

WORK VALUES OF FEMALE, NONSUPERVISORY
HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE PERSONNEL

by

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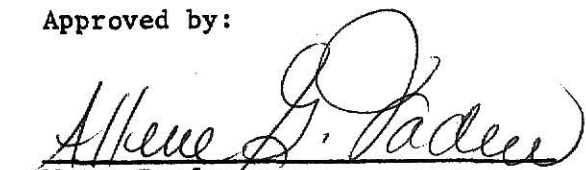
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INTRODUCTION

The hospital dietary department reflects two fast growing service industries, foodservice and health care (1,2). These industries employ a large portion of unskilled labor and are characterized by high turnover, absenteeism and low productivity (3). Hospitals are widely distributed geographically, from locations in small rural communities to large metropolitan areas.

The objectives sought in work (work values) are important to those involved with personnel in health care and foodservice, as well as other industries (4). Value measurements have been used in vocational guidance and to a limited extent in industry. Zytowski (5) defined work values as the set of concepts which mediate between the person's affective orientation and classes of external objects offering similar satisfactions. Super (4) identified work values as being important to educators and personnel workers to attend to motivation in ways relevant to work performance.

Growth in the service industries has not led to an increase of research in these industries. Pribyl (6) reported the relationship of occupation levels and job satisfaction has been studied with either production or managerial workers in industrial and commercial settings. Few investigations have been concerned with these relationships within organizations such as churches, voluntary associations, medical centers and educational institutions. Morgan (7) studied non-supervisory foodservice workers because attitudinal information was not found in the literature. He commented that restaurant owners and managers use information from studies of personnel behavior in other industries even though these studies may not be relevant for many of the workers employed in the foodservice industry.

Do differing locales or would other demographic variables affect the objectives the employee expects from his work? This study focused on work values of female non-supervisory hospital foodservice personnel using an instrument adapted from Kilpatrick's (8) Study of Occupational Values. The study sample was drawn from small hospitals located in urban and rural areas. Males were excluded to provide a more homogeneous sample; also differing cultural expectations for men and women concerning work were believed to be intervening variables that would affect the results.

The specific objectives were (a) to refine and improve measures of occupational values which are relevant to foodservice workers; (b) to study the relative strengths of various occupational values among female non-supervisory hospital foodservice workers; and (c) to examine differences in occupational values among groups classified by size of hometown, location of hospital, and age of respondent. Literature reviewed relevant to the study included the following topics: manpower in the hospital and foodservice industries, foodservice manpower, hospital manpower, work, work values, and value measurement.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Manpower in Hospitals

Health ranks as the third largest industry in the United States based on total dollars spent and the number of people employed. By the 1980's health care has been projected to be the United States' largest industry. Hospitals rank as the largest segment of the health care industry as they account for 38 per cent of total health care. Sixty to seventy per cent of hospital expenses are for salaries and wages as hospitals are labor intensive organizations (9).

In hospitals high turnover rates are common among the lower work levels which has led to serious manpower shortages in these jobs (10). Traditionally the hospital has relied on humanitarian rewards for workers and thus, many hospitals have kept pay scales low especially for service occupations (2). With the threat of increasing unionization, wages and benefits have increased yet turnover in these jobs remains high (11).

Knight (12) reported that service workers in hospitals have a lack of dignity associated with their positions and proposed making jobs more attractive by improving job titles, training, and promotions to help reduce the acute shortage of unskilled labor. Dane (10) reported that perception gaps can cause dissatisfaction; the role conception of others will influence an individual's self conception and alter one's view of the job. He contended turnover is related more to the workers' self images than to lack of wages. Other reasons for turnover were lack of communication, training, and no direct relationship between need satisfaction derived from work and job continuance.

Manpower in the Foodservice Industry

In 1965, one out of every four meals was eaten away from home; in 1974 one out of three was eaten out, and the National Restaurant Association estimates that by 1980, the figure will be one in every two meals (13). In 1973, the foodservice industry totaled \$53 million in sales, up from \$24.9 million in 1964. Some institutional areas of the foodservice market have contributed to this growth. School foodservice has exhibited a growth from \$709.4 million in 1964 to \$1,349.3 million in 1973. Hospitals and nursing homes grew from \$174.5 million in sales in 1964 to \$299.8 million in 1973, a growth rate of 71 per cent (14). Costs also have increased in the industry. For example, in 1974 health care foodservices labor costs increased 9.4 per cent and food cost increased 1.4 per cent (14).

To meet this sharp increase in publicly purchased and institutional meals it was estimated that 250,000 total more workers will be needed per year in the 1970's. Seventy-four per cent of the new positions were for unskilled or non-technical positions (15). The foodservice industry is attracting few younger people into the field and those who enter consider the work temporary which is reflected in high turnover rates (16). For example, in April, 1968, seven per cent of the restaurant work force voluntarily quit which is more than three times that reported for manufacturing industries (17). In national employment a six per cent turnover is reported but the entry-level foodservice worker positions have a turnover rate of 200 to 300 per cent. A paradox of the foodservice industry is that in times of high unemployment it is difficult to employ qualified personnel for entry level jobs (18). Avery (19) stated that labor is a

major uncontrolled factor in hospital foodservice because of low productivity and resultant high labor costs.

The foodservice industry has had a long standing problem of an undesirable image. Jobs such as dishwasher, waiter, and even cook are considered unimportant. Perhaps the origin of this problem is related to the tendency in America to downgrade service oriented occupations. Also, low wages and lack of career ladders are factors that have contributed to an undesirable image of foodservice jobs (17). In spite of a tendency to downgrade service occupations production in the United States economy has tended to shift from goods to services (15).

Labor Turnover

At the 1974 American Society for Hospital Food Service Administrators educational conference (20) Hotchkiss cited the lack of career opportunities within foodservice operations as a prime contributor to high personnel turnover. Banks (16) proposed a visible career ladder, restructuring of jobs, and educational support services to reduce turnover which lowers productivity and increases costs. Many people think of positions in foodservice as jobs and not as potential careers. In terms of manpower needs in the industry, Banks identified a need for more permanent workers, for people who can work on a sustained production level, and for a way to keep entry level employees on the job.

Knickrehm and Wertz (21) studied hospital foodservice employees to determine if any relationship existed between factors in applicants' backgrounds and their job tenure. A long term employee was defined as one who had been on the job longer than six months. Relationships were found between job tenure and age, marital status, and body build. More widowed

employees remained on the job past six months; employees who were forty-six years or older at the time of hiring had a longer job tenure than other groups. Overweight applicants were more likely to have a longer job tenure. Other variables, time on the last job, foodservice experience, and number of children, were independent of job tenure. The study indicated that long- and short-term dietary employees cannot be identified by examining their personal history characteristics. They concluded that if personal characteristics cannot be related to job tenure, then other situational factors such as type and degree of supervision, personnel policies, and employee training might play a more important role in employee turnover.

Gray and Donaldson (22) found that the separation rate for part-time civil service hospital foodservice employees was 30 per cent, and full-time civil service employees 18 per cent. Part-time, non-civil service employees, who were mostly students, had a separation rate of 80 per cent. Harwood and Brown (23) reported that dietary departments who were most concerned with indoctrination, orientation, and training programs had the lowest rates of avoidable turnover. There appeared to be a positive relationship between the quality of the program and job satisfaction. No significant relationship was found between turnover rate and hospital bed size.

Pelto and Sweatt (24) reported that the largest turnover in hospital dietary departments in the state of Washington occurred in the sixteen to nineteen year old age group. The greatest number of terminations occurred with employees who had been employed three months but less than six months; the next greatest turnover occurred in the group employed one to two years. Groups with no experience had the highest turnover rate even though the group with previous experience had a turnover rate almost as

great. The foodservice positions with the greatest turnover were tray preparation and patient service; the next highest turnover rates were in cleaning, dishwashing, and pot washing positions. In hospitals where formal training and indoctrination programs existed turnover rates were lower. Pelto and Sweatt believed improved methods of training and induction of new employees might contribute to effective reduction of turnover.

An orientation program was developed and personal goals of non-management employees were ranked in a study concerned with possible solutions of high labor turnover in nutrition and dietetic departments at the University of Missouri Medical Center. Puls et al. (25) suggested that a major reason for the excessive labor turnover in the foodservice industry is the neglect of many managers to recognize the potential benefits of placing human needs in a high priority. Full-time workers who participated in an orientation program had higher job satisfaction and lower turnover rates. Employees ranked their personal goals of social service and recognition highest; self-actualization, belongingness, and economic need second; and lastly, security needs (25).

A study of hospital dietetic departments in Missouri attempted to isolate factors that might cause high labor turnover. Griffith, Moore, and Krause (26) found that low turnover employees were slightly older, had longer lengths of employment on both their present and previous job, and slightly lower levels of education. Dietetic employees in low turnover hospitals were trained more extensively than those in high turnover hospitals. Wages and benefits were similar in all hospitals but hospitals in the higher turnover group tended to offer better benefits. Griffith hypothesized that training is effective in reducing turnover because recognition needs are satisfied. While wages, fringe benefits, and work

conditions might not cause labor turnover, these factors influence workers' decisions to participate or not to participate in the organization. Labor turnover is a combination of both external factors--economic and working conditions--and internal factors--organizational climate and opportunity for personal growth. She contended that while managers may not be able to alter the external factors they can be more attuned to internal factors and improve them.

Productivity in Foodservices

An efficiency rating of 40-50 per cent has been reported for foodservice workers. The last two decades have seen wages double yet productivity in foodservice has remained the same (27). Lane (27) said there is a tendency to adjust the amount of work to be done to a faster or slower tempo. Blaker (11) commented that foodservice administrators treat the symptoms of rising costs and decreasing productivity with more technology. Also, she noted hospital foodservices faced the same problems in 1972 as they did in 1969 and were still trying to solve them in the same way.

The need to increase productivity has been stressed not only in foodservice organizations but for the entire United States economy. Reasons that productivity has fallen in the United States are a youthful labor force, increase of women workers, shift to a service economy, arms race and technology lag, emphasis on environmental improvement and organized labor practice. Service industries generally are less efficient; an added problem is the difficulty of measuring productivity in service areas (28).

Job Satisfaction

Avery (19) discussed the causes of job dissatisfaction for foodservice workers. Among causes listed were differences between what the worker

perceives the job to be and what it is, job inferiority, poor working conditions, boredom, work too hard, and lack of formal communication and recognition.

Shaffer (29) conducted an employee attitude survey in the dietary department at a large, urban medical center. She commented that dietitians spend much time and money gaining technical knowledge, yet know little about what actually is on the minds of their employees. Shaffer contended that what employees think of their superiors and the organization can affect both quality and quantity of work. Employee attitudes were negative towards wages and promotions, yet positive toward the adequacy of physical facilities. She asked if perhaps dietitians tend to stress material things and forget that a major job responsibility is employee development.

