motivators and the more sophisticated "human relation" functioned as maintenance factors, while freedom to be creative and to control their own work and problems functioned as motivators.

Herzberg (1959) asserted that maintenance factors cannot be withheld from any employee, especially the production personnel whose routing and repetitive work demands good supervisory practices, favorable working conditions, and good salary.

Herzberg's study was replicated by Myers (1964), Schwartz (1963), Dysinger (1965), and Dunnette (1965). Vroom (1967) indicated that the two factor theory (motivators and maintenance) is presumptive, implying that manipulation of the job content and the job context will affect job satisfaction. However, Dunnette (1967) considered it as an "insightful bread" with motivation concepts of the past.

Bowles (1966) reported the successful use of Herzberg's theory in the Texas Instruments Company at different managerial levels from the top to the first line supervisors. The theory was accepted by most supervisors as "one which really worked" in stimulating employees.

The Impact of Money. Gellerman (1963) stated that money does not influence the thinking and behavior of employees as much as management would like to think. Dunnette and Kirchner (1965) cited the study done at Philadelphia Textile Company, where the incentive plans were ineffective because of the monotony of the work. The study concluded that money serves as a motivating factor only if it is used in conjunction with, rather than in opposition to, man's other needs.

Results of a study by Whyte (1955) indicated that although money played an important role, an incentive payment system was an ineffective technique in influencing the worker. Incentive plans worked only for the "rate busters" who composed 10 percent of the entire group. Productivity increases following incentive plans could not be attributed

to money involved but were due to the fact that raising the output had become a game with the employees.

Adult Education

Contrary to popular opinion, Kintzay (1967) reported that adults can learn almost as well as they could as children. Intensity of interests and clarity of incentives make up for decreases in sensory efficiency. Wagner (1963) pointed out that adults learn with an ability corresponding to earlier school years when there is no stringent time limit. Davies (1962) stated that adults learn what they want to learn. An adult needs to know what is expected of him, why it is necessary to learn each point, and what is the ultimate objective.

Verhaalen (1964) believes that the adult, because of his wide background of experiences, can relate present learning to past experiences and make it more meaningful. Past experiences, according to Morton (1963), will enable the adult to perceive and grasp many concepts and goals involved in learning.

Kintzay (1967) reported that learning occurs when there is a motive, a goal, and feedback. Knowles (1950) agreed with Kintzay that keeping the learner busy by making him participate is an effective way of teaching.

Lundberg (1964) proposed the case study method as a technique for teaching food service supervisors but indicated that it required great skill in handling the discussion. A good leader should impart the following:

1. He seeks to have the trainees increase their observation, to ask better questions, and to look for broad ranges of problems (not "who is to blame?" but "why did it happen?")

2. He encourages the group to look for more and more implications to each solution and to avoid oversimplification of solutions.

3. He helps the student discard vague principles such as "be tactful" and urges him not only to evaluate "what" to do but "how" to do it.

4. He allows trainees to test their solutions in real situations.

The role-playing technique of teaching was described by Yoder (1962) as a game of "let's pretend." It involves creating a realistic situation and having different persons interact. Calhoon (1963) commented that participants when in a realistic situation tend to act out their ideas and solutions as they would in an on-the-job situation. According to Davies (1962) role-playing develops in a participant the skill to sense another person's feelings. It allows him to set in the role of the person he has to interpret. Unless effectively directed by a leader, Davies (1962) reported that role-playing can degenerate into child play, defeating its purpose.

Kidd (1961) stated that learning proceeds most quickly when information reaches the learner through more than one sensory channel. Audio-visual aids are useful in employee training programs and should be related to the trainee's experiences to be meaningful. For maximum retention and transfer, learning must result in appropriate, purposeful activity.

The Non-Professional Food Service Supervisor

Continued expansion of health care facilities and the increasing realization of the indispensability of the dietitian in the hospital have aggravated the existing shortage of qualified dietitians (Van Horne,1963).

In addition to the demand for hospital dietitians, other types of food establishments requiring professional services are: residence halls, student unions, school lunch programs, industrial cafeterias, air lines, and railroads.

As early as 1942, the American Dietetic Association recognized the scarcity of dietitians. A committee, appointed to study the situation (Van Horne, 1961), concluded that the surest and easiest way to cope with the shortage was to utilize the services of non-professional food service supervisors to perform duties that did not require specialized background. The role of the non-professional food service supervisor has steadily assumed a new dimension and by 1964, according to Van Horne (1966), the American Dietetic Association survey reported that supervisors had gained a foothold in the hospital dietary department. Approximately 70 percent of hospitals with 100 beds or more and 38 percent of hospitals with less than 100 beds reported having one or more supervisors. The survey also pointed out 4,700 vacant positions and estimated that as high as 10,000 opportunities for supervisors are available.

Bloetjes, et al. (1962) studied hospital dietary department duties that could be delegated to supervisors. Of the 143 duties studied, the most logical to be delegated appeared to be those connected with menu production, records, and reporting. Delegation of routine duties would give dietitians greater opportunities for professional growth and advancement, more time to participate in community health activities and to maintain public interest and support.

Schell and Bloetjes (1962) studied the delegation of routine duties in 170 Veteran Administration Hospitals. The dietitians interviewed

were willing to delegate provided the supervisors were given specific training.

According to Van Horne (1966) the terms supervisor and cook-manager were clarified in a report of the American Dietetic Association in 1965. Those in charge of a small (25-bed) hospital dietary department who also have responsibility for actual food preparation are called cook-managers rather than food service supervisors. They are responsible for the daily operation of the food service department and have greater responsibility than food service supervisors.

In 1966, The American Dietetic Association developed a manual to be used in a food service supervisor course accepted by the governing board of the Hospital Institutional and Educational Food Service Society as its minimum requirement for membership (ADA Courier, 1967). This society, which had a membership of 640 on its sixth anniversary in 1966 is fast expanding and is upgrading the qualifications of its members.

ROLE OF THE FOOD SERVICE SUPERVISOR

Supervisors from three different types of food services were interviewed (Table 1), to determine their role in the organization. Between management and the food service personnel stands the supervisor, responsible to each for the other. As leader of the employees, he represents them to management. As a member of management, he reflects the policies of the institution in his views and attitudes.

Table 1. Type, location, and size of food services where supervisors were interviewed.

Type	Code No.	Location	Size
Residence Halls	1.	Manhattan, Ks.	180 students
	2.	Manhattan, Ks.	180 students
Industrial Cafeterias	1.	Kansas City, Mo.	5,000 employees on a 24 hour shift
	2.	Kansas City, Mo.	1,500 employees on an 8 hour shift
Hospitals	1.	Buffalo, N. Y.	700 patients 1,400 staff
	2.	Kansas City, Mo.	500 patients 1,000 staff
	3.	Buffalo, N. Y.	200 patients 450 staff

Residence Halls

The role of the supervisor varied with the type of food service establishment and its size. The supervisor's duties were more varied in the small residence halls Nos. 1 and 2, than in a large industrial cafeteria (No. 1). The residence hall supervisors were directly responsible for food production, service, and maintenance of sanitary standards. They prepared production and work sheets, adjusted recipes, checked supplies, and ordered regular items such as milk and bread. They trained new employees, handled minor disciplinary problems, and were directly responsible for their personnel. They helped the dietitian in scheduling employees.

Industrial Cafeterias

No. 1. Catering to 5,000 employees and staffed with three supervisors, the areas of responsibilities in industrial cafeteria No. 1 were specialized. Food production was the responsibility of a professionally educated home economist. Non-professional supervisors were in charge of the food service unit and the maintenance of supplies and vending machines unit. Each supervisor was allowed considerable freedom in decision making.

The food service supervisor was responsible for the service of food in the dining room. He also was in charge of delivery of coffee to employees in their units during the break periods. Private parties held in the dining room were planned, scheduled, and priced by the supervisor.

Supplies needed by the cafeteria were ordered by the maintenance supervisor who had charge of keeping a record of supplies on hand. Any work connected with the vending machines was part of his job. Supervisors scheduled employees and their work, rated them, and handled minor disciplinary problems.

No. 2. In this cafeteria, franchised by a food service management company, the supervisor was in charge of the cafeteria except for menu making and financial accounting. He was responsible for purchasing, storing, production, and service of food, training employees, and maintenance of sanitary standards.

Hospitals

No. 1. This dietary department had three supervisors. Each was responsible for a unit (tray line, dining room, and dish room) but

performed part of the work in the unit.

No. 2. Two supervisors were employed: one for food production and the other for service of food in the wards. Their duties were mainly supervisory. Scheduling of employees and work were done by the dietitians.

No. 3. The only non-professional supervisor in this dietary department was in charge of the cafeteria. Beside supervising the service of food, maintenance of sanitary standards, and dishwashing, she also kept a record of cash received at the counter. She maintained good public relations with the staff, was available to customers during the service of food, and saw that customers were properly seated and served.

The supervisor considered it important to have a team spirit among employees. She trained them to help each other without being asked and to "pitch-in" where needed. She met them regularly and kept them informed about relevant hospital news.

Duties of Supervisors

The interviews showed the well-defined duties of supervisors which included scheduling of work and employees ranging in number from 4-22, training new personnel, handling problems and questions which arose. Supervisors' attitudes and skill in mobilizing people influenced the work climate.

TEACHING GUIDE FOR A MOTIVATION SEMINAR

A guide on motivation of employees was developed for teaching non-professional food service supervisors in an in-service training program. Instruction was planned for a seminar consisting of five lessons.

Objectives, approach, generalizations, and teaching points, complete with suggested illustrations were developed for each lesson. Material was based on readings and interviews.

Objectives

The objectives of the seminar on employee motivation for non-professional food service supervisors are:

1. To acquaint the supervisor with an understanding of employee motivation as applied to the food service institution.
2. To stress the importance of the role of the supervisor in motivating employees.

Method of Presentation

This program was geared to teaching adults. Knowledge will be derived basically from the instructor and secondarily from the sharing of experiences of participants. Teaching points were illustrated with flip charts. The case study method and role playing techniques were used to encourage participation and to provide learning experience. Involving members of the class in discussion is important in developing an insight into the subject matter.

The Motivation Seminar as planned consists of five sessions of 40 minutes each. A 20-30 minute lecture precedes each 10-20 group activity that is either discussion of a case study, role-playing, or a quiz.

Instruction should be given by a qualified dietitian. Resource persons from the organization, such as the Personnel Manager, may be invited to participate. The instructor should adjust the teaching guide

to the needs of the supervisors and their educational level. He must have an understanding of the principles of motivation as applied to food service workers.

Lesson Plans

Problem I What does motivation mean?

