PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION-MAKING AND RELATED FACTORS AMONG NONSUPERVISORY HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE EMPLOYEES

by

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INTRODUCTION

French et al. (1) defined participative management as a process of joint decision-making by two or more parties in which the decisions have future effects on those making them. The amount of participation by an individual is believed to be dependent upon the degree of influence he/she has on the decisions and plans agreed upon. Anthony (2) further suggested that the concept of participation in decision-making necessitated emphasis on the active involvement. He stated that participation rested on the concept of shared authority between managers and their subordinates. According to Locke and Schweiger (3), the three basic types of participative decision-making (PDM) are (a) forced or voluntary, (b) formal or informal, and (c) direct or indirect.

Much attention has been devoted to investigating the effects of PDM at higher skilled and professional levels. Many believe that participative management does not work effectively at lower levels where jobs are characteristically elemental and repetitive (e.g., foodservice jobs). Anthony (2) stated that because a person was not required to exercise independent judgment in performing the routine tasks of a job does not mean he or she could not exercise such judgment if given the opportunity. He suggested that the total job encompasses more than the specific set of tasks required on the job and therefore contended that participative management is feasible in lower skilled positions.

Most of the research on participative management has been carried out in industrial settings and in areas other than foodservice. The purpose of this research project is to investigate the perceptions of

participation in decision making of nonsupervisory hospital foodservice employees and study relationships between these perceptions and other variables: levels of satisfaction, performance, motivation, organizational identification, job innovation, and acceptance of change. Literature topics reviewed that were relevant to the research included the following: participation in decision making, job satisfaction, job motivation, organization identification, acceptance of change, and interest in innovation.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Participative Decision-Making in Organizations

Definitions of Participative Decision-Making

Participative management, as defined by French et al. (1), is a process of joint decision-making by two or more parties in which the decisions have future effects on those making them. The amount of participation by individuals is dependent on the degree of influence they have on the decisions and plans agreed upon. Anthony (2) further suggested that the concept of participation in decision-making necessitates emphasis on the active involvement of the people. He stated that participation rests on the concept of shared authority; however, Locke and Schweiger (3) indicated that it does not necessarily imply "equal" sharing.

Vroom (4) defined two kinds of participation, psychological and objective. Psychological participation is the amount of participation individuals perceive themselves having in decision-making, whereas objective participation is the amount of influence in decision-making they actually have. If the perception is accurate, the amount of psychological participation equals the amount of objective participation.

There is a lack of agreement among writers as to what is implied by the concept of participation. Behling and Schriesheim (5) used the term participative management to describe at least three different management practices: (a) delegation, (b) consultation, and (c) democratization. Tannenbaum (6) stated that the character of participation

could vary widely, from a lone supervisor who considers the feelings and ideas of his/her employees before making decisions, to a formal and pervasive system of delegation that involves substantial influence for subordinates.

Locke and Schweiger (3) stated that according to present writers the definition of participation excludes delegation. They stated that the process of delegation in an organizational context involves assigning specific responsibilities to subordinates. The result is not a "sharing in common" with others, but rather an explicit division of labor that is determined hierarchically. The subordinates do not participate in the decision to delegate, nor does the supervisor participate in decision-making related to areas of delegation. They stated that participative decision-making (PDM) would be involved (in addition to delegation) if the supervisor and subordinates decide together how much responsibility the subordinates would be given. While delegation could then be achieved participatively, it need not be. Thus, participation does not logically imply delegation, or vice versa.

Early Background in PDM Development

As noted by Anthony (2), during the 1800's management played an inactive role in directing the work of others. He stated that it was not until the turn of the century that management took a more active role. He indicated that the change in management style was a result of the work of Taylor and the Gilbreths.

Tannenbaum (6) described the scientific management movement, initiated primarily by Taylor, as having a significant impact on organizational practices. Principles of scientific management theory, as contrasted with those of bureaucratic and administrative theory, gave

greater attention to organizational members, to details of work behavior, and to job motivation. Taylor's main focus of interest was in two aspects of the scientific management program: (a) using workers' energies efficiently and (b) motivating workers to produce rapidly. Tannenbaum stated that although Taylor developed what appeared to be a logically unbeatable combination--efficient motions, efficient tools, and optimum working arrangements, together with strong incentives--scientific management did not always work for the same reason that the classical approaches to organization did not always work. He asserted that the problem was the lack of consideration of the human factor.