Morgan (7) studied restaurant managers' and workers' attitudes in a northern industrial city and a southern resort city to determine if a relationship existed between workers' attitudes and managers' ability to predict them. Despite regional differences the study suggested that restaurant workers are a homogeneous group in attitudinal norms with minor differences in age, sex, and racial subgroups. The workers held negative attitudes toward wage and fringe benefits in foodservice; were undecided about the work environment and opportunities for advancement; and were positive about training opportunities and improving productivity. Most of the workers believed that the foodservice industry was a secure place to work, offered a good future, and possessed a positive image. A significant number of managers were unable to predict the attitudes of workers. He concluded that this demonstrated a need for restaurant managers to be concerned with workers' attitudes and that studies on personnel behaviors from other

industries may not hold for restaurant workers since their backgrounds and needs are different.

Patterson (30) studied job characteristics among eighty-two unskilled foodservice workers in a large urban hospital. The instrument used was the Job Description Index (31). Results indicated that the foodservice workers were less satisfied when compared with other subjects in similar education, tenure, and income categories. The least satisfied employees were younger and better educated; single employees were found to be younger, more educated, and less satisfied than married workers; and female employees were younger, better educated, and less satisfied than male employees. Higher job satisfaction significantly correlated with lower absenteeism. Also, older and more tenured employees were more satisfied with the job than younger less tenured.

Work

Work is concerned with all those activities a person is obliged to undertake in earning a living (32). Anderson (33) defined work as only that activity by which something is produced or effected according to intention, plan, or purpose. It influences diverse aspects of an individual's life; e.g., community status may be based on esteem for one's job. Depending on how a person performs his work, money rewards and power, and certain occupational roles may accrue (34).

Work as an economic activity for a purpose does not mean today what it once did. People who ask why others work have explained it as a religious ethic (33). The Greeks and Romans held work to be for slaves as the elite never worked because it was identified with the masses (35). The Hebrews considered work a painful drudgery that man was condemned to by sin (36).

Early Christians regarded work as a punishment for Adam's original sin, yet work had a positive value in that what was earned could be shared with the less fortunate. Calvin and Luther advanced the idea that work was of service to God and that success in work meant one's work was pleasing to God (35). Luther believed work was the base and key to life, natural to fallen man, and was the religious path to salvation. Calvin believed it was God's will that everyone must work. The rewards of labor were to be reinvested to allow for and encourage more work. Work was strong-willed, austere, and untiring and would lead to a good and pious life free of guilt (36). Saint Paul, Saint Benedict and Calvin all contributed to the ethic of work being dignified (37).

Another concept was of work being an incentive for the development of man. The idea evolved in the Renaissance that by work, man could become the creator and accomplish anything. Man was the tool user not the tool. In the nineteenth century Tolstoy, Marx, and Carlyle, among others, revolted against the Calvin and Luther concept of work and accepted the Renaissance view of work (36).

Work and the United States

Early in the United States history, visitors to the country noticed a preoccupation with work. The folk heroes, Paul Bunyan, Casey Jones, and John Henry, are stories of mighty workers and their work prowess (8). Work has been important in the United States although the actual work ethic has been modified over time. The work ethic presents the idea of business values, wealth being acceptable if worked for, and idleness a sin (37).

In colonial times work was necessary for survival yet the Calvinistic idea of work made it more acceptable. The pre-Civil War and Civil War eras

developed an industrial work force and provided opportunities to work and accumulate wealth; however, the work grew to be routine and tedious. The human factor of work was considered in the 1930's (32). In the 1940's work was identified with patriotism which reinforced the work ethic (37). Work was concerned with security and satisfaction with both material goods and one's job (32).

Concern in the 1970's has been raised that the work ethic has diminished yet others believe a modified work ethic is still in effect (37). The traditional concept that hard work is a virtue and duty that older workers adhere to may not always be applicable to the younger workers (19).

Before the 1930's management was concerned with the physical surroundings of the work environment. After the 1930's concern was for the thoughts, feelings, and attitudes of men at work. Increasing concern about work attitudes was due to more attention to individual feelings, to growth in labor unionism and increased awareness of managers that jobs were changing and greater responsibility was wanted by workers (35).

The Importance of Work

The importance of work in an individual's life has been examined. Dubin (38) studied work as a central life interest of industrial workers. Attention was focused on work and the work place to determine its standing as a central interest. Only one out of four urban industrial workers was work oriented and saw work as a means to an end. Dubin found there was not a total commitment to work nor was it a central life interest.

Friedlander (39) also studied the importance of work versus nonwork as a source of satisfaction among groups stratified by occupation and social status. There were differences in the work value systems between white and

blue collar workers. White collar workers ranked the values in the following order: work content, work context, and church, education and recreation. Blue collar workers ranked work context first; work content second; and church, education, and recreation, third. The status groups only showed differences when the occupational group was taken into account. He concluded that work and the work environment provided an opportunity for satisfying interaction as opposed to non-work factors and that it held for the individual an opportunity to promote an effective and competent interaction with the environment.

Rural and Urban Workers

Strauss and Sayles (40) reported that studies done in the United States on rural and urban blue collar workers showed the workers reacted differently to various degrees of job challenge. Commenting on this contrast they theorized that perhaps the Protestant ethic of work and achievement were more central to rural backgrounds.

In their study of 470 male blue collar workers Lawrence and Turner (41) found an unexpected relationship between job satisfaction, job attributes, and cultural settings. Requisite Task Attributes (RTA) for jobs were measured in terms of variety, autonomy, interaction (required and optional), knowledge and skill, and responsibility. The RTA Index represents a weighted total of all six of the requisite task attributes. The various measures of task attributes were closely related to each other, in the sense that a job with a high (or low) score on any one attribute tended to reflect high (or low) scores on most of the other attributes as well. They observed that city, predominantly Catholic workers had more job satisfaction on low RTA jobs but town, Protestant

workers were more satisfied with high RTA jobs. In attempting to explain the difference between town and city workers, Lawrence and Turner hypothesized culturally determined patterns of religious beliefs were determinants. The religious belief was defined as the whole culturally determined way of thinking that leads to higher values being placed on certain activities than on others.

In an attempt to resolve the inconsistency in research between job satisfaction and job performance, Katzell, Barrett, and Parker (42) theorized a general model of the work situation with inputs of workers' characteristics and performance. A company with warehouses located over the United States was the site of the study. Performance measures, both quality and quantity, were selected and situational characteristics such as work force size and city size also were observed. Results showed that quantity and profitability measures were lower in warehouses that had a high degree of urbanization; i.e., higher wage rates, larger size, larger communities, unionization and a large percentage of male employees. Low urbanization warehouses, small community population, fewer employees, lower wages, non-unionized, and fewer male employees showed superior performance and higher overall job satisfaction. The degree of urbanization was inversely associated with satisfaction and performance. They speculated that the variations may have come from the differing employee needs and expectations within the environment.

Hulin (43) replicated and extended Katzell's study. His research was done with a large merchandising company which had catalog outlets located throughout the country. The catalog outlets' employees, female clerical workers, constituted the geographically random sample. Situational characteristics measured were the general economic situation of the

community, job interest values, and general values. Performance and satisfaction variables were studied. Hulin found that the less attractive the community was in terms of such factors as slums or property, the more satisfied workers were with their jobs. He suggested two possible reasons: (a) workers establish a frame of reference against which they evaluate their present position and (b) the community situation defines the alternatives available to the worker.

Blood and Hulin (44) re-evaluated Smith's (31) data on blue and white collar workers in twenty-one different plants. They theorized that blue collar workers in rural areas would be integrated with middle class norms; and in urban areas, the workers would be alienated from the middle class norms which foster adherence to the Protestant ethic. Results demonstrated that blue collar workers living in communities which fostered alienation structured their jobs and lives differently than workers where adherence to middle class norms was expected.

Hulin and Blood (45) criticized researchers who espoused job enlargement theories but who had failed to account for the cultural differences of workers. They felt that early studies which identified a need for job enlargement did not have good experimental design. A model was proposed that took into account the type of worker and plant location. They explained that blue collar workers in small towns would not have a group for norms and would need to blend in; whereas urban area blue collar workers could establish their own work group. Some concern was expressed that socio-economic background would affect the worker.

Wild and Kempner (46) examined community characteristics and job attitudes of 2,543 female manual workers in the United Kingdom. Evidence from the study suggested that both population and population density were

positively associated with attitudes toward recognition and negatively associated toward overall job satisfaction. They concluded that there was a relationship between population characteristics and job attitudes. Their data supported some, but not all of the findings of Turner and Lawrence (41) and Katzell, Barrett, and Parker (42).

Women and Work

Nearly one half of the women in the United States between the ages of eighteen and sixty-four were engaged in paid employment in 1971 (47). Of the more than thirty-three million women in the labor force (48), according to Anderson and Tersine (49) approximately seventy-five per cent were concentrated at the bottom of the employment hierarchy. These jobs were primarily routine clerical and sales jobs; factory work; household, cleaning, service work; and hospital service work (49). Recent reports indicate the five largest occupational groupings for women were secretaries, sales clerks in retail jobs, bookkeepers, public elementary school teachers, and waitresses, which were responsible for employment of 25.4 per cent of the women workers (50).

In 1968, three million full-time women workers were in sales, service, and private household work while another 2.4 million were in operative positions. Wages for these workers were low, ranging from \$1,523 to \$3,991. The proportion of women in unskilled or non-technical positions has increased. In 1940, forty per cent of all service workers were women compared to 1969, when they made up fifty-nine per cent of the service section labor force (51). Service workers represented the second largest group of employed women in 1968. One third of the women employed in the service sector were in the restaurant industry. Other large groups of women

service workers were health care-related attendants and practical nurses (52).

The average woman worker in 1920 was twenty-eight, single, and a factory worker or clerk. The woman in 1972 who worked was older than her earlier counterpart--thirty-eight, married, and employed in a variety of occupations (48).

According to the Women's Bureau (52), the two age groups of women most likely to work were eighteen to twenty-four years old and thirty-five to fifty-four years old. Fifty-eight per cent of all women workers were married; 23 per cent, single; 19 per cent, widowed, divorced, or separated. Seventy per cent of all women workers had a high school education. One-eighth were minorities, yet minority women had a higher labor force participation than white women (48).

The presence of young children in a family apparently directly affects the mother's labor force participation. A woman typically enters the work force after schooling is complete, works a few years then leaves the labor force when she marries or has her first child; yet very few leave the work force permanently. Although women who marry experience some breaks in employment, 1973 data indicate an increasing number of married women with and without children were remaining in the labor force (48).

The myth that women work for pin money is no longer valid (47). Nearly half of the women working in 1970 did so because of economic need. Their reasons were that they and their families needed the money to bring the family's living standard above poverty or to provide resources for rising costs of food, education for children, and health care. In over four million families in which the wife was employed, husbands earned less than \$5,000 in 1970 (53).

Other myths surround women as workers. One is that women workers are ill more often than male workers yet a public health survey showed little difference in absenteeism between males (5.2 days/year) and females (5.9 days/year). Another myth is that women have a substantially higher turnover rate yet in the manufacturing industries the rates for separations for men and women were 4.4 and 5.2 per 100 employees, respectively (47).

Work Values

Values

According to Katz (54), values are characteristic outer expressions and culturally influenced manifestations of needs; while needs are basic motivating forces. Values can be described in terms of the satisfying goal or desired state that is sought rather than in terms of the motivating device. They also represent feelings about outcomes or purposes such as the purpose or worth of an activity. Super and Bohn (55) defined values as the objectives one seeks to attain. The objectives are considered desirable and are sought in actions. Rosenberg (34) called values the things people are interested in and commented that occupational choices are made on the basis of values.