Objective: To acquire a knowledge of motivation.

Approach: The first 20 minutes will consist of a brief explanation of motivation. The last 20 minutes will be devoted to group discussion of a case study.

To give all members of the class a chance to participate, they will be divided into groups of 10 or less depending on the size of the class. Each group will be given 10 minutes to discuss the case and recommend a course of action. The instructor, acting as a moderator, will sum up the discussion and emphasize the points relevant to the material covered in the last 10 minutes of the class period.

Generalizations:	Teaching Points:
1. Motivation is a force that impels a person to get what he wants.	1. Chart No. 1 "Motivation is dynamite." Motivation is in a sense like dynamite. Motivation has the capacity for strength that can release a tremendous amount of energy like dynamite when it is sparked.
2. Motivation has two parts: a need or desire and a goal or an end.	2. Chart No. 2 "Robinson Crusoe." If a man were stranded on a desert island like Robinson Crusoe was, after a week he would be starved. His need would be hunger and his goal would be food.

3. Motivation has been described as a "will."

3. The need or desire directs the will; hence it could be a "will-to-learn," a "will-to-paint" or a "will-to-win."

Chart No. 3 "Elect Kunigunda."

Energy, drive, determination and "will-to-win" are present while politicians are campaigning.

They work ceaselessly day and night for attainment of their goal.

In food service, we are interested in motivation as a "will-to-work."

We want our workers to have a personal need to work and also a desire to achieve the goals of the food service.

4. The motivational process involves need, behavior and goals. It is a process of eliminating the need by attaining the goal.

4. Chart No. 4 "Motivational Process A."

Hunger would motivate Robinson Crusoe to search for food and to fish in the waters.

Hunger is his need, food is his goal, and search for food is the "will" to be satisfied.

5. Motivation of employees is important to achieve worker job satisfaction and to increase productivity.

5. Chart No. 5 "Motivating the food service worker."

Motivating the food service worker means activating him, making him want to work, arousing his interest so that he has not only the "will-to-work" but the "will-to-work-well."

When a worker is enthusiastic about his job, he finds it satisfying and rewarding.

Interest in the job is evident in his decreased absenteeism and increased efficiency.

6. Each person must be motivated in a different way, which requires that a supervisor know his employees and treat them accordingly.

6. Backgrounds, needs, experiences, and expectations vary with each person.

People have different ways of reacting to a situation, have different goals and aspirations.

Each person is a unique individual.

With some employees, a suggestion is sufficient to assure that a task will get done.

With others, definite instructions and deadlines must be given before one can be sure that the job will be accomplished.

Case Study

Joyce, 40 years of age, has worked as dining room maid for the residence halls food service for three years. She owns her own home, adds a little to her bank account each month, and plans to send her daughter to college.

Joyce is very systematic about her work, following an identical routine each day. She is always on time and generally is cooperative. At one time when the baker was sick, Joyce was requested to help and showed the capability of being a good baker.

A vacancy has occurred in the bake shop. The manager sees potential in Joyce and offers her the job of assistant pastry cook. The position is one in which the worker is trained on the job. The wage scale is 10 cents per hour higher than the dining room maid's job, but Joyce refuses it because she prefers the job she has and does not want to learn a new one.

Discussion:

1. Identify Joyce's needs and goals.
2. Identify the food service's needs and goals.
3. How would you interest Joyce in wanting to work in the bake shop?

Problem II What motivational needs are job related?

Objective: To develop in a food service supervisor an awareness of employee needs.

Approach: A lecture will be given on the motivational needs that are job-related. Members of the class will be encouraged to participate during the presentation of the subject matter, especially in generalization of No. 8 of the lesson plan.

Generalizations:	Teaching Points:
1. To motivate employees, it is important to be able to understand and meet their needs and aspirations.	1. Satisfaction of motivational needs is largely under the control of the supervisors. Supervisors should know these needs in order to provide job satisfaction and to be able to deal with employees.
2. The need for occupational growth and advancement is met by utilizing and developing the capabilities of employees, building on their strengths, and helping them overcome their weak points.	2. Chart No. 6 "The gold mine." Psychologists feel that inherent in man are potentialities. Tapping these capabilities is like discovering a gold mine. Developing these potentials provide job satisfaction in addition to increasing productivity and efficiency.
3. Every worker needs a job he considers as "his" task. To be given responsibility is a sign of the supervisor's confidence in the employee.	3. Giving each employee a well-defined job in the area in which he is competent or if possible in the area of his interest will satisfy this need. Allowing employees enough freedom to things within the limits of the organization's policies and work standards, develops his abilities, prepares him to assume more responsibilities and encourages creativity.

4. Another employee need is the desire to be successful. Goals that are challenging but in proportion to the worker's ability lead to accomplishment of goals.

4. Chart No. 7 "Fit the man to the job."

Goals are necessary for workers to know what is expected of them.

Goals should match the employee's abilities.

There is a big gap between the best and the less capable employee.

Attainable goals lead to success and satisfy the need to be successful.

5. Every person needs recognition and praise for his accomplishment.

5. Chart No. 8 "The best performance award."

Praise given for a good job should be specific.

An appreciation of the worker's efforts will increase his job satisfaction.

Official recognition should be given for exceptional performance.

6. Motivational needs can not be isolated from each other, for they are interrelated.

6. A promotion may be seen as a form of individual recognition for achievement.

A promotion also brings increased opportunities for occupational growth and a wider area of responsibility.

7. The role of the supervisor in satisfying motivational needs can not be over-stressed.

7. The supervisor is in direct, constant contact with his employees.

The supervisor is in a position to help and encourage employees and to recognize their achievements and praise them.

8. Recapitulation: Motivation is a force that changes a need into a goal directed behavior.

8. Chart No. 9 "Motivational Process B."

This chart shows the process of needs directing behavior to achieve goals.

It also shows employees' needs, behaviors and goals.

Supervisors' awareness of motivational needs enable them to channel employees behavior toward achievement of organizational goals.

Job enthusiasm, extra effort and a feeling of personal worth and individuality result from a well motivated employee.

Chart No. 10 "Build the will to work."

Problem III How does the modern supervisor influence the motivation of employees?

Objectives: To develop in a supervisor:

1. A knowledge of the modern style of supervision.
2. A sincere respect for each employee as a person.

Approach: A lecture will be given on the modern style of supervision. A short quiz will be given in the last 10 minutes of the class period.

Generalizations:	Teaching Points:
1. The modern supervisor is not domineering.	1. Chart No. 11 "The slave driver." The slave driver gives orders and exacts obedience from subordinates.
2. A modern supervisor is not a puppeteer.	2. Chart No. 12 "The puppeteer." The modern supervisor does not manipulate people to get them to do what he wants.
3. The modern supervisor is a leader.	3. Chart No. 13 "This way to company goals." The modern supervisor has a sense of direction and leads his people to the attainment of the establishment's goals: quality food and superior service.
4. A leader's effectiveness is related to the opinion workers have of him.	4. Chart No. 14 "The highly esteemed supervisor." When workers think highly of their supervisor, they respond to his leadership. Employees esteem their supervisor if he is interested in them.

5. The modern supervisor is "employee-centered" not "production-centered.

5. Chart No. 15 "The walking oven."

A "production-centered" supervisor would see a baker as a "walking oven."

An "employee-centered" supervisor would see the baker as a person as well as his production activities and equipment.

He is primarily interested in persons as individuals and secondarily as workers.

He works with people and not with persons who get the work done.

6. Favorable attitudes and behavior of a supervisor promotes the employee's sense of dignity and personal worth.

6. The modern supervisor is kind and considerate, fair and just in his relationships with others.

Chart No. 16 "You can do it Charlie."

Confidence in employee's abilities in contrast to suspicion makes employees feel important.

This confidence allows a supervisor to have high expectation that he won't be disappointed.

Chart No. 17 "Try again."

A helpful attitude toward mistakes is to remove the error and encourage the worker to learn from his mistakes.

7. The modern supervisor motivates his employees by being, as well as looking alive and enthusiastic.

7. Attitudes are contagious and permeate the entire unit.

A happy, enthusiastic supervisor is likely to have a happy enthusiastic group.

"Pop" Quiz

Circle the best answer:

1. The modern supervisor gets things done:
   a. By commanding that work is done and no questions asked.
   b. By working people for the supervisor's advantage.
   c. By group participation and knowing the personnel.

2. The amount of control a supervisor has over his employees depends on:
   a. His personality.
   b. Amount of respect employees have for him and the example he sets.
   c. Amount of authority he has.

3. When a worker makes a mistake, the "employee-centered" supervisor is likely to say:
   a. "Either you do a better job next time or you will be demoted."
   b. "Forget it, it really doesn't matter."
   c. "Let's learn from this mistake and see what went wrong."

4. A leader:
   a. Demands that workers produce up to the standard.
   b. Gives orders and expects them to be followed.
   c. Suggests and asks for suggestions.

5. Attitudes and behavior:

   a. Are contagious.

   b. Do not influence productivity and efficiency.

   c. Cannot be changed.

6. What do you think of this cartoon?

Is Lucy helpful?

How do you react to silly questions?

How should you react?

Problem IV How are group loyalty and team spirit related to motivation?

Objectives: To help the supervisor:

1. See the relationship between group loyalty, team spirit, and motivation.
2. Acquire a knowledge of how to create a closely knit group.

Approach: The first 20 minutes will consist of a brief lecture on group loyalty, team spirit, and motivation. The second part of the class period will consist of role playing. Volunteers will be given instructions on their roles. At the end of 15 minutes, regardless of whether or not the group arrives at a solution, the class will discuss for five minutes the roles played.

Generalizations:	Teaching Points:
1. Participation of workers in decision making encourages teamwork.	1. Teamwork gives greater satisfaction, better motivation and improved performance. Chart No. 18. "The new mixer." Allowing employees who will use new equipment to help decide on its location will result in a feeling of importance. Taking part in decision making will help develop group feeling among employees. They will be motivated to utilize the equipment and to improve performance. Chart No. 19 "Human resources model A." Participation leads to loyalty and team spirit.

Results are cooperation, satisfaction, motivation, and improved performance.

2. Participation in decision making provides workers with opportunities to contribute, to interact, and to influence others.

2. Chart No. 20 "Participation model."

Supervisors tell their employees the "what" and "why" of the job.

But they can allow them to help decide the "how" and "when" of the task.

For example, a residence hall is anticipating a thanksgiving dinner.

Employees may be asked for suggestions on how to serve and how much advance preparation can be done.

3. Employees should be given ample opportunity to express their ideas freely and fully.

3. Chart No. 21 "The suggestion box."

Workers should feel free to give their suggestions and criticisms to a supervisor.