According to Tannenbaum (6), a significant point of departure in the growing realization of the need to consider the human factor was the famous Hawthorne research, initiated in 1924, which was designed within the framework of scientific management but which led to a new movement called human relations. He stated that participation was one approach suggested by the Hawthorne studies to hierarchial problems and indicated that it referred to the exercises of control usually through decision-making in group meetings. According to Kahn (7), the best known finding from those famous researchers was the "Hawthorne effect," a phrase that is used synonymously in social science for any unintended experimenter effect. He stated that the main significance of the so-called Hawthorne effect had been buried beneath that phrase and that it had to do with participation in shaping the conditions and expectations of a major life role, that of work. Not all workers in the field agree with these conclusions. While Kahn interpreted the Hawthorne studies as having demonstrated the value of PDM in industrial settings, Carey (8) and

Lawler (9) questioned the validity of the conclusions drawn from the studies.

Types of Participative Decision-Making

Locke and Schweiger (3) stated that participative decision-making varied according to type. They identified these types of PDM: (a) forced or voluntary PDM, (b) formal or informal PDM, and (c) direct or indirect PDM. They stated that forced PDM was applied by law or by government decree (codetermination). Locke and Schweiger stated that it would occur in cases resulting from a contrast between management and labor but where management legally was compelled to bargain. Voluntary PDM occurs when management initiates the idea of PDM and the employees agree to it. Formal PDM involves creation of, or involvement with officially recognized decision-making or bargaining bodies, such as unions, committees, councils, boards; whereas informal PDM is based on the personal relationship between each supervisor or manager and his/her subordinates. Direct PDM occurs when employees have the right to assert their individual views, whereas indirect PDM involves election of representatives who speak for the employees as members of higher level committees and decision-making bodies.

Degree of PDM Implementation

According to Locke and Schweiger (3), managers solicit varying degrees of participation in decision-making from their subordinates. They stated that the different degrees of PDM exercised by managers could be plotted on a standard continuum going from no participation (supervisors tell employees what to do, although they might not have explained the reasons), to various degrees of consultation (the supervisors or

managers consult employees either before or after making a tentative decision, and then make the final decision themselves), to full participation (supervisors become group members and vote with their subordinates as equals).

Anthony (2) depicted the degrees of PDM on a continuum of management styles ranging from the autocrat at the far left end of the continuum who assumes sole power and authority for decisions, to the free-rein managers at the far right end of the continuum who fully share their decision-making authority with their subordinates. Anthony indicated that the approach taken by the free-rein manager is an extreme of participation in decision-making but is not what he meant by PDM. He noted the limited application of this approach and stated that it works best in situations in which the manager is over a group of highly skilled, intelligent professionals capable of sharing fully in the decision and accountability process.

Content and Stage of Problem-Solving at which PDM Occurs

Locke and Schweiger (3) discussed ways in which PDM varies in content according to the type of issue involved: (a) routine personnel functions (i.e., hiring, training, payment method, discipline, and performance evaluation); (b) work itself (i.e., task assignments, work methods, job design, goal setting including production level, and speed of work); (c) working conditions (i.e., rest pauses, hours of work, placement of equipment, and lighting); and (d) company policies (i.e., lay offs, profit sharing, general wage level, fringe benefits, executive hiring, capital investments, dividends, and general policy making). Locke and Schweiger also described how PDM varies according to the stage

of problem-solving at which it is implemented (i.e., the discovery of problems, the generation of proposed solutions, the evaluation of proposed solutions, and the choice of solutions). Studies conducted by Vroom et al. (10) indicated that PDM could be more effective at some stages than others.

Vroom and co-workers (10) conducted a study to test the possibility that interaction among group members facilitates one phase of problem-solving and hinders another. They held the problem constant and examined the effects of social interaction in each phase separately. Four-member groups worked on complex administrative problems under four conditions: (a) members interacted during the generation of solutions but were prevented from interacting during the evaluation of solutions; (b) members were prevented from interacting during the generation of solutions but did act during the evaluation of solutions; (c) members interacted during both the generation and the evaluation of solutions; and (d) members were prevented from interacting during both the generation and evaluation of solutions. The results indicated that interaction during the generation of the problem-solving phase was not effective. Groups in which members interacted with one another during generation produced a smaller number of different solutions, few or high-quality solutions, and a smaller number of different kinds of solutions than groups in which members were restrained from interacting during generation. Some evidence indicates that interaction during the evaluation process aids in discriminating high and low quality solutions; however, this effect is not marked, and it varies with the manner in which individual evaluations are combined in interacting groups (10).