Sikula (56) contended that values represent wants or preferences and describe what individuals consider to be important. Values also were described as representing conditions, opinions, likes or dislikes for certain things and as being basic to people's striving and sacrifice. Sikula purported that value systems are sets of individual values that exist in a hierarchy that reveals degree of importance. Current research has related values and value systems to personal goals, interpersonal conflict, group and cultural change, managerial effectiveness, and

occupation and career choice. Values are assumed to be important determinants of individual, group, and organizational behavior because past perceptions form categories of information that take the form of values about events. These in turn affect future interpretations of objects and events. Values and value systems are important for several reasons:

(a) inferences can be made about objects without actually encountering the object; (b) perception and behavior can be directed by causing an individual to notice certain characteristics of an object and react to the object on this basis; and (c) a system of values constitutes a format for future thinking and behavioral responses (56).

Meddin (57) defined values as more abstract referents or classes of objects compared with attitudes that are more specific than values and directed toward relatively concrete referents or objects in the environment. Values and attitudes are linked to the same content area but attitudes are specific expressions of more general value premises. In the hierarchical continuum both constructs are arrayed on a dimension from specific to abstract. All values deal with abstract ideas, yet some are more abstract than others. Value-orientation is the highest order or most abstract value. Value orientations are general, pervasive, and form an undercurrent for the remainder of the individual's world view. Value orientations, while taken for granted, are behind every individual's way of life. On another continuum values are described as being at the opposite end from opinions. Each value orientation serves as an organizing principle for a number of values; each value organizes attitudes which in turn cause more opinions (57).

Values and attitudes also can be classified into the tripartite division of cognition, affective, and conation (57). Cognition is perceiving, reasoning, imagining and judging (58). Affective refers to the emotions and

the emotional side of life while conation is the action tendency. The third view of values is the normative-appetitive struggle. Normative order represents the oughts or obligations of life, while appetitive refers to the individual's own wants and appetite. Lack of fit may occur between the normative and appetitive causing conflicts (57).

Bass (59) noted that values played considerable roles when managers made efforts to optimize systems. He listed the predominant values in American society as activitism, optimism, equalitarianism, abundance, and pragmatism.

Values were defined by England, Dhingra, and Ayarual (60) as similar to ideology or philosophy, more ingrained and stable in nature than interests and less tied to any specific reference object. The research done in the area of general values has suggested that value measurement has potential relevance to understanding of behavior and also measuring attitudes at levels of values, ideology, and philosophy. Approaches to studying values have been as varied as the disciplines concerned with the topic--psychology, philosophy, and political science, among others. Approaches to values differ because of varying definitions, varying levels of abstraction, measurement techniques, and purposes. These approaches to studying values are on a continuum of normative to preferential. The normative approach refers to obligatory, moral topics; and the preferential approach emphasizes likings, needs, desires, and interests. The conceptual generality of values focuses on a dimension of very specific to highly abstract. Anthropologists concern themselves with highly abstract values (61) and more specific values are studied by researchers interested in particular phenomena. An example of the latter is Shartle, Brumbeck, and Rizzo's (62) study of values as related to newness, magnitude, and competition in organizations.

Definition of Work Values

Several investigators have defined work values. Earlier in this paper work values were defined as the set of concepts which mediates between the person's affective orientation and classes of external objects offering similar satisfactions (5). Super and Bohn (55) defined work values as the objectives sought in work behavior.

Zytowski (5) reported on the general concept of work values and commented that within one or a few work values an individual has the orientation to explore many specific occupations. He purported that a taxonomy of work values might serve as a framework for the description of work. Some concepts of work values have been used to explain an individual's level of job satisfaction as the extent to which his job satisfies his needs as well as forecasts his occupational entry.

Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings (8) studied occupational values because of their intrinsic human importance and what they reveal about the general nature of the American society. They commented that by knowing what characteristics the members of society wanted in their jobs, a great deal can be learned about attitudes toward other aspects of life. Robinson, Anthansious, and Head (63) reported that occupational values contain the same flavor as job satisfaction but deal with it from different standpoints. These standpoints are inner--other directed and achievement.

Work Value Studies

Kinnane and Gaubinger (64) studied the relationship between life and work values and found several correlations. Utilizing the Allport Vernon-Lindzey (65) conceptualization of various orientations of man, theoretical man desired achievement; economic man desired security, work condition, and

work associates; political man desired what he accrues from work; and social man desired social and achievement values. Aesthetic values were related to variety and independence and religious values, to social welfare (64).

The work values among different occupational categories within a 222-bed urban hospital were examined by Palola and Larson (66) by assessing expression of job importances. Five work groups were identified: office workers, paramedics, registered nurses, nursing auxiliaries, and unskilled workers (laundry, kitchen and housekeeping). The unskilled group valued identification with one's occupational group, self advancing opportunities available, identification with hospital, and concern for participation in a job that allowed certain community recognitions. They found that job satisfaction involved differing dimensions among occupational categories.

Grey (67) hypothesized there would be no difference in occupation values and needs among three occupational groups: teachers, certified public accountants, and mechanical engineers. He found that teachers had a high nurturance need and valued social reward; whereas, engineers had a high achievement need and accountants needed achievement and valued career-prestige values.

Kilpatrick and coworkers (8) were concerned with two questions: (a) What values and goals do present day Americans seek to realize in their occupations? (b) How do they perceive the federal government as an employer and how do they perceive its attractiveness as an employer? A part of the survey examined occupational values of a national stratified random sample drawn from federal and non-federal populations (N = 5,149). Robinson (63) purported that Kilpatrick had the most inclusive set of value statements about work available.

Results of the occupational value section were categorized by groups. Women, compared to men, tended to seek work more in terms of security than opportunity, to seek interpersonal relationships at work to a greater degree, and to view work as an escape from other activities. Men were more oriented toward opportunity, drive to get ahead, competitiveness, challenge, and autonomy. Most occupational values differed by educational level; those with higher occupational level desired positive occupational involvement, opportunity, desire to see results of one's work, development of special abilities, and challenging problems to solve. Money and "keeping up with the Jones's" were emphasized less with higher educational levels. College graduates desired social goals. Some values that did not vary with educational level were competitiveness, self-determination, and autonomy (8).

Work Values and Demographic Variables

Age. Singer and Stefflre (68) explored the age differences in job values and desires. Self-expression and independence were the most important job values for urban adult males; power and fame were the least important. Self-expression and an interesting job were the important work values for male adolescents; while leadership and esteem were valued the least. They concluded work values change as individuals become older.

Family background. Family background and its relation to work values was investigated by Kinnane and Pable (69) using eleventh grade white males. They found that security and economic-material values were related to emphasis in the family on money, luxury, and economic security. Social-artistic values were related to a combination of family influences. The degree of family cohesiveness affected values for work conditions and associates. Heuristic-creative values related to the degree of cultural

stimulation in the home. Achievement and prestige values were unrelated to upward social mobility; independence as a work value related negatively to adolescent independence.

Paine, Deutsch, and South (70) investigated work values and family backgrounds among male college undergraduates and concluded work values were associated with family backgrounds. Security need was high among those who had low family income, close family relationship with discipline, special activities, community activities and religion, and a number of close friends. Physical working conditions and work values were related to the security need, except where there was an emphasis in the home on material things and none on religious emphasis. The work value concerned with helping others was correlated with culture in the home. Prestige, responsibility, and independence were related to emphasis on social activities, independence, culture, and number of times the family moved. Family background was unrelated to the work value of creativity. Monetary work value was associated with the amount of discipline, amount of income, emphasis on community activities, the number of close friends, material things, and religion (70).

Status. In a study reported by Centers and Bugental (71), persons in high occupational job levels were more concerned with the intrinsic job values of interesting work, self-expression, and satisfaction than those in lower level jobs. Blue collar workers desired pay, security, and co-workers, or extrinsic job values. A comparison of job values by men and women revealed there were no differences in intrinsic versus extrinsic job values. Most females responded that good co-workers were important to them while men valued the chance to use their skill or talent. He concluded that differences existed in job motivations between occupation levels and job values. Implications drawn were that differing reward-value motivations

exist for different parts of the population and that supervision should differ on the basis of sex and occupational level (71).

Lyman (72) investigated socio-economic status and work values. Her study reported Centers and Bugental's (71) hypothesis that differences in occupational groups are reflections of differences in status.

In a study of low-status white collar workers in the Netherlands, Pennings (73) found that those workers with high promotion rates had intrinsic work value systems and those with low promotion rates had extrinsic work value systems. Exceptions to the findings were found in a plant located in a rural Calvinistic environment whose low-status white workers with low promotion rates had intrinsic value systems. He concluded that work value systems were an interaction of the culture of the individual's work place and his self.

In a study of value systems of different socio-economic classes Hyman (74) found that low position was related to lack of upward mobility which he related to the value system of the class. In the lower class value system the person does not want much success, knows he cannot get it, and does not want what it takes to achieve success. The lower class value system becomes a self-imposed barrier. The American ideology that important positions are achieved does not hold for the lower class as less value is placed on formal education. Women were found to be more conscious of differences in class, emphasize more education and vary more in values as class position changes. Values of the middle class group were closer to the prosperous class; and children's values were similar to parents, yet closer to adult women. The motivation to advance in economic structure also differed by class. The upper class desired career patterns that reflected personal interests and the lower class was concerned with economic considerations of career

patterns such as security. Occupational choices of the lower class were limited by the occupations open to them and by limited expectations. The lower class also had reduced aspirations because of perceptions of reality. He concluded that values are influenced by class history and current position.

Friedlander (75) studied intrinsic and extrinsic value systems among status and occupational groups. Work values of white collar and blue collar workers were not consistent when compared across status lines. Middle class blue collar workers' value systems defended their current status while middle class white collar workers' values reflected upward mobility. However, in the low status groups of both white and blue collar workers no differences were revealed in value systems.

Sex. Blai (76) reported that a high need for work to provide mastery-achievement was a value important to women. This work value spanned all demographic variables studied. The second most significant value was fulfilling social needs at work and thirdly, interesting activity. Independence was a mediocre need while dominance, recognition, and economic work values were the least important; yet these are the ones that have been emphasized most in studies of work values of men. Some variations in women's work values were evident in relation to age, marital status, socio-economic class, career patterns, employment status, field of work, and education. Regardless of age or socio-economic variable, women still ranked mastery-achievement as highest and economic values, dominance, and recognition in the lower half of the value ratings.

Work Values and Vocational Guidance

Work values and career choices of students have been the focus of a number of studies. Hammond (77) developed an instrument to measure the strength of certain motivations in determining vocational choices of college freshmen. Students enrolled in business curriculums had high materialistic scores, natural science majors rated high on technical motivations, and social science majors selected high humanitarian needs. She concluded that vocational choices were motivated by something other than occupational motivation.

Astin (78) also studied the work values of college freshmen and concluded that students' work values were related to their major. Glick (79) reported that the occupational aspirations of agricultural students were significantly related to occupational values. Factors such as father's occupation, academic standing, and class in college were not related to occupational aspirations.