A suggestion box is not necessary.

A supervisor should be available to the employees.

Interaction, problem-solving, criticisms, and suggestions are given and received in order to be helpful.

4. Participation should come from all members of the group.

4. Chart No. 22 "The loner."

Some people tend to be loners while others want to dominate.

Chart No. 23 "The one-man show."

The supervisor should be able to handle both extremes; encouraging the loner to come out more and subduing the "show-off" so that others can participate.

5. The group should feel that the supervisor is a part of the group.

5. The supervisor contributes to the group mostly in the form of questions and suggestions unless it may be necessary to do otherwise.

Supervisors can ask, "Do you think we should...?" or "What do you think...?"

There are several ways of getting points across to another person or asking others to do something without having to impose one's authority.

6. The more a supervisor allows workers to participate, the greater is his influence in motivating them.

6. Chart No. 24 "I want to feel important."

The more a supervisor listens to employees, the more they will listen to him.

Allowing employees to contribute is a sign of respect for their experience and opinions; it gives them a sense of personal worth.

7. Employees should not be allowed to participate unless the supervisor intends to heed their suggestions or explain why they cannot be used.

7. If the supervisor is not sincere in asking the workers opinions, sooner or later the employees will find this out.

The result will be a hostile, antagonistic group of employees.

8. Constructive use of meetings develops group pride and loyalty.

8. Chart No. 25 "Loyalty and team spirit."

The more people are together, the more they identify themselves with the group.

Being in constant contact with each other gives workers a sense of belonging.

Interpersonal relationships improve as employees work together cooperatively.

Chart No. 26 "Mileage of a team."

9. Group meetings are not limited to formal sessions.

9. Informal discussions between the supervisor and the employee may take place at their work stations.

	Formality of the meeting is not as important as the willingness of the supervisor to discuss the employees' ideas.
10. Workers' acceptance of group goals and decisions is related to group cohesiveness.	10. In some dietary departments, patient's trays are assembled on a conveyor belt. The belt moves at the speed of the slowest person. If the group agrees on its speed, the greater their loyalty to each other, the more they will cooperate with the decision.
11. Group loyalty is of utmost importance in food service.	11. Cooperation of each member of the working team is essential for superior service of good quality food. Failure of one member to serve "hot foods hot" and "cold foods cold" will reflect on the entire unit. Low sanitary standards of one member can render the food service as unsafe for consumption.

Review:

Participation of workers in problem solving and decision making encourages the formation of a closely knit group.	Chart No. 27 "Human resources model B." A sense of loyalty and team spirit are developed through employee participation resulting in cooperation, satisfaction, motivation, and improved performance.

Role-Playing Exercise

The Location of a Mixer-Cutter Machine

Each participant is to be given his role and is expected to improvise his own script. Fifteen minutes will be alloted for role-playing. At the end of the role-playing, the instructor will discuss participation of members and evaluate the ability of the leader to involve participants.

Roles:

Leader: The most important thing to remember is to guarantee that each member perceives a reason for his presence. The mixer-cutter is to be shared by members of the group according to their needs and should be placed at a convenient location.

Give all members an opportunity to take part and encourage the shy employee. Avoid domination of the group by any one person. But remember, you want to encourage a team spirit.

Listen carefully and understandingly but avoid evaluating individual contributions. Relate goals to group goals.

Baker: You feel you need the mixer badly and probably will use it the most. Insist on having the mixer close to your unit. However, be reasonable.

Vegetable Cook: You are new in the establishment and refrain from contributing even if you perceive the need for the mixer.

Salad Man: It would be convenient for cutting your vegetables, if it were not too far from your unit.

Cook: You foresee using the machine to mix meat loaves and other food combinations. It would help you to have it close to your unit.

Problem V What factors influence the motivation of employees?

Objective: To review material covered in the previous classes.

Approach: Each member of the class is expected to come prepared with an example for each factor influencing motivation. A brief introduction will precede the discussion.

Generalizations	Teaching Points:
1. To motivate employees a supervisor must recognize job-related needs of employees.	1. There are four motivational needs: growth and advancement occupational achievement responsibility recognition. Chart No. 9 "Motivational Process B." Discussion of supervisors' examples.
2. Supervisory style influences performance of workers.	2. Respect for the employees promotes a sense of dignity and personal worth. Chart No. 13 "This way to company goals." The modern supervisor is a leader. Discussion of examples.
3. Group loyalty and team spirit motivate workers.	3. Chart No. 27 "Human resources Model B." Discussion.
4. For maximum motivation an understanding of the factors that influence it is necessary.	4. Chart No. 28 "Factors influencing maximum motivation." The factors for maximum motivation are: Recognition of needs Respect for the worker and supervisory style Team spirit and loyalty

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express her appreciation to Mrs. Grace Shugart, Head of Institutional Management and major advisor, for her valuable help and guidance during the preparation of the report. Special acknowledgement is made to Mrs. Raymona Middleton, assistant professor of Institutional Management, and to Mrs. Merna Zeigler, Director of K-State Union Food Service for reviewing the manuscript.

Recognition is extended to Mrs. Jean Bottger, Personnel Dietitian, Kansas State Residence Hall Food Service, and to Mrs. Faith Roach, Instructor of Institutional Management for evaluating the lesson plans.

Gratitude is extended to the graduate students in Institutional Management who helped in the writing of the case study.

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APPENDIX

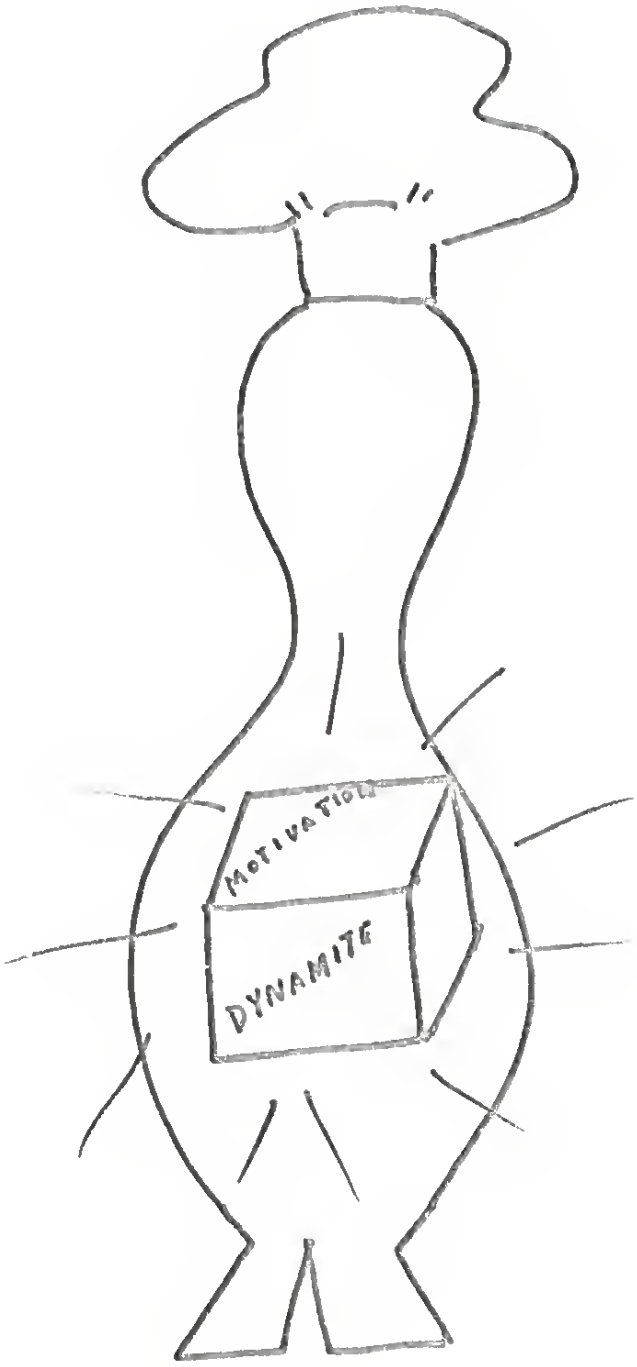


Chart No. 1 Motivation is dynamite.

If a man were stranded on a desert
island like Robinson Crusoe
he would think of ways to find food.

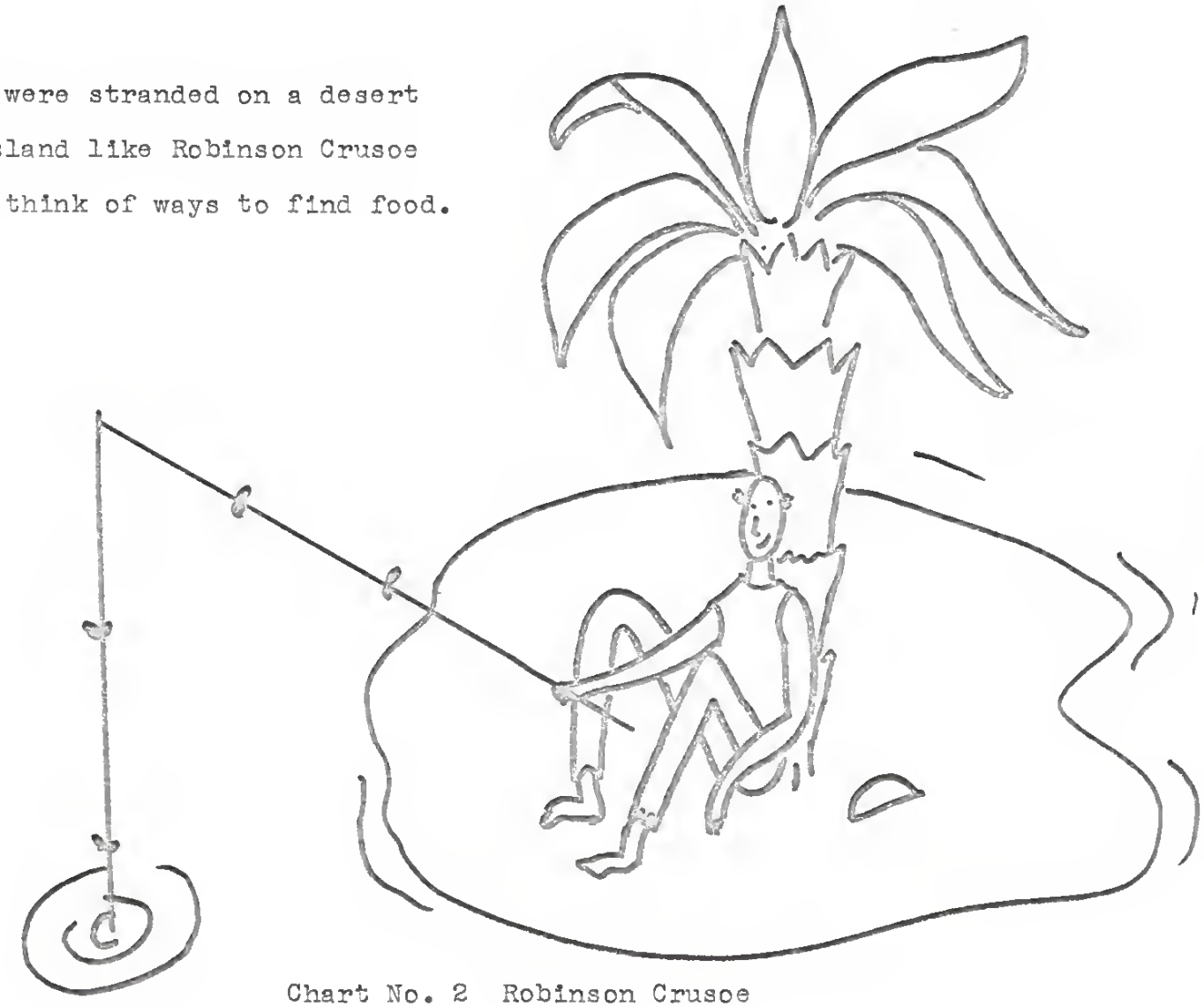
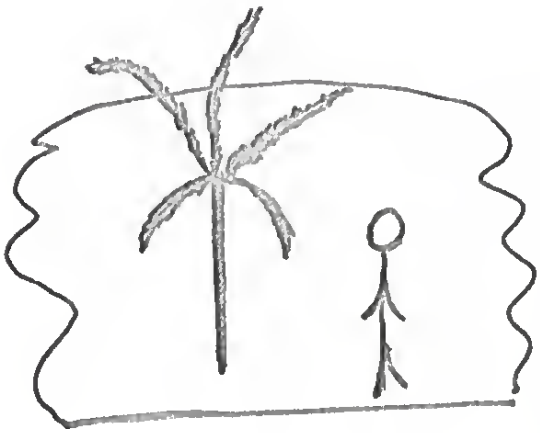