Factors Affecting PDM Implementation

Organizational Factors. Locke and Schweiger (3) indicated that organization factors, as a category, referred to all factors external to the participating employee or to factors which involve interaction among the participating members. Anthony (2) suggested that the factors that characterize an organization could create barriers to effective use of participative decision-making.

Tradition. Anthony (2) stated that tradition of an organization could affect successful implementation of participation in decision-making. He noted that an organization's tradition is often based on an autocratic form of management style. If tradition is valued and maintaining the status quo is more important than innovation, any suggestion for a new style of management, such as PDM, will be rejected.

Organizational Philosophy and Values. Anthony (2) indicated that organizational philosophy and values of top management in an organization were other factors affecting implementation of PDM. He noted that managerial philosophy based upon a manager's value system, influences a manager's approach in making decisions and carrying out important tasks. Anthony indicated that managerial philosophy and values often are not compatible with a PDM approach and any effort to implement it will be rejected.

Quality of Policy and Procedures. Anthony (2) noted that some organizations believe in very detailed and comprehensive policy and procedures to cover any conceivable situation which might arise. He stated that in these types of organizations any type of PDM could be subverted or rejected easily. Policy often is valued as an end in itself rather than as means to achieve some end.

Quality of Personnel. Anthony (2) stated that an organization often attracts personnel who are not able to engage in PDM because they do not have the skills, knowledge, desire, expertise, training, or experience to be participative managers or employees.

Organizational Structure. Anthony (2) indicated that the structure of an organization requires authority to coordinate organizational resources to achieve some goal or set of goals. He stated that although an authority structure is necessary in maintaining equilibrium within the organization, it often hinders effective use of participation. He noted that managers in positions of authority sometimes act in an autocratic fashion because they believe that it is expected of them.

According to Anthony (2), the structure of an organization includes not only authority levels, but also reporting relationships, formal task assignments, formal work group arrangements, formal communication channels, and span of management. He stated that implementation of PDM is difficult in organizations in which structural arrangements are rigidly enforced to the extent that informal communication and work group activity are restricted severely.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (11) stated that size of the working units, their geographic distributions, and degree of inter- and intra-organization security, required to attain company goals, influenced the amount of employee participation that is feasiable for an organization. They indicated, for example, that wide geographical dispersion of an organization may preclude a practical system of participative decision-making, even though PDM would otherwise be desirable. Similarly, the size of the working units or the need for keeping plans confidential may make it

necessary for a manager to exercise more control than would otherwise be the case.

Heller and Yukl (12) indicated that organization (and group) size is pertinent, since an increase in the number of members participating results in a disproportionate increase in the potential amount of interaction. As group size increases, participative decision-making becomes less feasible since it requires more interactions and communication between group members.

Organizational Climate. Anthony (2) noted that supportive climate is necessary for effective PDM implementation. He emphasized the importance of organizations creating conditions under which employees do not feel threatened, but rather, are encouraged to contribute and perform at their best. He indicated that a supportive climate is difficult to achieve, but that its absence makes PDM difficult to achieve.

Reward System for Participation. Anthony (2) indicated that some organizations create a reward system that penalize participation. He stated that people who wish to participate in the decision processes of the organization often are viewed as troublemakers and "boat rockers," which provides a barrier to effective PDM implementation.

Managerial Factors. Managerial Style. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (11) suggested that variables or characteristics of management style influence the quantity and quality of participation that will be incorporated into the decision-making processes. They asserted that managerial style is based upon the manager's value system, confidence in subordinates, and his/her leadership inclination and feelings of security in an uncertain situation.

Anthony (2) stated that a manager's style often is based on habits that are not congruent with participative ideology. They do things because they have always done them a particular way. Often they do not consciously realize why they follow a particular course of action. He also stated that some managers want to change their style but do not have sufficient understanding of PDM and do not know how to apply it. He noted the importance of training and education of both managers and subordinates in the use of PDM techniques.