Value and Attitude Measurement

Anastasi (80) stated that the strengths and direction of an individual's interests, attitudes, motives, and values are an important part of one's personality. Considerable overlapping among instruments measuring these items occurs; even though the instruments may be directed toward one measurement they cannot be rigidly classified as measuring one or the other. Kerlinger (81) purported that values have had little scientific study even though values and attitudes are a large part of a person's verbal output and are probable influential determiners of behavior. Compton and Hall (82) concurred that values had been subjected to limited scientific investigation.

Sikula (56) contended that few if any consistently reliable and valid value measuring devices had been developed.

Techniques for measuring general values include Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (80) which was designed to measure the relative strengths of six basic interests, motives, or evaluative attitudes and the Rokeach Value Survey (56). The Rokeach instrument focuses on two sets of values, each consisting of eighteen individual values, and utilizes a rank order technique (56). Zytowski (5) indicated there were several work value inventories but they had been constructed explicitly for purposes of prediction and counseling rather than to test hypotheses concerning work behavior.

The major types of attitude measurement devices include: (a) summative rating scales, (b) interval scales, and (c) cumulative scales (81). A summative rating is a set of attitude items that are considered approximately equal attitude value and to which the subject responds with degrees of agreement or disagreement; an example is the Likert scale. In Thurstone's equal appearing interval scale, each item is assigned a scale value which indicates the strength of the attitude. The cumulative or Guttman scale contains a small set of homogeneous items that are unidimensional. The cumulative scale measures one variable and one variable only (82).

Other techniques for attitude assessment include the Q-sort technique and semantic differential. The Q-sort is a sophisticated way of rank-ordering objects by sorting items into a specified number of piles. In the semantic differential the subject is asked to rate a given concept on a series of seven-point bipolar rating scales (83).

METHODOLOGY

Research Sites

Description of Hospitals

Nine small (100-200 beds), short-term general hospitals in Kansas and Missouri participated in the study, four located in urban areas and five in rural areas. In selecting hospitals an attempt was made to minimize organizational variables other than community size. It was necessary to select an additional rural hospital to have an approximate equal sample size of personnel from urban and rural areas. The variables considered were hospital bed size, management of the foodservice (contract or hospital managed), and affiliation (Table 1). None of the hospitals were unionized.

The five rural hospitals were located in four small towns in Kansas with populations ranging from 7,000 to 16,000. The bed sizes were from 100 beds to 190 beds. Of the five hospitals, one had contract foodservice management, three were religious-affiliated, and two were community hospitals.

The four urban hospitals were located in the metropolitan areas of Kansas City, Missouri and Kansas and Wichita, Kansas. One was religious-affiliated, two were community hospitals, and one, privately owned. Only one had contract foodservice management.

Definition of Urban and Rural Hospitals

An urban hospital was defined as one located in a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) (84). This is an area defined by the United States Census Bureau which is an integrated economic and social unit with a large population nucleus containing at least one central city with 50,000 or more inhabitants or two or more cities having contiguous boundaries and

Table 1: Description of hospitals

hospital ¹	community population	number of beds	affiliation	number of foodservice employees	management of foodservice
1	16,133	190	religious	38	contract
2	15,396	125	community	30	hospital
3	7,221	132	religious	22	hospital
4	14,127	100	community	19	hospital
5	15,396	120	religious	25	hospital
6	168,213	200	religious	60	contract
7	276,554	102	private	20	hospital
8	507,087	100	community	25	hospital
9	507,087	145	community	30	hospital

¹Hospitals 1-5 were designated as rural, 6-9 as urban.

a combined population of at least 50,000. The SMSA also includes the county the city is located in and any adjacent county that is integrated with the central city's county. A rural hospital was one located in a community of less than 20,000 inhabitants, and also was not included in a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. Population data was obtained from the 1970 United States Census (85).

Initial Contact

After the hospitals were selected, the investigator contacted the dietitian or foodservice administrator of each hospital by phone. The purpose and procedures of the study were discussed and a date established

for conducting the research. None refused to participate. It was requested that, if possible, a thirty-minute time period be arranged for the investigator to present the instrument to as many non-supervisory foodservice personnel in a group as possible. The investigator also offered to share a summary of the results with the foodservice administrator.

If necessary a follow-up phone call was made. A letter confirming the telephone conversation was mailed to all foodservice administrators reiterating the date and time of the scheduled meeting with the foodservice employees (Appendix A). A copy of the research instrument was included for the administrator's examination.

Instrument Development

The research instrument (Appendix B) was adapted from Kilpatrick et al. Study of Occupational Values (8). Kilpatrick and coworkers explored: (a) the values and goals present day Americans seek to realize in their occupations, (b) perceptions of the federal service for employment, and (c) attractiveness of government work compared with other employment. The study was a national sampling survey of occupational and other groups throughout the United States. Personal interviews were conducted with more than 5,000 people.

The thirty value statements (Table 2) that were a part of Kilpatrick's study comprised the instrument for this research. The ten-point agree-disagree scale used in the federal service study was modified to a four-point scale: strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree. It was felt that the discrimination on a ten-point scale would be too difficult and too time-consuming. A neutral point was deleted to force the employees to make a decision.

Table 2: Value statements

item number	item
1.	A person has a right to expect his work to be fun.
2.	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of luck.
3.	To me, a very important part of work is the opportunity to make friends.
4.	Work is a way of being of service to God.
5.	It would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation.
6.	The main satisfaction a person can get out of work is helping other people.
7.	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of knowing the right people.
8.	To me, it's important in an occupation for a person to be able to carry out his own ideas without interference.
9.	To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.
10.	I would like my family to be able to have most of the things my friends and neighbors have.
11.	Work helps you forget about your personal problems.
12.	Even if you dislike your work, you should do your best.
13.	To me, almost the only thing that matters about a job is the chance to do work that is worthwhile to society.
14.	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.
15.	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.
16.	Sometimes it may be right for a person to use friends in order to get ahead in his work.
17.	To me, gaining the increased respect of family and friends is one of the most important rewards of getting ahead in an occupation.
18.	Work is most satisfying when there are hard problems to solve.

Table 2: (cont.)

item number	item
19.	It is satisfying to direct the work of others.
20.	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.
21.	After you are making enough money to get along, then making more money in an occupation isn't very important.
22.	A person should constantly try to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life.
23.	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.
24.	I like the kind of work you can forget about after the work day is over.
25.	To me, it's important in an occupation that a person be able to see the results of his own work.
26.	To me, it's important to have the kind of work that gives me a chance to develop my own special abilities.
27.	Work is a good builder of character.
28.	Getting recognition for my own work is important to me.
29.	It is more important for a job to offer <u>opportunity</u> rather than <u>security</u> .
30.	It's important to do a better job than the next person.

In addition to the thirty value statements, the instrument included thirteen items related to demographic characteristics. Several had been mentioned in the literature as being relevant to work values: sex, age, education, and religion. Other information requested included: length of time lived in area, size of childhood community, length of time employed at institution, previous experience in foodservice, interruptions in work record, and present position. Some questions were asked for descriptive purposes while others were needed to study relationships between demographic variables and value statements.

A pilot study was conducted in a 100-bed hospital located in a medium size city (30,000 population). The instrument was completed by seventeen nonsupervisory foodservice employees. Analysis of these preliminary results indicated differences among the responses to value statements were related to age, sex, and religious affiliation. The demographic variables were revised based on the pretest to clarify response categories. Also additional variables added were work force information, area in which the participants worked, and frequency to church attendance.

The study was explained to the dietitians in the facility and they distributed instruments to the employees. To encourage honest responses, envelopes and a sealed container were supplied for returning the completed instrument. In evaluating the pilot study it was decided more unbiased responses might result if the study were explained by someone other than the employees' supervisor.

The decision was made to delimit the study to female employees to eliminate possible sex differences in responses due to differing cultural expectations concerning work for men and women. Since the overwhelming majority of employees were women, this decision excluded only a few

potential subjects. In each of the nine organizations selected for the study, all non-supervisory employees on duty, both male and female were asked to complete the instrument to prevent possible feelings of exclusion.

Instrument Administration

On the scheduled date, the investigator arrived at the institution approximately thirty minutes prior to the time for presenting the survey to meet with the director of foodservice and to answer any questions. In all but one instance, the director introduced the investigator to the employees and asked for their cooperation.

The instrument, an envelope, and pencil were distributed to the participants and an explanation of the survey was given (Appendix C). They were asked to give accurate and honest answers as well as to complete the entire instrument. It was explained that their supervisors would not see their answers as all information was confidential. To insure anonymity they were asked to place the completed instrument in the envelope provided and return it directly to the investigator. In the introductory comments, the group was shown a computer data card and printout to explain how the information would be tabulated and summarized. The participants were encouraged to ask questions to clarify any misunderstandings.

In two hospitals located in rural communities it was not possible for a time to be arranged for both introducing the study and administering the study. In these hospitals the investigator presented the instrument and gave the instructions to the employees as a group. They were instructed to complete them during a break and then place them in a sealed box which was picked up later and returned to the investigator.

Data Analysis

A factor analysis was done on the thirty items to determine if they could be meaningfully conceptualized by a small number of "components" or "source variables" which could account for their interrelationships. Factor analysis has three main applications: (a) exploratory uses, (b) confirmatory uses, and (c) measuring device uses. The most common use is for exploratory purposes, that of exploring and detecting patterns of variables with a view to the discovery of new concepts and possible reduction of data (87).

Coefficient alpha (88) was used to determine the reliability of the factor scores derived from the factor analysis; the same technique was used to estimate the reliability of Kilpatrick's (8) and Robinson's (63) groupings of the same items (Table 3). Coefficient alpha provides a standard method for estimating the reliability of attitude scales which contain no "right" or "wrong" answers but assess degree of agreement. It is based on internal consistency among the items composing a scale.

Kilpatrick et al. (8) sorted the items into related value clusters using a judgmental approach. These clusters were: (a) occupational involvement, (b) financial reward, (c) status, (d) personal relationships on the job, (e) occupational striving and competitiveness, (f) success, (g) altruistic social goals, (h) ego-centered view of one's work, (i) challenge and self-determination, (j) duty towards work, and (k) Protestant work ethic (Table 3).

Robinson (63) used Gurin's intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy (86) to classify the thirty statements into three intrinsic satisfactions:

Table 3: Scales developed by Kilpatrick and Robinson

Kilpatrick's scales (8)		Robinson's scales (63)	
scale	items	scale	items
I. occupational involvement	1,9,24	I. extrinsic	
II. financial reward	21,23	a. economic	9,10,21,23
III. status	10,17,28	b. non-economic	2,7,24
IV. personal relationships on the job	3,16,19	II. intrinsic	
V. occupational striving and competitiveness	5,20,29,30	a. achievement	5,14,16,18,20,22,25,26,28,29,30
VI. success	2,7,14	b. affiliation	3,6
VII. altruistic social goals	6,13	c. influence	8,17,19
VIII. ego-centered view of one's work	25,26	III. general values	1,4,11,12,13,15,27
IX. challenge and self-determination	8,18		
X. duty towards work	12,15,22		
XI. Protestant work ethic	4,11,27		

achievement, affiliation, and influence; and two extrinsic satisfactions: economic and non-economic.

Frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were compiled for each demographic variable and for responses to the value statements. One way analyses of variance were used for preliminary analyses of the relationships of demographic variables to the value items and scales (87). Multivariate analyses were undertaken to study the simultaneous effects of childhood community size, location of hospital, and age on each of the thirty value statements and on the factor scores (89). A three member panel (a professor of behavioral management, professor of institutional management and registered dietitian, and the author) interpreted the group means in terms of behavioral science concepts and theories.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Description of the Sample

One hundred and fifty-four foodservice employees completed the research instrument. Three were discarded because of improper completion and the males (N=21) were excluded from the analyses as noted earlier.

The resultant sample (N=130) was composed of seventy-four participants in the rural hospitals and fifty-six in urban hospitals (Table 4). A large majority of the sample was employed full-time (N=108). The respondents' age distribution reflected the national trend of women being employed until about age twenty-five, then leaving the work force temporarily for a period of about five years. Approximately half had been out of the work force at some time and the most frequent reason given was "to raise a family." Of those who had been out of the work force at some point, the time was longer than three years for over half of the respondents. Ninety-one per cent had lived in the same community for eleven or more years. Over half the subjects had been reared in small cities or rural communities.

Although the foodservice worker is sometimes considered uneducated, 16.1 per cent had some college background and another 61.5 per cent had attended high school. Sixty-three per cent were Protestant and most subjects attended church sometimes or as often as three to four times a month.

About 41 per cent had been employed from six months to three years in their present job and 43 per cent, more than five years. Over half had been employed previously in some foodservice related work. Most employees worked in an area of the kitchen and very few worked in patient care areas (3 per cent).

Table 4: Characteristics of study sample

characteristic	total sample (N = 130)		rural sample (N = 74)		urban sample (N = 56)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
location of hospital ¹						
rural area	74	56.9				
urban area	56	43.1				
basis of employment						
full-time	108	83.4	55	75.3	53	96.4
part-time	20	15.6	18	24.7	1	3.6
age						
15-18	10	7.7	9	12.2	1	1.8
19-24	27	20.8	17	23.0	10	17.9
25-30	11	8.5	3	4.1	8	14.3
31-50	43	33.1	18	24.3	25	44.6
51 or more	39	30.0	27	36.5	12	21.4
length of residence in current location						
0-4	23	17.8	11	14.9	12	21.8
5-10	15	11.6	8	10.8	7	12.7
11 or more	91	70.5	55	74.3	36	65.5
childhood community						
big city (over 150,000)	28	21.7	4	5.5	24	42.9
medium city (25,000-150,000)	8	6.2	5	6.8	3	5.4
small city (2,500-25,000)	46	35.7	33	45.2	13	23.2
rural community (less than 2,500)	47	36.4	31	42.5	16	28.6

¹Rural area--community of less than 20,000 and not included in a metropolitan area.
Urban area--metropolitan area with central city of 50,000 inhabitants or more (84).

Table 4: (cont.)

characteristic	total sample (N = 130)		rural sample (N = 74)		urban sample (N = 56)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
education						
grade school	29	22.3	16	21.6	13	23.2
high school	80	61.5	41	55.4	39	69.6
one or more years of college	15	11.5	13	17.6	2	3.6
college graduate	6	4.6	4	5.4	2	3.6
religious affiliation						
Catholic	34	26.8	29	39.7	5	9.3
Judaism	2	1.6	0	0.0	2	3.7
Protestant	80	63.0	43	58.9	37	68.5
other	11	8.7	1	1.4	10	18.5
church attendance						
3-4 times a month	49	38.0	33	44.6	16	29.1
sometimes	56	43.4	27	36.5	29	52.7
special occasions	10	7.8	5	6.8	5	9.1
never	14	10.9	9	12.2	5	9.1
length of employment in job						
6 months or less	18	13.8	11	14.9	7	12.5
6 months to 3 years	53	40.8	28	37.8	25	44.6
3-5 years	11	8.5	3	4.1	8	14.3
more than 5 years	48	36.9	32	43.2	16	28.6
prior job						
foodservice related	67	52.8	31	43.1	36	65.5
other	43	33.9	29	40.3	14	25.5
none	17	13.4	12	16.7	5	9.1

Table 4: (cont.)

characteristic	total sample (N = 130)		rural sample (N = 74)		urban sample (N = 56)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
out of work force						
no	58	47.9	29	43.3	29	53.7
yes, to attend school	4	3.3	1	1.5	3	5.6
yes, to raise a family	43	35.5	28	41.8	15	27.8
yes, other reasons	16	13.2	9	13.4	7	13.0
length out of work force						
6 months or less	7	11.5	2	5.9	5	18.5
6 months to 1 year	11	18.0	5	14.7	6	22.2
1-3 years	9	14.8	22	14.7	4	14.8
more than 3 years	34	55.7	22	64.7	12	44.4
area of work						
kitchen	82	63.6	45	61.6	37	66.1
cafeteria	18	14.0	9	12.3	9	16.1
floors	4	3.1	2	2.7	2	3.6
more than 1 area	25	19.4	17	23.3	8	14.3

A frequency distribution of the rural and urban samples showed some similarities and some differences (Table 4). Women in the 25-30 age group in the urban area were more likely to stay employed. Forty-two per cent of the urban population had grown up in a big city compared with 5.5 per cent of the rural women. About 40 per cent of the rural women were Catholic compared to 9.3 per cent of the urban sample.

Factor Analysis

The initial factor matrix was rotated according to the varimax criterion to simplify the factor structure. Items which possessed a loading of .40 or greater on a factor were regarded as contributing significantly to the composition of a factor (90). Nine factors were identified (Table 5):

I. Overall valuing of work and its benefits (nine items).

Work is viewed as an instrumentality for defining self. Work defines self by helping others, seeing the results of work, developing talents, making friends, as well as desiring work for its independence, character building ability, and service to God.

II. Drive and ambition (five items).

Work is seen as an aid for achieving higher status. This objective is achieved in work by getting to the top, hard work, directing others, and "keeping up with the Joneses."

III. Knowing the right people (three items).

Work is regarded as an instrumentality to advance beliefs that luck and knowing the right people will contribute to achieving success, not the amount of work.

Table 5: Factor analysis of value statements

item number	item	factor loading
I. <u>Overall valuing of work and its benefits</u> (17.3) ¹		
25	To me, it's important in an occupation that a person be able to see the results of his own work.	.73
6	The main satisfaction a person can get out of work is helping other people.	.71
26	To me, it's important to have the kind of work that gives me a chance to develop my own special abilities.	.66
3	To me, a very important part of work is the opportunity to make friends.	.62
12	Even if you dislike your work, you should do your best.	.60
27	Work is a good builder of character.	.57
17	To me, gaining the increased respect of family and friends is one of the most important rewards of getting ahead in an occupation.	.56
4	Work is a way of being of service to God.	.44
8	To me, it's important in an occupation for a person to be able to carry out his own ideas without interference.	.40
II. <u>Drive--ambition</u> (11.4)		
19	It is satisfying to direct the work of others.	.75
10	I would like my family to be able to have most of the things my friends and neighbors have.	.61
23	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.	.66
14	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.	.51
20	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.	.44

¹% of overall variance accounted for by each factor.

Table 5: (cont.)

item number	item	factor loading
III. <u>Knowing the right people</u> (7.3)		
2	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of luck.	.62
7	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of knowing the right people.	.51
27	Work is a good builder of character.	-.50
IV. <u>Work as a central life interest</u> (6.1)		
11	Work helps you forget about your personal problems.	.75
4	Work is a way of being of service to God.	.57
22	A person should constantly try to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life.	.50
29	It is more important for a job to offer <u>opportunity</u> rather than <u>security</u> .	.40
27	Work is a good builder of character.	.40
V. <u>Work as necessary evil</u> (5.4)		
24	I like the kind of work you can forget about after the work day is over.	.77
9	To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.	.46
23	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.	.41
18	Work is most satisfying when there are hard problems to solve.	-.57
VI. <u>Ego satisfaction</u> (4.7)		
1	A person has a right to expect his work to be fun.	.75
30	It's important to do a better job than the next person.	.59
28	Getting recognition for my own work is important to me.	.53

Table 5: (cont.)

item number	item	factor loading
VII. <u>Individualism</u> (4.1)		
16	Sometimes it may be right for a person to use friends in order to get ahead in his work.	.76
15	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.	.64
29	It is more important for a job to offer <u>opportunity</u> rather than <u>security</u> .	.47
VIII. <u>Social idealism</u> (3.9)		
21	After you are making enough money to get along, then making more money in an occupation isn't very important.	.77
13	To me, almost the only thing that matters about a job is the chance to do work that is worthwhile to society.	.58
15	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.	.40
20	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.	-.43
IX. <u>Self concept</u> (3.5)		
5	It would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation.	.82

IV. Work as a central life interest (five items).

Emphasis is placed on the instrumentality of work in achieving personal objectives on the job. People are able to forget about personal problems by working and want to succeed at work in spite of other things.

V. Work as a necessary evil (four items).

Work is viewed as an instrumentality to achieve non-work related objectives.

VI. Ego-satisfaction (three items).

Work is seen as a means to achieve intrinsic satisfaction because one enjoys one's job, gets recognition for it, and wants to do a better job.

VII. Individualism (three items).

This factor focuses on work as an individual effort on using friends to get ahead and on importance of opportunities at work.

VIII. Social idealism (four items).

This cluster portrays work as an instrument to do things for others, not necessarily for oneself.

IX. Self concept (one item).

The one item loaded on this factor concerns a person's self concept.

Reliability of Scales

Reliability of the scales from the factor analysis and those of Kilpatrick et al. (8) and Robinson (63) were analyzed using coefficient alpha. Seven of the eight factors identified in this study had values

above .40 which is considered the minimum acceptable level (88). Only three of Robinson's six categories and four of Kilpatrick's nine classifications yielded a coefficient alpha value above .40 (Table 6). Coefficient alpha demonstrated that scales constructed from the factor analysis were more reliable than those based on Robinson's or Kilpatrick's conceptualizations.

Relationship of Demographic Variables to Factor Scores and Value Statements

The frequencies and one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were computed for preliminary analysis and for identifying variables that might be used in further interpreting the data. A decision was made to combine the categories of big city and medium city, leaving three childhood community categories (big-medium city, small city, and rural). The one-way ANOVA showed that age was frequently related to item and factor scores, suggesting the desirability of controlling for this extraneous influence while investigating the variables of primary interest to the study.

Multivariate analyses of factor scores and individual value statements were conducted using the demographic variables of location of hospital (rural-urban), size of childhood community, and age. Because of the small sample size it was not possible to obtain interactions for location, childhood community, and age. Summary of the F-ratios for the analyses are included in Appendix D.