Chart No. 2 Robinson Crusoe

Chart No. 3 Elect Kunigunda.

If a man does not eat
for three days
he would feel
hungry.



This hunger would
motivate him to
search for food.

HUNGER	SEARCH	FOOD
NEED	GOAL DIRECTED BEHAVIOR	GOAL

Chart No. 4 Motivational Process A.

Chart No. 5 Motivating the food service worker.

Chart No. 6 The gold mine.

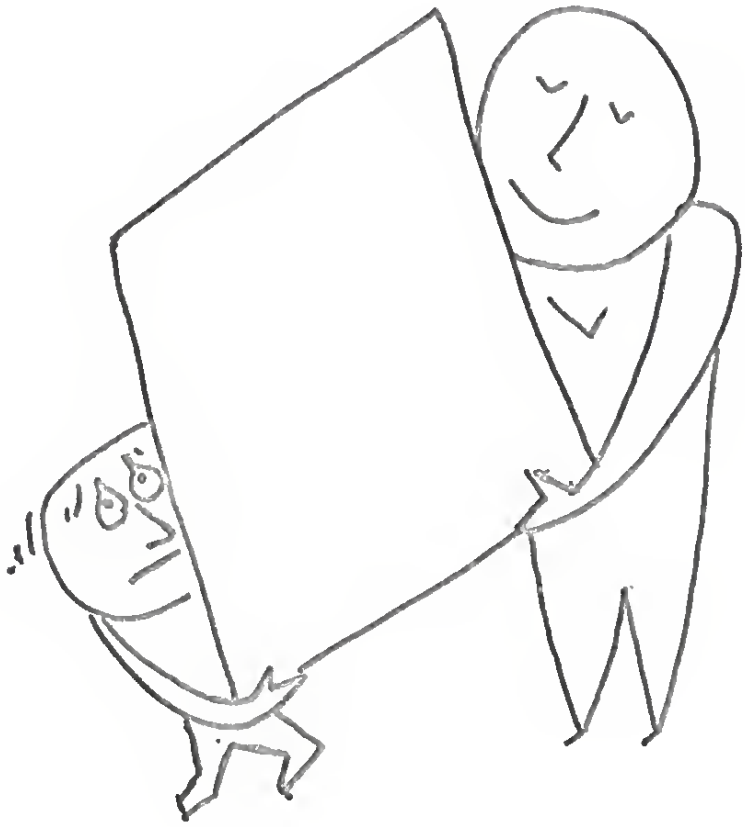


Chart No. 7 Fit the man to the job.

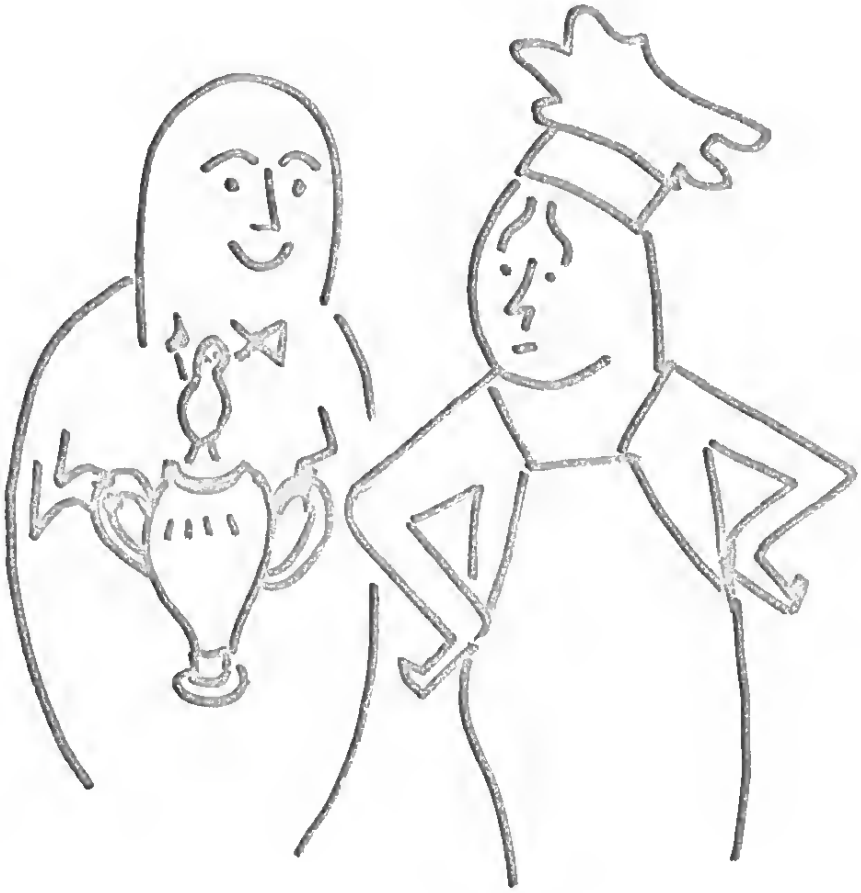


Chart No. 8 The best performance.

Chart No. 9 Motivational Process B

Need	Goal-directed behavior	Goal	
Growth and advancement	Utilize abilities	Higher level of tasks	Job satisfaction
Occupational achievement	Set attainable goals	Success	Extra effort
			Less absenteeism
Responsibility	Define jobs	More responsibility	Efficiency
Recognition	Give credit	Praise	

Supervisor's Area of Control

Being aware of employee needs helps the supervisor to channel behavior of employees and integrate worker's goals with management objectives.

HOW DO YOU .....

Utlize abilities	Match work standards with capabilities	Define responsibility	Praise employees
Example: An institutional worker has a "knack for preparing salads.			
Give enough garnishings to decorate salad For special functions like Christmas, have her prepare the salads.	If the salad girl is an average worker, provide a goal that is in proportion to what she can do	The salad girl knows what is expected of her.	"I liked the way you arranged the radishes on the salad this time."

BUILD THE WILL-TO-WORK

RECOGNIZE

EMPLOYEE NEEDS

AND ...

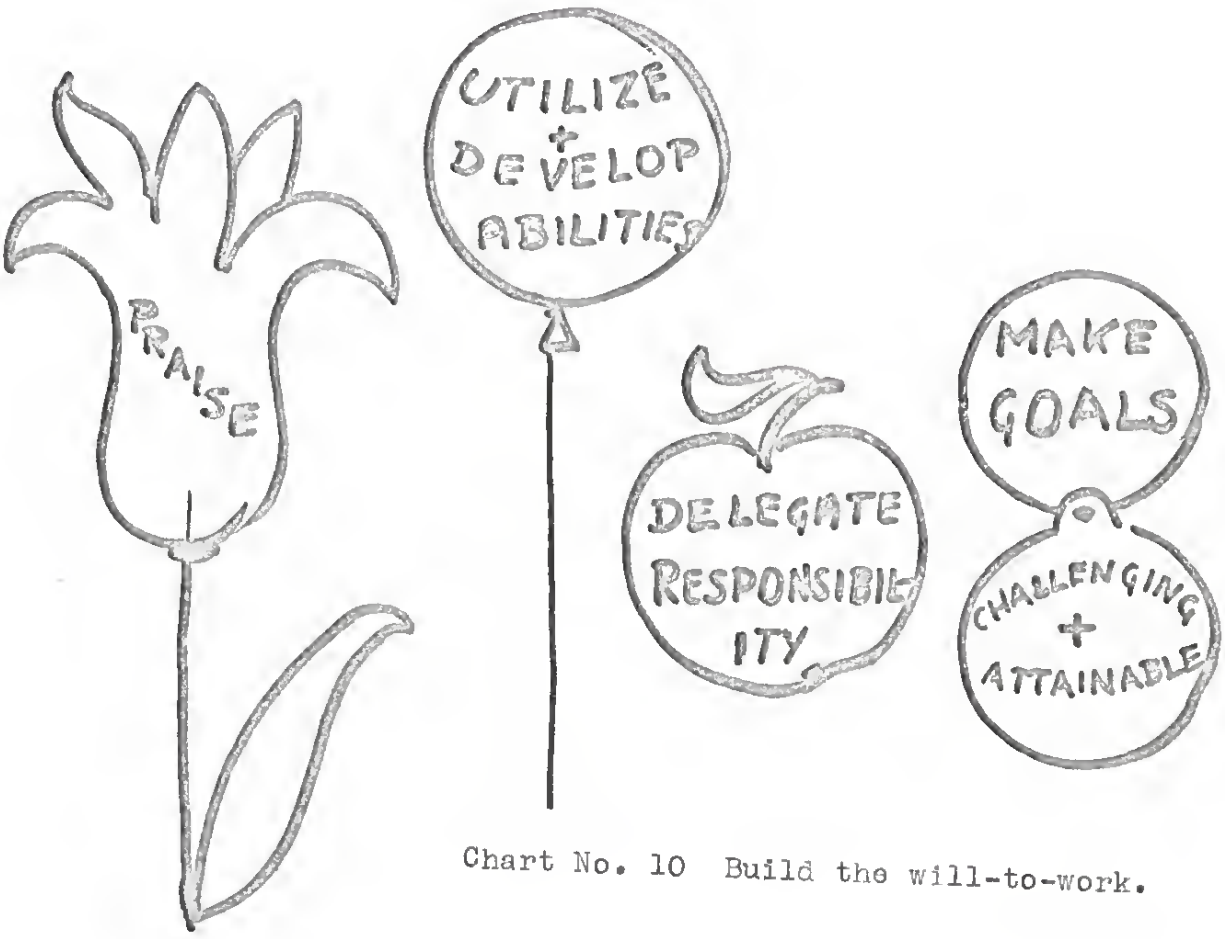


Chart No. 10 Build the will-to-work.