Manager Personality. Vroom (4) suggested that the personality and style of the leader in relation to that of the group members affects the success of PDM implementation. Vroom's studies indicated that participation has positive effects on the job performance of participants with differing personality characteristics. For example, attitudes of low authoritarian persons and of persons with high independence needs were favorably affected by opportunities to participate in decision-making, whereas attitudes of persons with high authoritarian and low independence needs were relatively unaffected by this experience.

Tosi (13) re-examined the relationship of participation in decision-making to job satisfaction, performance, and personality using the same sampling and experimental procedures as those used by Vroom (4). Tosi found that differences in personality categories did not produce different relationships between participative leadership, satisfaction, and performance. Failure to duplicate Vroom's findings, however, was attributed to methodological differences.

Abdel-Halim and Rowland (14) further investigated the need for independence and/or authoritarianism-like variables as moderators in the relationship between participative leadership and job satisfaction and

performance. They found participation to be related positively and significantly ($P \leq .01$) to job satisfaction, which suggests participation has a generally positive relationship to subordinates' job satisfaction. The differences between the degree of the correlation of high and low authoritarian groups on the JDI work itself and supervisor satisfaction subscales were not significant ($P \leq .05$). When the personality variables were combined, the results relating to the JDI supervisory subscale were in the predicted direction, but not at a statistically significant level. As resulted in Vroom's study (4), participation correlated positively with measures of job performance, suggesting that participation has a generally positive relationship to subordinates' job performance.

Managerial Security. Maslow (15) indicated that supervisors themselves are often threatened by the introduction of PDM and, as a result, oppose and sabotage attempts to use it. Anthony (2) noted that feelings of security are important to successful implementation of PDM. He stated that a lack of managerial security could result from fear of revelation of incompetencies as a manager. He identified four reasons for a manager's experience of fear: (a) PDM would lessen their power; (b) PDM would cause them to be overshadowed by their subordinates; (c) through PDM, they may suffer a loss of personal visibility; and (d) through practice of PDM the job may not get done.

Individual Factors. Knowledge. Marrow (16) stated that participation does not mean that everyone decides all issues. He indicated that effectiveness of PDM implementation is tied closely to how much the participants know about a problem. Vroom (17) noted that PDM is most helpful in generating increased quality decisions when the participants have relevant knowledge to contribute.

Maier (18) suggested that in some cases the leader's expertise is so great in relation to that of his/her followers that PDM would not be useful. Hall (19) stated that advocates of group decision-making acknowledge that the group's judgment is often inferior to that of the best individual member. Mansbridge (20) observed that group members who have the most critical and irreplaceable skills have the most power to influence decisions.

Desire to Participate. Anthony (2) indicated that a subordinate may lack the desire to participate and may not believe it to be part of the job. He stated that employees may not want to participate because they are not paid more for the added work and responsibility gained through the use of PDM.

Holter (21) stated that most nonsupervisory employees show no desire to make top management decisions. Those who want increased participation want to be involved in decisions regarding their own jobs and immediate work surroundings; i.e., issues about which they are likely to have pertinent knowledge.

Employee Security. Anthony (2) stated that, as with managers, subordinates may reject adoption of PDM because (a) employees may be afraid of failure, (b) they may fear to "rock the boat," (c) there may be fear of group ostracism, (d) they fear that participation may make their own or their group's work harder, and/or (e) they may fear the possibilities that good ideas and suggestions to improve efficiency may eliminate some jobs, including that of the person who made the suggestion.

Situational Factors. Anthony (2) suggested that the amount of time that managers have would often influence the amount of participation that they would allow their subordinates in the decision-making process.

He stated that some managers often force time to be a constraint. They manage by crisis to avoid having to use PDM.

Vroom (17) indicated that PDM requires more time to reach decisions than more directive methods. He contended, however, that time could be saved in the long run if the decision under PDM were better. In situations where there is pressure for an immediate decision, PDM may not be feasible.

Nature of Work. Anthony (2) indicated that many managers believe that participative management has only minimal success with unskilled and semiskilled employees whose jobs they consider to require little ability, application of skill, and reasoning power and judgment. They believe people at these levels are not capable of participating in managerial decisions. Anthony, however, disagreed with this belief. He stated that just because a person is not required to exercise independent judgment, in performing the routine tasks of a job, it does not mean they cannot exercise such judgment if given the opportunity. He suggested that the total job encompasses more than a specific set of tasks and believed participative management was feasible in lower skilled positions.