I. Overall valuing of work and its benefits.

No significant differences between any of the groups was indicated for Factor I (Table 7). However, one item from this factor showed a significant difference between those working in urban and rural

Table 6: Reliability of scales constructed from factor analysis and of Kilpatrick's (8) and Robinson's (63) categories of value statements

factors	item number	coefficient alpha
Scales from factor analysis		
I. overall valuing of work	3,4,6,8,12,17,25,26,27	.8027
II. drive--ambition	10,14,19,20,23	.6055
III. knowing the right people	2,7,27	.4383
IV. work as central life interest	4,11,22,27,29	.5688
V. work as necessary evil	9,18,23,24	.4506
VI. ego-satisfaction	1,28,30	.4978
VII. individualism	15,16,29	.4013
VIII. social idealism	13,15,20,21	.3731
IX. self-concept	5	
Kilpatrick's categories		
I. occupational involvement	1,9,24	.2570
II. financial involvement	21,23	.0367
III. status	10,17,28	.5208
IV. personal relationships on the job	3,16,19	-.1905
V. occupational striving and competitiveness	5,20,29,30	.4077
VI. success	2,7,14	.2959
VII. altruistic social goals	6,13	.4250
VIII. ego-centered view of one's work	25,26	.6137
IX. challenge and self determination	8,18	.0528
X. duty towards work	12,15,22	-.2041
XI. Protestant work ethic	4,11,27	.5453

Table 6: (cont.)

factors	item number	coefficient alpha
Robinson's categories		
I. extrinsic-economic	9,10,21,23	.4594
II. extrinsic-non-economic	2,7,24	.3028
III. intrinsic-achievement	5,14,16,18,20,22,25,26, 28,29,30	.6397
IV. intrinsic-affiliation	3,6	.2805
V. intrinsic-influence	8,17,19	.3201
VI. general values	1,4,11,12,13,15,27	.5370

Table 7: Multivariate analyses of effects of location of hospital, age, and childhood community size on factor scales and value statements¹

item or factor	variable	mean and std error ²	P
<u>I. Overall valuing of work</u>			
item 12	location of hospital		
	rural	3.416 ± .087	
	urban	3.170 ± .091	.037
item 25	age		
	15-18	3.583 ± .176	
	19-24	3.320 ± .109	
	25-30	2.976 ± .160	
	31-50	3.120 ± .083	
	51 or more	3.073 ± .097	.039
item 26	age		
	15-18	3.648 ± .191	
	19-24	3.283 ± .119	
	25-30	2.830 ± .174	
	31-50	3.059 ± .090	
	51 or more	2.948 ± .105	.005
<u>II. Drive--ambition</u>			
item 14	location of hospital		
	rural	2.897 ± .109	
	urban	2.568 ± .115	.028
	childhood community		
	big-medium city	3.005 ± .151	
	small city	2.551 ± .122	
	rural community	2.635 ± .126	.045

¹Data presented for significant findings only.

²Factor score = cumulative sum of scores comprising the factor.
Item score = 1, strongly disagree; 2, disagree; 3, agree; 4, strongly agree.

Table 7: (cont.)

item or factor	variable	mean and std error	P
III. <u>Knowing the right people</u>			
	age		
	15-18	4.681 ± .445	
	19-24	5.927 ± .275	
	25-30	6.116 ± .404	
	31-50	6.043 ± .210	
	51 or more	6.303 ± .245	.031
IV. <u>Work as central life interest</u>			
item 11			
	age		
	15-18	2.776 ± .214	
	19-24	2.310 ± .132	
	25-30	2.789 ± .194	
	31-50	2.707 ± .101	
	51 or more	3.003 ± .117	.002
item 22			
	location of hospital		
	rural	2.354 ± .105	
	urban	2.661 ± .111	.031
	age		
	15-18	2.760 ± .230	
	19-24	2.711 ± .142	
	25-30	1.887 ± .209	
	31-50	2.357 ± .109	
	51 or more	2.822 ± .126	.001
VII. <u>Individualism</u>			
item 16			
	age		
	15-18	1.719 ± .228	
	19-24	2.437 ± .141	
	25-30	2.286 ± .207	
	31-50	2.065 ± .107	
	51 or more	2.217 ± .125	.047

settings. The rural sample agreed more with the statement that you should do your best even if you dislike your work (item 12).

Significant differences were found among age groups on two items. The youngest group (15-18) was the most concerned with seeing the results of their work (item 25). The youngest workers also had the strongest desire for work that developed their special abilities (item 26). Table 7 gives the specific findings on the three items for which significant differences were found.

II. Drive and ambition.

No significant differences were found on Factor II scores among any of the groups. Of the individual items comprising Factor II, significant differences were found only on item 14 (Table 7). Those employed in rural hospitals expressed a stronger conviction that hard work was important to success than those in urban hospitals. Likewise female employees who had grown up in big-medium sized cities indicated more agreement with the statement than those raised in small cities or rural areas. In analyzing the data in more detail, the differences within the group employed in urban hospitals were of interest. Those disagreeing the most with the statement were employed in an urban area with a small town background. Perhaps this reflects unfulfilled dreams of "life in the city."

III. Knowing the right people.

A significant difference was found among age groups on the Factor III score. The 15-18 age group was the least likely to agree that who you know on the job is important. Older age groups were noticeably more inclined to agree (Table 7). No significant differences were found among the individual items, however.

IV. Work as a central life interest.

No significant differences were found among Factor IV means; however age differences were found on two items. The 51 or over group was most likely to agree that "work helps you forget about your personal problems" (item 11), while the 19-24 year olds expressed more doubt about this. On item 22, age differences appeared to be curvilinear. Those 15-24 and over 51 were more likely than 25-30 year olds to agree that one should succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life. Perhaps this reflects the idealism of youth and the resignation of the older worker to a certain life style, but a dissatisfaction among the middle age group. This item also was endorsed more frequently by the urban workers than by the rural (Table 7).

V. Work as a necessary evil.

No significant differences were found in either the Factor V score or items comprising this scale among groups defined by urban/rural status, size of childhood community, and age groups.

VI. Ego-satisfaction.

No significant differences were found on either the Factor VI score or the individual items comprising the factor.

VII. Individualism.

No significant differences were found on the Factor VII score. The age groups differed significantly on item 16, "using friends to get ahead"; 15-18 year olds were more likely to disagree than were the older groups (Table 7).

VIII. Social idealism.

No significant differences were found on the Factor VIII score or on items comprising the factor.

IX. Self concept.

No significant differences were observed for the one item comprising Factor IX.

Interpretation of Value Statements for Total Sample

Agreement-disagreement mean scores on the value statements (Table 8) for the overall group were interpreted by a panel acquainted with the biographical characteristics of the group (women workers, predominantly thirty-one years and older, employed in low status jobs, few educated beyond high school). Also, the means were evaluated in relation to motivation theories (91, 92) and the precepts of the Protestant work ethic, discussed earlier in the paper.

I. Overall valuing of work and its benefits.

The tendency to agree with statement 3 (work is an opportunity to make friends) indicated that respondents saw work as fulfilling a social need. Results on items 6 and 17 also supported this need. Item 6, "helping others as a satisfaction of work" reflects a service orientation. This was not surprising since the sample was composed of women, many of whom were mothers, employed in a "helping" occupation, that of health care. Also, Puls' study (25) of foodservice workers indicated that full-time workers ranked social service as an important personal goal. On item 17, respondents agreed that the increased respect of family and friends was an important reward of getting ahead in work.

Table 8: Agreement-disagreement mean scores¹ on value statements for overall group

item no.	item	mean	std. dev.
<u>I. Overall valuing of work and its benefits</u>			
3	To me, a very important part of work is the opportunity to make friends.	2.898 ± .589	
4	Work is a way of being of service to God.	2.832 ± .704	
6	The main satisfaction a person can get out of work is helping other people.	2.984 ± .760	
8	To me, it's important in an occupation for a person to be able to carry out his own ideas without interference.	2.540 ± .677	
12	Even if you dislike your work, you should do your best.	3.246 ± .585	
17	To me, gaining the increased respect of family and friends is one of the most important rewards of getting ahead in an occupation.	2.760 ± .748	
25	To me, it's important in an occupation that a person be able to see the results of his own work.	3.171 ± .547	
26	To me, it's important to have the kind of work that gives me a chance to develop my own special abilities.	3.093 ± .605	
27	Work is a good builder of character.	3.135 ± .571	
<u>II. Drive--ambition</u>			
10.	I would like my family to be able to have most of the things my friends and neighbors have.	2.520 ± .736	
14	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.	2.729 ± .747	
19	It is satisfying to direct the work of others.	2.331 ± .605	

¹Scale = 1, strongly disagree; 2, disagree; 3, agree; 4, strongly agree.

Table 8: (cont.)

item no.	item	mean	std. dev.
20	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.	2.820 ± .669	
23	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.	2.457 ± .804	
III. <u>Knowing the right people</u>			
2	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of luck.	1.945 ± .727	
7	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of knowing the right people.	2.183 ± .774	
27	Work is a good builder of character.	3.135 ± .571	
IV. <u>Work as a central life interest</u>			
4	Work is a way of being of service to God.	2.832 ± .704	
11	Work helps you forget about your personal problems.	2.690 ± .694	
22	A person should constantly try to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life.	2.569 ± .780	
27	Work is a good builder of character.	3.135 ± .571	
29	It is more important for a job to offer <u>opportunity</u> rather than <u>security</u> .	2.492 ± .760	
V. <u>Work as necessary evil</u>			
9	To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.	2.264 ± .786	
18	Work is most satisfying when there are hard problems to solve.	2.430 ± .706	
23	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.	2.457 ± .804	
24	I like the kind of work you can forget about after the work day is over.	2.898 ± .613	

Table 8: (cont.)

item no.	item	mean	std. dev.
VI. <u>Ego satisfaction</u>			
1	A person has a right to expect his work to be fun.	2.744 ± .594	
28	Getting recognition for my own work is important to me.	3.056 ± .597	
30	It's important to do a better job than the next person.	2.618 ± .719	
VII. <u>Individualism</u>			
15	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.	2.383 ± .654	
16	Sometimes it may be right for a person to use friends in order to get ahead in his work.	2.101 ± .727	
29	It is more important for a job to offer <u>opportunity</u> rather than <u>security</u> .	2.492 ± .760	
VIII. <u>Social idealism</u>			
13	To me, almost the only thing that matters about a job is the chance to do work that is worthwhile to society.	2.453 ± .662	
15	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.	2.383 ± .654	
20	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.	2.183 ± .774	
21	After you are making enough money to get along, then making more money in an occupation isn't very important.	2.189 ± .687	
IX. <u>Self concept</u>			
5	It would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation.	2.563 ± .699	

These results concur with those of Blai (76). He reported that fulfilling social needs at work was a primary concern of working women.

Respondents tended to endorse the Protestant work ethic and traditional American work values by agreeing with statements 4, 12, and 27 ("work is a service to God," "you should do your best," and "work is a good builder of character"). The participants apparently viewed idleness as a sin, believed that success in work was pleasing to God, and that wealth was acceptable if merited by effort.

Item 8 suggests that the respondents had a fairly low power need. They only slightly agreed with the statement, "It's important to be able to carry out one's own ideas without interference." Probably this reflects the fact that foodservice workers are not accustomed to functioning without close supervision. However, their high agreement with item 26 (work to develop special abilities) might support Griffith's view (26) that training reduces turnover because it satisfies the recognition need.

The foodservice workers in this sample strongly agreed that it's important for a person to see the results of one's work (item 25). Immediate feedback apparently was important to the foodservice workers, and perhaps implies a need to be appreciated. This concurs with Puls' (25) finding that recognition was a high need.