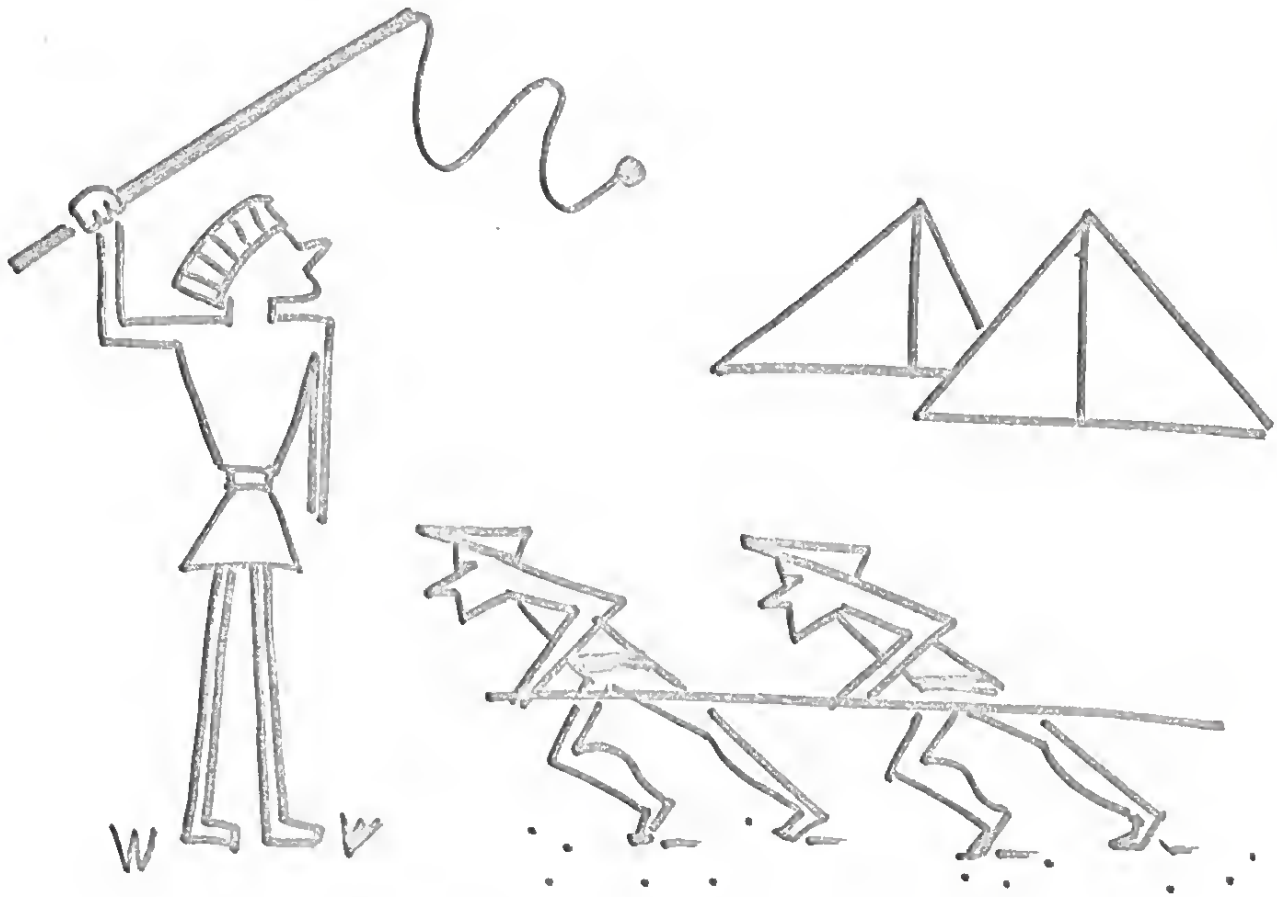


Chart No. 11 The slave driver.

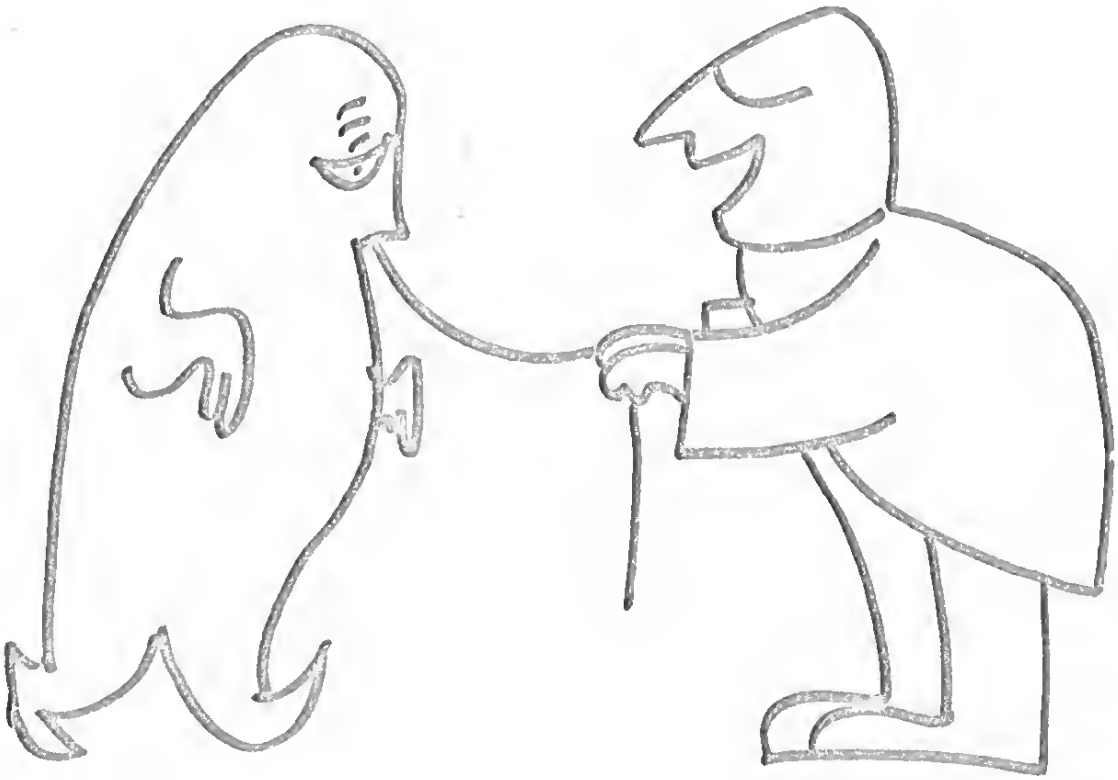


Chart No. 12 The puppeteer.

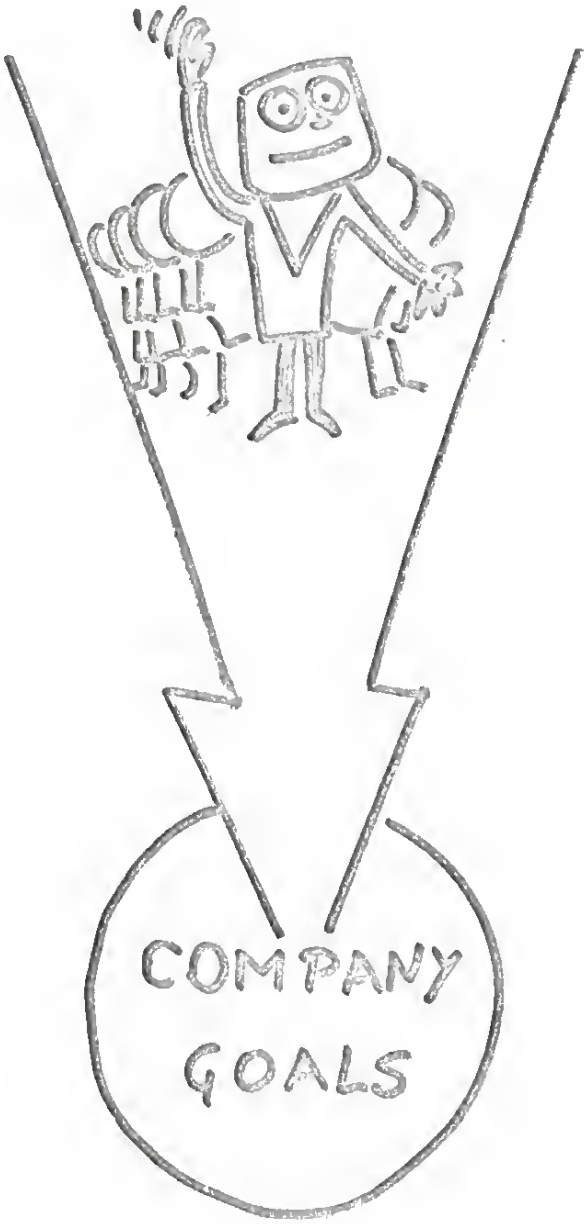


Chart No. 13 This way to company goals.