Task Attributes. Hackman and Lawler (22) suggested four core dimensions for jobs: variety, task identity, autonomy, and feedback. They found each was positively related to internal work motivation, general job satisfaction, and job involvement. Anthony (2) indicated that specific characteristics of the job determine the degree to which PDM could be utilized. For example, a lesser degree of PDM could be utilized in complex tasks requiring very detailed knowledge in a highly specialized technical area or in tasks for which there is only one correct way to perform them.

Participative Techniques

Tannenbaum (6) identified five schemes that have been formulated through which increased participation can be achieved: (a) work simplification, (b) participation in the appraisal system, (c) survey feedback, (d) decentralization of decision-making, and (e) participation through representation. Tannenbaum stated that work simplification is premised on the notion that workers are capable, along with supervisors and engineers, of designing new and more efficient work methods.

According to Tannenbaum, in many performance appraisal systems the superior typically enumerates the subordinate's successes and failures during the past year and suggests ways in which the subordinate might improve. The superior, he noted, would set future goals for the subordinate, and these goals would provide the basis for next year's evaluation. Tannenbaum indicated that some organizations are turning to other more participative methods of appraisal that include asking subordinates to formulate their own performance goals.

Tannenbaum stated that survey feedback was designed to induce changes in organizations by changing individual attitudes and behavior and by establishing groups and working relationships that are conducive to participation throughout the organization. He described feedback as involving three phases, first a survey is given to organizational members to obtain information concerning their attitudes and perceptions of their work, superiors, peers, opportunities for promotion, and other aspects of their work situation. Secondly, discussion groups are formed throughout the organization consisting of managers and their subordinates. Tannenbaum stated that the survey data are "fed back" in these groups for discussion and comparisons of attitudes and perceptions of employees in a

department with those of the rest of the organization. Through this discussion, organizational members at different levels may influence each other's understanding of the social and psychological problems in the organization. Ultimately, the groups decide on courses of action to overcome these problems. Tannenbaum described decentralization as a process that provides for dispersion of decision-making throughout an organization and stated that participation through decentralization could be incorporated through a system of worker representation, including those known as "joint consultation" and "worker councils" in decision-making processes.

Organizational Performance and Participative Decision-Making

Likert (23) defined organizational performance or effectiveness in humanistic terms (maximum employee satisfaction and morale) as well as the traditional business criteria (performance, maximum output, and earnings). Behling and Schriesheim (5) stated that performance includes those behaviors that relate directly to the successes of the organization and excludes behaviors unrelated to organization effectiveness.

Productivity, as defined by Dobbs (24), measures what is produced in relation to what is consumed in the production (i.e., money, time and effort, problems created, and etc.). Dobbs stated that productivity could be increased through the shifting of resources or improvement of techniques to increase output without altering resources.

A number of studies have examined the use of participative techniques for increasing productivity (25-27). Malone (25) discussed attempts to incorporate participative management in a company's operations, which involved selection of workers who wanted to function on a team.

Twenty-four production workers were selected to undergo a seven-week training program focusing on interaction and skill development. Results after six months of operation indicated minimal downtime, very low absenteeism, zero employee turnover (compared with 200 per cent in related industries), increased satisfaction among employees through greater communication, and greater trust and confidence in management.

Gustafsson (26) described how his hotel transformed a loss into a profit within a year's time through incorporation of a participative management technique; that of labor advisory councils. During meetings of the council, decisions were made that increased information flow, improved efficiency, reduced costs, and reduced staff.

Walfish (27) noted a dramatic turnabout in quality of working life, productivity, and union-management relations at General Motors plant as a result of asking people on the line to help in planning the new work areas. Walfish stated that employees had reacted favorably to participative decision-making because they were being treated like thinking, productive human beings as they were asked for input in solving problems and were involved in the decisions that affected their working life.

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Defined

Behling and Schriesheim (5) defined job satisfaction as the overall degree of positive feelings that individuals hold toward their jobs. They contended that it is possible for individuals to have positive attitudes toward their pay, negative ones toward the duties they must perform, and to feel neutral toward their co-workers and the benefits their employers provided. Vroom (28), however, suggested that individuals

who are satisfied with one aspect of their jobs generally are satisfied with others as well.