II. Drive and ambition.

Respondents were undecided about item 10, "keeping up with the Jones'es" and item 23, "caring about making money" on the job. Such indecision may reflect a lack of competitiveness, a lack of

materialism, or a rationalization which makes their low status and low paying jobs more acceptable.

Foodservice workers tended to disagree that it's satisfying to direct others. This seems consistent with the earlier conjecture about a low power need. It may also reflect a low aspiration level, as well as a high affiliative need. Even though there was some agreement that it's important to get ahead in an occupation (item 20), there was little desire to supervise (item 19). The Protestant work ethic, mentioned earlier and re-emphasized by item 20, may conflict with the lack of drive suggested by item 19.

III. Knowing the right people.

There was strong disagreement with statements 2 and 7. By disagreeing that success is related to luck (item 2), the respondents appeared to reiterate their commitment to traditional American work values and the Protestant work ethic. Rejection of the importance of knowing the right people (item 7) is also a traditional American work value; it also may indicate the respondents' tendency to perceive themselves as low status, low mobility, and low power individuals. Results on item 27, discussed in Factor I as a reflection of the Protestant work ethic ("work is a good builder of character"), are consistent with the findings on items 2 and 7.

IV. Work as a central life interest.

Both items 4 and 27 loaded on Factors I and IV; as noted above these items state traditional American work values. The tendency to agree with item 22 (a person should constantly succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life) lends additional support to this thesis. While this statement supports the work ethic

commitment it also may reaffirm a need for security. Results on item 29 suggest ambivalence about this need (indecision about whether to work for opportunity or security). Statement 20 (Factor II) also reflected the need to have advancement opportunities; but security may be a more important consideration among these workers.

V. Work as a necessary evil.

Neutral views on item 18 (work is satisfying when there are hard problems to solve) and item 24 (forget about work after the day is over) suggest a low achievement motivation. In spite of this a segment of the group still saw work as providing more than a job (item 9). Despite the importance of security needs, mentioned earlier, there was indecision about the importance of money (item 23).

VI. Ego-satisfaction.

Social needs again were evidenced by item 1 (agreement that work should be fun). There was definite agreement that an individual should receive recognition for work (item 23). This "give me credit" attitude reflects self esteem needs. Puls' (25) findings supported a personal goal of individual recognition. Responses on statement 25 (seeing the results of one's work) lends credence to this hypothesis. Item 30 (it's important to do a better job than the next person) also can be interpreted as a need for recognition.

VII. Individualism.

Item 15 (one's work is one's business) and item 16 (using friends) were not endorsed by the women in the sample. Both items suggest the belief that people are responsible for themselves and should not "meddle in others' business" or rely on others to get ahead.

Indecision on item 29 (opportunity vs. security) may be related to a general reluctance to use friends to get ahead.

VIII. Social idealism.

Helping society (item 13) apparently did not have the same implication as helping other people (item 6, Factor I), which was important to the respondents. Perhaps the former concept is too impersonal and abstract for the person to identify with. Research reported by Lynn, Vaden, and Vaden (93) indicated a similar view among nurses, most of whom were women. Other items representing this factor have been discussed earlier; they seem to reflect modesty in aspirations (items 20 and 21) and a desire to set one's own standards (item 15).

IX. Self concept.

There was a slight tendency to agree that it would be hard to accept others passing you by. This "in between" response probably represents a compromise between low achievement and power needs and needs for self-esteem and recognition.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Job satisfaction has been the focus of the research of numerous investigators. Recently, behavioral scientists have hypothesized that work-related values and work-orientation may be important in explaining organizational behavior. Data suggest individuals' backgrounds may affect their values concerning work. Some research has been done with manufacturing industries and in vocational guidance; although little work has been done in the service industries. The objectives of the study were (a) to refine and improve methods of occupational values that are relevant to foodservice workers; (b) to study the relative strengths of various occupational values among female non-supervisory hospital foodservice workers; and (c) to examine differences in occupational values among groups classified by size of childhood community, location of hospital, and age of respondent.

Female foodservice employees in five rural and four urban, one- to two-hundred bed, short-term general hospitals in Kansas and Missouri, constituted the study sample (N=133). The study instrument was that adapted from Kilpatrick et al. (8) in their study of occupational values of employees in the federal service. The instrument consisted of thirty items using a four-point Likert-type scale, strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree. Demographic data included age, size of childhood community, and length of time the person had lived in the community, among other questions. The instrument was presented to the employees as a group; an envelope was provided for return of the completed survey directly to the researcher to insure anonymity. Analyses of data included factor analysis, coefficient alpha, and multivariate analyses of variance.

All available employees completed the survey; however, only females were included in the final analysis for a more homogeneous sample and because of differing cultural expectations concerning work for males and females in the United States. Seventy-seven participants were from rural hospitals and fifty-six worked in urban hospitals. Participants spanned all age groups; sizeable numbers were thirty-one to fifty years of age ($N=43$) and fifty-one or more years of age ($N=39$). The group included approximately equal numbers from three sizes of childhood communities: big-medium city ($N=36$), small city ($N=49$), and rural community ($N=47$).

A factor analysis resulted in the development of nine scales related to work orientations and objectives sought in work: I. Work and its benefits, II. Drive-ambition, III. Knowing the right people, IV. Work as a central life interest, V. Work as a necessary evil, VI. Ego-satisfaction, VII. Individualism, VIII. Social idealism, IX. Self-concept. Coefficient alpha was computed to examine the reliability of these scales and of other scales constructed from the same items (Kilpatrick et al. and Robinson). Seven of the eight factors identified in this study had a coefficient alpha value above .40 which is considered the minimum acceptable level (88). Only three of Robinson's six categories and four of Kilpatrick's nine classifications yielded a coefficient alpha above .40. Thus, scales constructed from the factor analysis were shown to be more reliable than those based on Robinson's or Kilpatrick's conceptualizations.

Multivariate analyses based on hospital location, childhood community, and age indicated few significant differences on either the factor scores or individual items. Most differences were found among age groups. Younger workers were the most concerned about seeing the results of their work, as well as wanting work that would enable them to develop their

special abilities. These younger workers also believed that who you know on the job was not that important to success, while older age groups were somewhat more cynical. However, the oldest work group believed more strongly than the younger workers, that work enabled people to forget about their personal problems.

Urban-rural differences were found on only three of the thirty items. Rural workers were more convinced than urban workers that a person should work hard even if one's work was disliked and that success was related mainly to hard work. The urban-rural groups were both somewhat neutral regarding trying to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life; however, the urban workers agreed slightly more than rural workers. In examining the data, it appeared this result also might be related to an interaction between childhood community and present location. The sample size was not sufficient to test this conclusively.

Agreement-disagreement mean scores on the value statements for the overall group were interpreted by a panel acquainted with the biographical characteristics of the group (women workers, predominantly thirty-one years and older; employed in low status jobs; few educated beyond high school) in relation to motivation theories and the precepts of the Protestant work ethic. The female foodservice workers appeared to have high affiliative and security needs, a moderate achievement need, a low power need, and a strong Protestant work ethic.

The strong consensus that it's important to see the results of one's work was a noteworthy finding with implications for foodservice management. However, seeing the final results of work may be short lived for foodservice employees with the advent of the food factory concept in many facets of the industry. Another finding of importance to the foodservice manager

was the strong need, especially among young workers, for recognition for work accomplished and the desire for work that developed special abilities. This may indicate the foodservice manager needs to be more attuned to individual employees' needs and wants. While needs and wants in general might be similar to those found in this study these could be different for each worker, requiring special attention to individual as well as group differences.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Research Instrument Hospital Foodservice Study



KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Department of Institutional Management
Justin Hall
Manhattan, Kansas 66506
Phone: 913 532-5521

HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE STUDY

DIRECTIONS: Please place an "X" in front of the answer that best applies to you.

1. ☐ (1) Female
☐ (2) Male
2. ☐ (1) Full-time
☐ (2) Part-time
3. How old are you?
☐ (1) 15-18 years
☐ (2) 19-24 years
☐ (3) 25-30 years
☐ (4) 31-50 years
☐ (5) 51 or more years
4. How long have you lived in this area?
☐ (1) 0-4 years
☐ (2) 5-10 years
☐ (3) 11 or more years
5. In what size community did you spend most of your childhood?
☐ (1) Big city (over 150,000)
for example, Kansas City
☐ (2) Medium city (25,000-150,000)
for example, Manhattan
☐ (3) Small city (2,500-25,000)
for example, Concordia
☐ (4) Rural community (less than 2,500)
6. What is your highest level of formal education?
☐ (1) Grade school
☐ (2) High school
☐ (3) Attended 1 or more years
of college
☐ (4) College graduate
7. What is your religious affiliation?
☐ (1) Catholic
☐ (2) Judaism
☐ (3) Protestant?
Please specify _____
☐ (4) Other
8. What statement best applies to you?
☐ (1) I attend church regularly
(3-4 times a month)
☐ (2) I attend church sometimes
☐ (3) I attend on special occasions
(for example, Christmas, Easter)
☐ (4) I never attend church
9. How long have you worked here?
☐ (1) 6 months or less
☐ (2) Over 6 months to 3 years
☐ (3) more than 3, less than 5 years
☐ (4) more than 5 years
10. What job did you have prior to working here?
☐ (1) Foodservice related
☐ (2) Other
☐ (3) None
11. In your adult life (over age 18), have you been out of the work force for a period of time?
☐ (1) No
☐ (2) Yes, to attend school
☐ (3) Yes, to raise a family
☐ (4) Yes, for other reasons
12. If yes in question 11, how many total years were you out of the work force?
☐ (1) less than 6 months
☐ (2) 6 months to 1 year
☐ (3) More than 1 year to 3 years
☐ (4) More than 3 years
13. In your present job do you work:
☐ (1) in the kitchen
☐ (2) in the cafeteria
☐ (3) on the floors

DIRECTIONS: Do you agree or disagree with these sentences? Please check the number that shows your opinion.

- 1 - Strongly disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Agree
- 4 - Strongly agree

There are no right or wrong answers - only how much you agree or disagree with the statement.