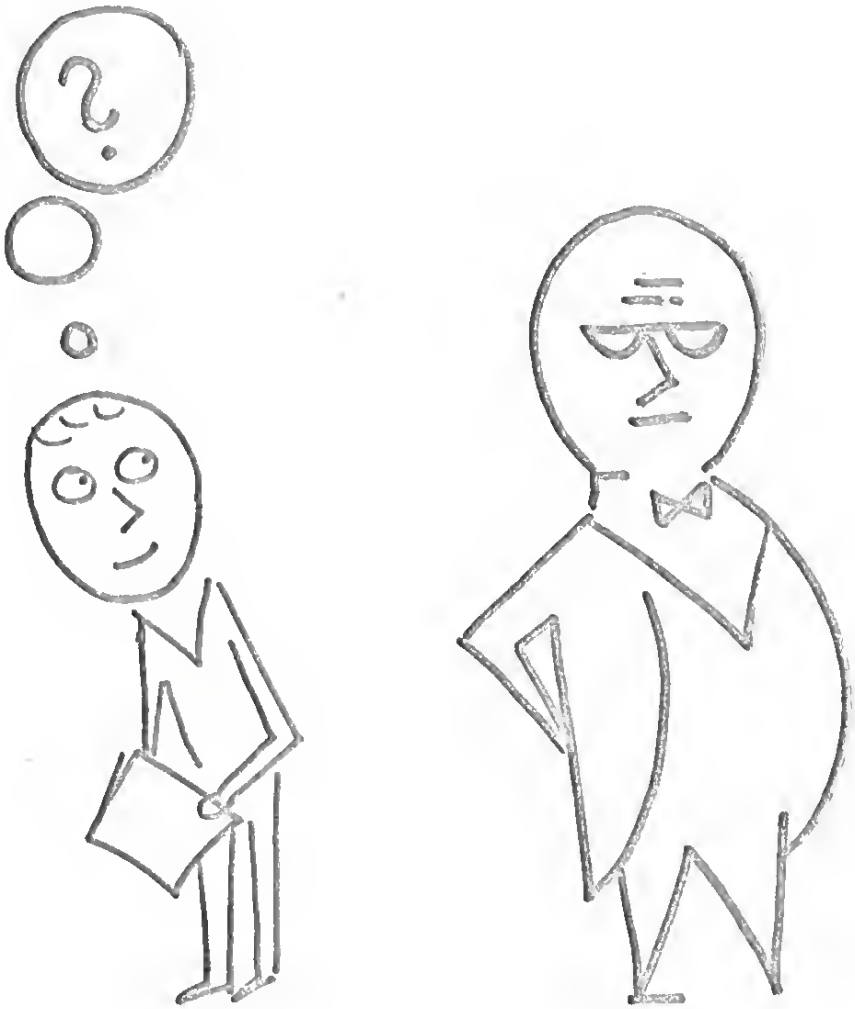


Chart No. 14 The highly esteemed supervisor.

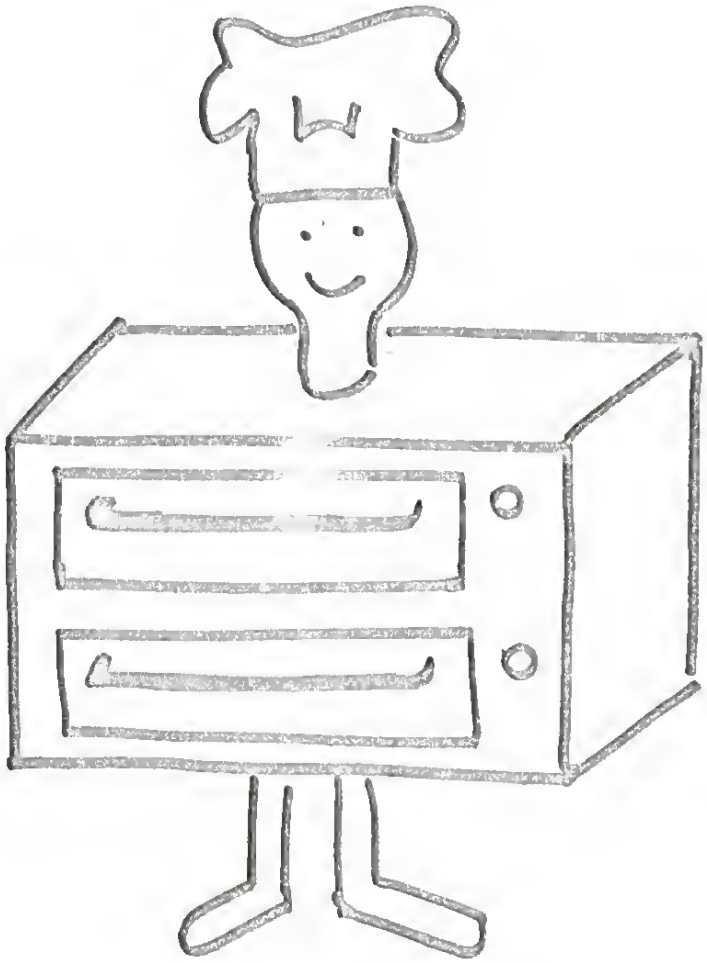


Chart No. 15 The walking oven.

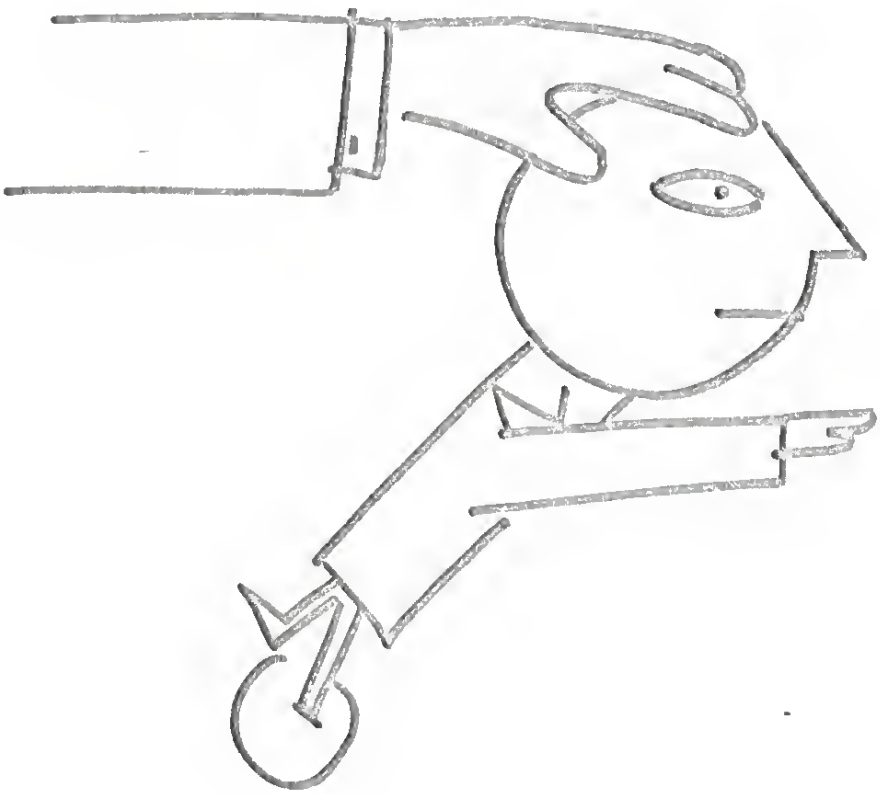


Chart No. 16 "You can do it, Charlie."

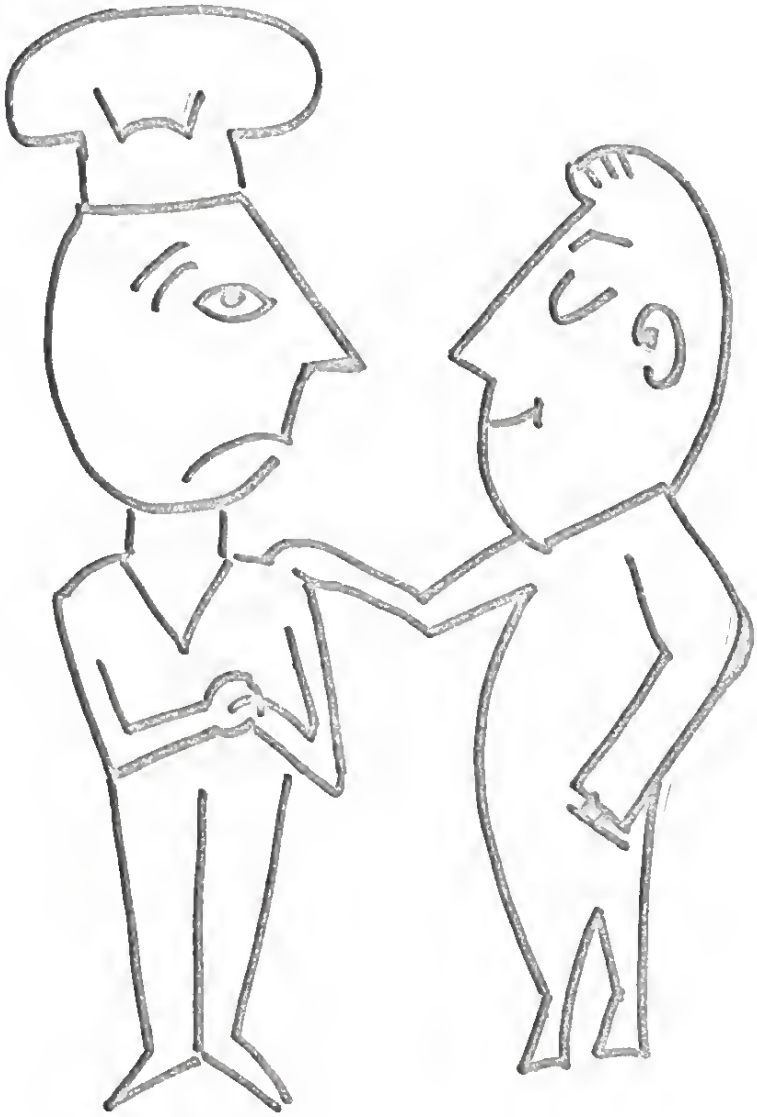


Chart No. 17 Try again.