Example: Blue is my favorite color

- ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
- ☐ (2) Disagree
- ☒ (3) Agree
- ☐ (4) Strongly agree

1. A person has a right to expect his work to be fun.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
2. Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of luck.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
3. To me, a very important part of work is the opportunity to make friends.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
4. Work is a way of being of service to God.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
5. It would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
6. The main satisfaction a person can get out of work is helping other people.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
7. Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of knowing the right people.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
8. To me, it's important in an occupation for a person to be able to carry out his own ideas without interference.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
9. To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
10. I would like my family to be able to have most of the things my friends and neighbors have.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
11. Work helps you forget about your personal problems.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree
12. Even if you dislike your work, you should do your best.
 - ☐ (1) Strongly disagree
 - ☐ (2) Disagree
 - ☐ (3) Agree
 - ☐ (4) Strongly agree

13. To me, almost the only thing that matters about a job is the chance to do work that is worthwhile to society.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
14. Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
15. If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
16. Sometimes it may be right for a person to use friends in order to get ahead in his work.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
17. To me, gaining the increased respect of family and friends is one of the most important rewards of getting ahead in an occupation.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
18. Work is most satisfying when there are hard problems to solve.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
19. It is satisfying to direct the work of others.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
20. To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
21. After you are making enough money to get along, then making more money in an occupation isn't very important.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
22. A person should constantly try to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
23. To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
24. I like the kind of work you can forget about after the work day is over.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
25. To me, it's important in an occupation that a person be able to see the results of his own work.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree
26. To me, it's important to have the kind of work that gives me a chance to develop my own special abilities.
☐ (1) Strongly disagree
☐ (2) Disagree
☐ (3) Agree
☐ (4) Strongly agree

27. Work is a good builder of character.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree
28. Getting recognition for my own work is important to me.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree
29. It is more important for a job to offer opportunity rather than security.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree
30. It's important to do a better job than the next person.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

APPENDIX B

Letter to Hospitals

Department of Institutional Management
Justin Hall
Manhattan, Kansas 66506
Phone: 913 532-5521

Dear _____:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation of _____, 1975. I am looking forward to meeting you and presenting the survey _____, 1975 at _____. Enclosed is a copy of the questionnaire I will be using. If you have any questions please call or write. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Rebecca L. Shaw, R.D.
Graduate Student

Allene Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Assistant Professor

RLS/jj

Enclosure

APPENDIX C
Instructions

I am a graduate student in the Department of Institutional Management at Kansas State University. I am a dietitian and in my work experience became interested in personnel management. We're conducting a survey regarding the attitudes of hospital foodservice employees toward work. Your hospital was one of nine selected to participate in the survey. I would like to ask your help for this survey by completing the questionnaire as honestly and accurately as possible.

Your supervisor or boss will not know your individual answers. All answers will be confidential and there is no way you can be identified, so please do not sign your name. The only people who will see them are you and me. Please place the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and hand it to me.

Answers from the questionnaire will be punched on this card (show punched card) and submitted to the computer. This is the way I will receive the information (show a sample computer printout).

If you have any questions please raise your hand and I'll answer them. Thank you for your help and cooperation.

APPENDIX D

Summary of F-Values for Multivariate Analyses

Summary of F values for multivariate analyses of factor scores using
hospital location, childhood community size, and age

factor	comparison	d.f.	F value
I	rural-urban (res)	1	.738
	childhood community (cc)	2	.717
	age	4	2.199
	res x cc	2	.880
II	rural-urban (res)	1	.748
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.566
	age	4	.420
	res x cc	2	1.594
III	rural-urban (res)	1	.153
	childhood community (cc)	2	.965
	age	4	2.758*
	res x cc	2	1.170
IV	rural-urban (res)	1	.130
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.609
	age	4	1.800
	res x cc	2	.362
V	rural-urban (res)	1	.767
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.220
	age	4	.245
	res x cc	2	.431
VI	rural-urban (res)	1	.178
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.307
	age	4	.985
	res x cc	2	.401
VII	rural-urban (res)	1	.114
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.415
	age	4	1.151
	res x cc	2	.791
VIII	rural-urban (res)	1	.537
	childhood community (cc)	2	.410
	age	4	.774
	res x cc	2	.863

*P < .05

Summary of F values for multivariate analyses of item scores using
hospital location, childhood community size, and age (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
Factor I			
3	rural-urban (res)	1	.923
	childhood community (cc)	2	.626
	age	4	.895
	res x cc	2	1.652
4	rural-urban (res)	1	.208
	childhood community (cc)	2	.806
	age	4	.859
	res x cc	2	2.256
6	rural-urban (res)	1	.295
	childhood community (cc)	2	.932
	age	4	2.020
	res x cc	2	1.389
8	rural-urban (res)	1	.210
	childhood community (cc)	2	2.951
	age	4	2.086
	res x cc	2	1.348
12	rural-urban (res)	1	4.467*
	childhood community (cc)	2	.721
	age	4	1.139
	res x cc	2	.905
17	rural-urban (res)	1	1.275
	childhood community (cc)	2	.401
	age	4	1.292
	res x cc	2	.670
25	rural-urban (res)	1	.253
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.240
	age	4	2.590*
	res x cc	2	1.185
26	rural-urban (res)	1	.634
	childhood community (cc)	2	.283
	age	4	3.989**
	res x cc	2	.137

*P < .05

**P < .01

Summary of F values for multivariate analyses of item scores using
hospital location, childhood community size, and age (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
27	rural-urban (res)	1	.019
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.483
	age	4	1.843
	res x cc	2	.793
Factor II			
10	rural-urban (res)	1	.243
	childhood community (cc)	2	.170
	age	4	.142
	res x cc	2	.326
14	rural-urban (res)	1	4.957*
	childhood community (cc)	2	3.186*
	age	4	.900
	res x cc	2	.655
19	rural-urban (res)	1	.410
	childhood community (cc)	2	.209
	age	4	1.759
	res x cc	2	2.701
20	rural-urban (res)	1	1.223
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.064
	age	4	.582
	res x cc	2	.445
23	rural-urban (res)	1	.128
	childhood community (cc)	2	.389
	age	4	.914
	res x cc	2	1.702
Factor III			
2	rural-urban (res)	1	.960
	childhood community (cc)	2	.710
	age	4	1.345
	res x cc	2	1.832
7	rural-urban (res)	1	.100
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.037
	age	4	1.596
	res x cc	2	.348

*P < .05

Summary of F values for multivariate analyses of item scores using
hospital location, childhood community size, and age (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
27	rural-urban (res)	1	.019
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.483
	age	4	1.843
	res x cc	2	.793
Factor IV			
4	rural-urban (res)	1	.208
	childhood community (cc)	2	.806
	age	4	.854
	res x cc	2	2.256
11	rural-urban (res)	1	.032
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.806
	age	4	4.480**
	res x cc	2	.643
22	rural-urban (res)	1	4.744*
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.701
	age	4	4.703**
	res x cc	2	.842
27	rural-urban (res)	1	.019
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.483
	age	4	1.843
	res x cc	2	.793
29	rural-urban (res)	1	.480
	childhood community (cc)	2	.147
	age	4	.644
	res x cc	2	1.228
Factor V			
9	rural-urban (res)	1	.079
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.366
	age	4	.519
	res x cc	2	.108

*P < .05

**P < .01

Summary of F values for multivariate analyses of item scores using
hospital location, childhood community size, and age (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
18	rural-urban (res)	1	.962
	childhood community (cc)	2	.708
	age	4	.697
	res x cc	2	.561
23	rural-urban (res)	1	.128
	childhood community (cc)	2	.389
	age	4	.914
	res x cc	2	1.702
24	rural-urban (res)	1	1.801
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.681
	age	4	.951
	res x cc	2	.125
Factor VI			
1	rural-urban (res)	1	.020
	childhood community (cc)	2	.437
	age	4	.613
	res x cc	2	1.208
28	rural-urban (res)	1	.448
	childhood community (cc)	2	2.487
	age	4	2.141
	res x cc	2	.515
30	rural-urban (res)	1	1.469
	childhood community (cc)	2	.809
	age	4	.785
	res x cc	2	.380
Factor VII			
15	rural-urban (res)	1	.006
	childhood community (cc)	2	.198
	age	4	1.562
	res x cc	2	1.184
16	rural-urban (res)	1	.002
	childhood community (cc)	2	2.780
	age	4	2.480*
	res x cc	2	2.715

*P < .05

Summary of F values for multivariate analyses of item scores using
hospital location, childhood community size, and age (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
29	rural-urban (res)	1	.480
	childhood community (cc)	2	.147
	age	4	.644
	res x cc	2	1.228
Factor VIII			
13	rural-urban (res)	1	1.274
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.539
	age	4	1.346
	res x cc	2	.509
15	rural-urban (res)	1	.006
	childhood community (cc)	2	.198
	age	4	1.562
	res x cc	2	1.184
20	rural-urban (res)	1	1.223
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.064
	age	4	.582
	res x cc	2	.445
21	rural-urban (res)	1	2.828
	childhood community (cc)	2	1.753
	age	4	1.586
	res x cc	2	1.310
Factor IX			
5	rural-urban (res)	1	.931
	childhood community (cc)	2	.869
	age	4	1.575
	res x cc	2	2.527

WORK VALUES OF FEMALE, NONSUPERVISORY
HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE PERSONNEL

by

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ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction has been the focus of the research of numerous investigators. Recently, behavioral scientists have hypothesized that work-related values and work-orientation also may be important in explaining organizational behavior. Data suggest individuals' backgrounds may affect their values concerning work. Some research has been done with manufacturing industries and in vocational guidance, although little work has been done in the service industries. The objectives of the study were (a) to refine and improve methods of occupational values that are relevant to foodservice workers; (b) to study the relative strengths of various occupational values among female non-supervisory hospital foodservice workers; and (c) to examine differences in occupational values among groups classified by size of childhood community, location of hospital, and age of respondent.

Non-supervisory female foodservice personnel in five rural and four urban, one- to two-hundred bed, short-term general hospitals in Missouri and Kansas, constituted the study sample. The study instrument was adapted from that used by Kilpatrick et al. in their study of occupational values of employees in federal service. The instrument consisted of thirty items using a four point Likert-type scale. Demographic data included age, basis of employment, length of time the person had lived in the community, the size of community in which the person was raised, length of employment, current job, level of formal education, present job in foodservice, religious affiliation, and frequency of church attendance. The instrument was presented to the employees as a group; an envelope was provided for return of the completed survey directly to the researcher to insure anonymity.

Total sample size (N=154) was reduced to exclude the males in the sample. All non-supervisory foodservice employees were asked to complete the study instrument to avoid feelings of exclusion among the staffs; however, the decision was made to limit the study to females (N=133) for a more homogeneous sample and because of the differing cultural expectations concerning work for males and females in the United States. Seventy-seven participants were from rural hospitals and fifty-six worked in urban hospitals. Participants spanned all age groups; sizeable numbers were thirty-one to fifty years of age (N=43) and fifty-one or more years of age (N=39). The group included approximately equal numbers from three sizes of childhood communities: medium or large city (N=36), small city (N=49), or rural community (N=47).

A factor analysis resulted in the development of nine scales related to work orientations and objectives sought in work: I. Work and its benefits, II. Drive-ambition, III. Knowing the right people, IV. Work as a central life interest, V. Work as a necessary evil, VI. Ego-satisfaction, VII. Individualism, VIII. Social idealism, IX. Self-concept. Coefficient alpha was computed to examine the reliability of these scales and of other scales constructed from the same items (Kilpatrick et al. and Robinson). Seven of the eight factors identified in this study had a coefficient alpha value above .40 which is considered the minimum acceptable level. Only three of Robinson's six categories and four of Kilpatrick's nine classifications yielded a coefficient alpha above .40. Thus, scales constructed from the factor analysis were shown to be more reliable than those based on Robinson's or Kilpatrick's conceptualizations.

Multivariate analyses based on hospital location, childhood community, and age indicated few significant differences. Most differences were among

age groups. Agreement-disagreement mean scores on the value statements for the overall group were interpreted by a panel acquainted with the biographical characteristics of the group (women workers, predominantly thirty-one years and older, employed in low status jobs, few educated beyond high school) in relation to motivation theories and the precepts of the Protestant work ethic. The female hospital foodservice workers appeared to have high affiliative and security needs, a moderate achievement need, a low power need, and a strong Protestant work ethic.