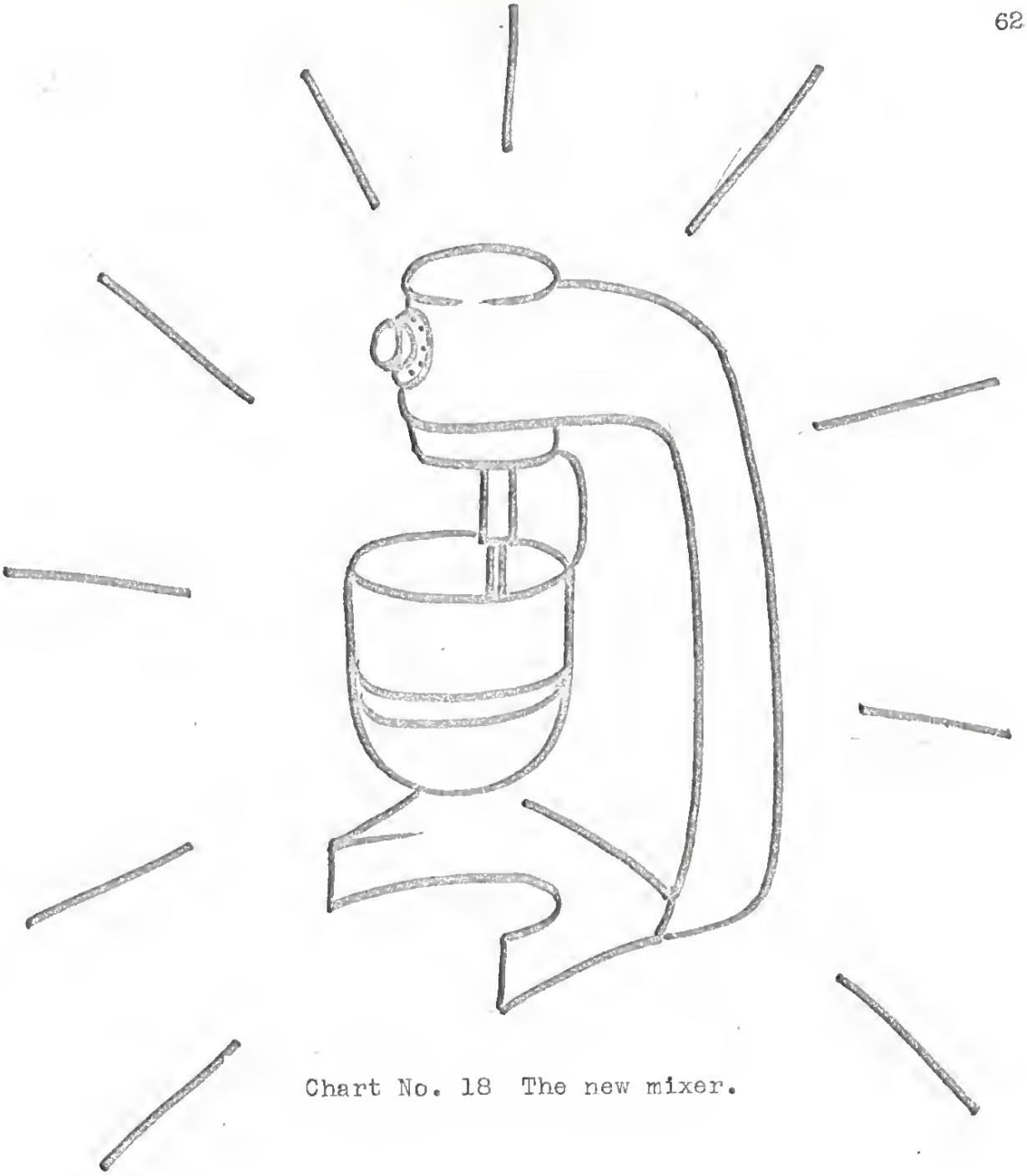


Chart No. 18 The new mixer.

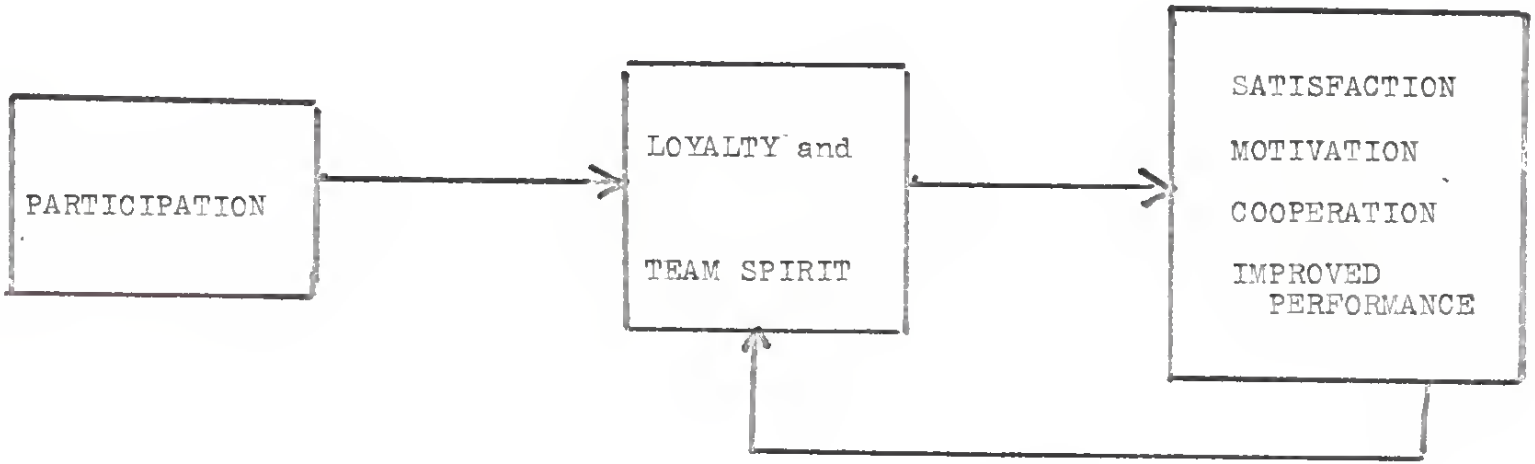


Chart No. 19 Human resources model A.

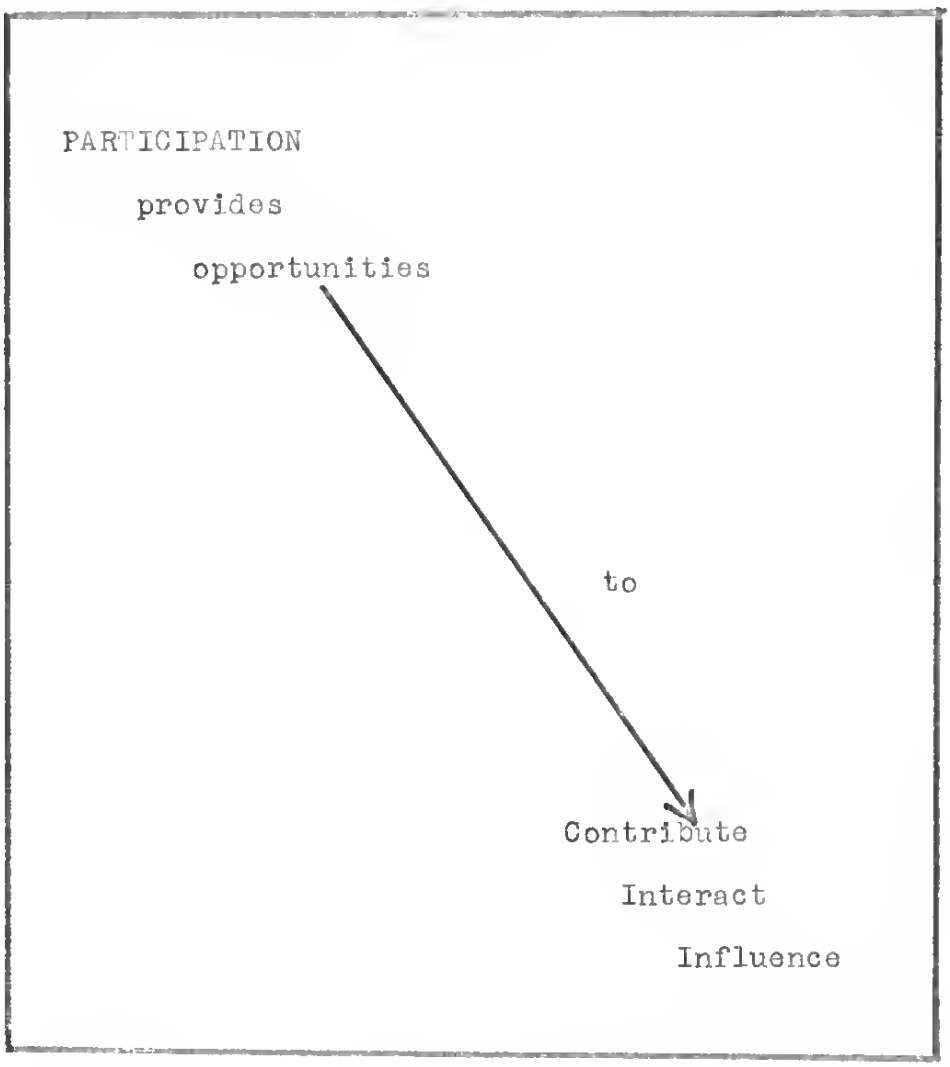


Chart No. 20 Participation model.

Chart No. 21 Suggestion box.

Chart No. 22 The loner.

Chart No. 23 The one-man show.

Chart No.24 " I want to feel important."

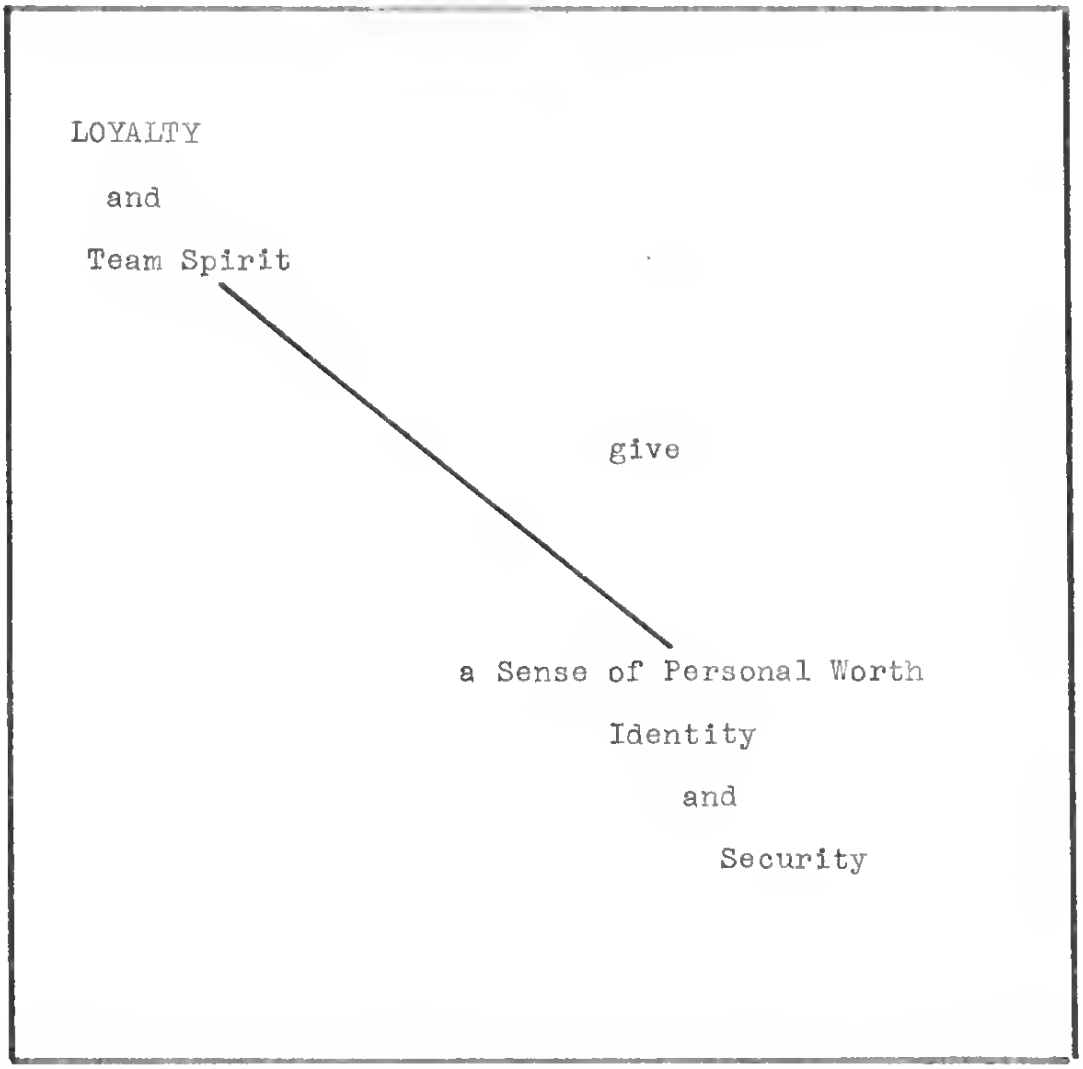
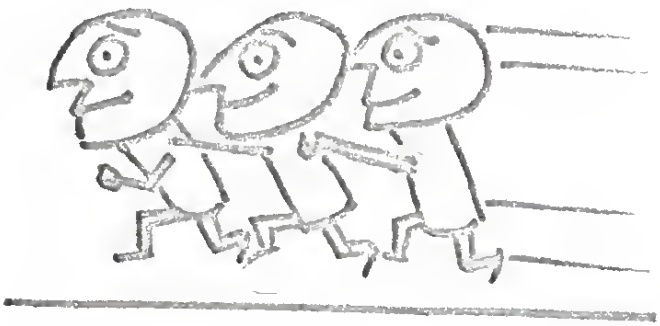


Chart No. 25 Loyalty and team spirit.

Low Mileage -

Not on team



High Mileage -

on team

Chart No. 26 Mileage on a team.

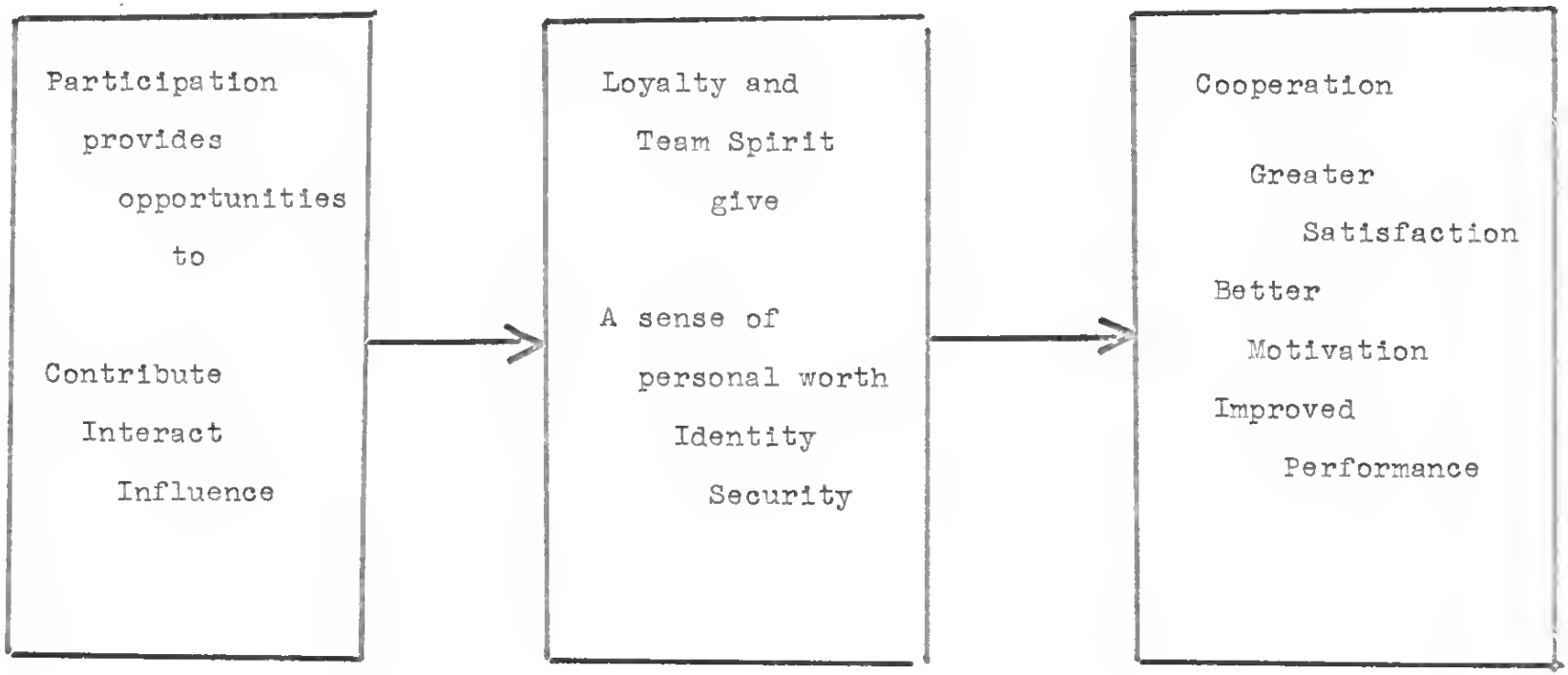


Chart No. 27 Human resources model B.

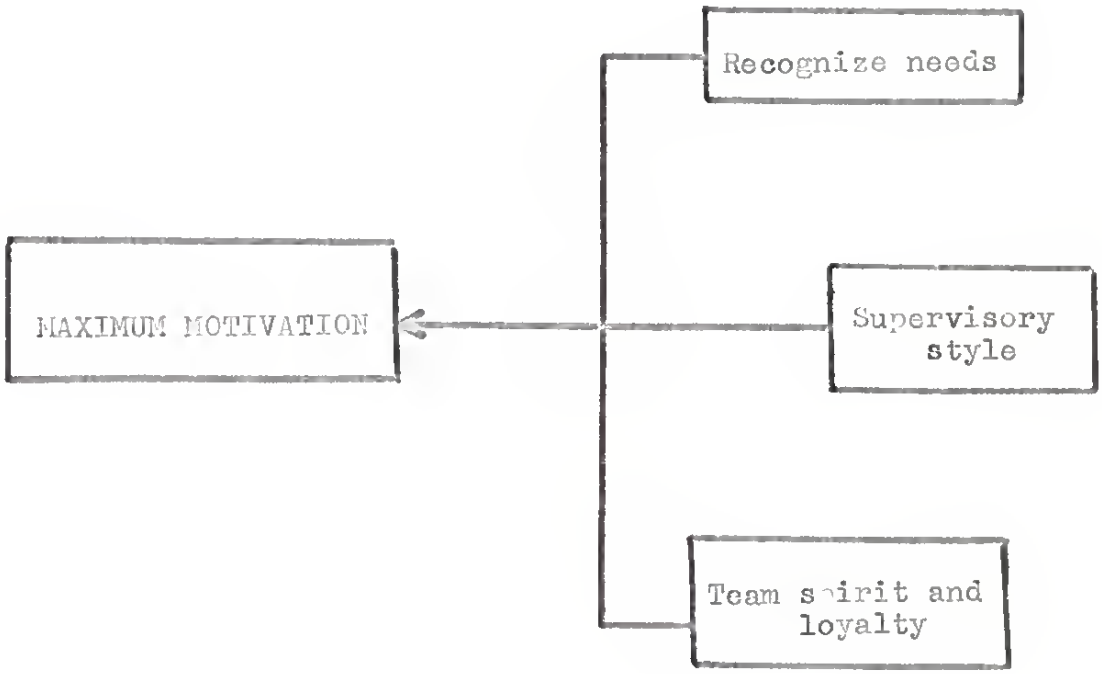


Chart No. 28 Factors influencing maximum motivation.

TEACHING GUIDE ON MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES FOR NON-PROFESSIONAL FOOD SERVICE SUPERVISORS

by

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B. S. University of the Philippines, 1958

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Institutional Management

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Manhattan, Kansas

1968

Lack of productivity standards, high rate of labor turnover with its accompanying high cost, and increased minimum wages required by law, pressure food service managers to achieve higher worker output. Motivating employees to increase productivity can best be accomplished by food service supervisors because they are in constant, direct contact with employees. They are in a position to create a work climate that fosters job satisfaction and improved performance.

Because of the shortage of dietitians, supervisory positions in the food service industry are being filled by persons who have not necessarily had formal education. These non-professional supervisors can function more effectively when instructed in the techniques of supervision. Essential for supervision of employees is a knowledge of motivation as related to productivity and efficiency.

The purpose of this report was to develop a teaching motivation on employees for non-professional food service supervisors. Such a guide would be incorporated into an in-service training program.

Essential for motivating personnel is an understanding of the nature of motivation, its components, levels of aspiration, and priority of needs. The review of current literature pointed out the function of supervisory style, recognition of job-related needs, and integration of the informal group into the formal organizational structure as motivation factors.

The guide for a motivation seminar consists of five lessons: meaning of motivation, job-related motivational needs, supervisory style, group loyalty and team spirit, and a review of factors that influence motivation. Each lesson was planned for 40 minutes and consisted of a

lecture followed by class participation in group discussion, role playing, or a short quiz. Lesson plans developed include objectives, approach, goneralizations, teaching points, and illustrative material derived from readings, and interviews made of supervisors.