Job satisfaction has been an area of research interest for a variety of reasons. Patchen (29) stated that job satisfaction has been of interest not only because of its intrinsic importance, but because satisfaction or dissatisfaction has consequences for such practical management problems as high absence rates.

Interest in job satisfaction also has been stimulated by the hypothesized relationship of satisfaction to performance and productivity. Investigation of feeling states and physical symptoms that are related to performance have provided the basis for the development of prospective methods for enhancing the relationship.

Relationship to Participative Decision-Making

One method utilized to generate employee satisfaction is participation in organizational decision-making (PDM). Davidson (30) stated that PDM was one of the most effective ways to increase employee satisfaction and motivate staff.

Various managers and researchers have indicated that benefits of job satisfaction as a result of greater employee participation are brought about in a variety of ways. Davidson (30) asserted that participation allows employees to utilize their talents and skills to the best of their ability. Mitchell (31) contended that PDM would increase the likelihood of employees' satisfying personal motives.

Tannenbaum (6), in his studies of hierarchical versus autonomous systems, submitted that participation in decision-making could be ego-enhancing by allowing individuals to exercise control. Psychological satisfaction may result because needs for self determination,

independence, or power needs are fulfilled. He contended that PDM also could bring about certain pragmatic rewards such as the ability for a person to make decisions and affect policy in ways consistent with his/her own self-interest. He suggested that participative decisions were more likely to take into account the needs and interests of all parties, so that control was less likely to seem arbitrary and disadvantageous. Tannenbaum suggested that participation reduces some of the frustrations attached to positions of low rank by increasing the authority and status of these positions. He also stated that PDM adds some of the qualities of the managerial role to non-managerial jobs.

Benefits of job satisfaction through utilization of PDM are believed to be moderated by a variety of variables. Driscoll (32) noted that participation, specifically the congruence between desired and perceived participation, strongly predicted the specific attitude, satisfaction with participation. He indicated that organizational trust was more useful than the congruence between desired and perceived participation in predicting overall satisfaction, however.

Kahn (7) stated that participation is consistently and significantly associated with satisfaction. He contended that the satisfaction of subordinates with their jobs is related positively to the extent to which they participate in and exert influence on decisions affecting them in the work situation.

Wood (33) indicated that the degree of satisfaction attained is dependent on the extent that PDM satisfies important psychological needs for responsibility and autonomy at work. Anthony (2) stated that in the United States and in most developed countries people generally can satisfy their lower order needs fairly easily. Consequently, much of

what people do in these countries is aimed at satisfying higher order needs. He suggested that the implication for managers, therefore, is to provide incentives that allow individuals to satisfy their needs by providing them with appropriate means of acquiring responsibility and autonomy at work. He indicated that when this is accomplished, these wants will be viewed as incentives by employees. He noted that managers provide many important incentives or rewards (i.e., salary increases, promotional opportunities, more responsible tasks, and status symbols), but suggested that they often overlook one important need-satisfying device, providing opportunity to participate in organizational decision-making. He stated that PDM helps the employee achieve ego satisfaction and self-actualization, the two highest levels in the Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Locke and Schweiger (3) indicated that PDM as a mechanism for bringing about employee satisfaction depends on the values of the employees and whether or not PDM brings about attainment of these values. They contended that if employees simply want to express their views, then PDM will achieve this objective. If the employee wants respect or dignity, PDM could be successful, providing the participative method used corresponds with their concept of dignity. If actual influence in the decision process is what the employee desires, then satisfaction will depend upon the degree of influence exerted (or perceived as being exerted) in relation to the amount desired. They indicated, through review of various studies, that employees could participate in discussions but have little influence over the final decisions. If full equality with supervisors or managers is what employees want, then it is unlikely that

they will be satisfied by PDM. In many cases the employees may want tangible benefits from PDM such as more pay.

Ritchie (34) summarized several conditions moderating the effects of participation. He suggested that satisfaction from PDM depends on whether individuals have relevant skills and information, perceive that their involvement will affect outcomes, believe their participation is legitimate, experience little status or expertise differential, and benefit from the trust and support of their superiors.

Martin and Vaden (35) suggested that demographic factors may influence job satisfaction among hospital employees. They studied influences of demographic factors on job satisfaction and attitudes among 149 female foodservice workers in six midwestern hospitals. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used to study satisfaction with the work itself, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers. Significant differences were found in the mean scores on four of the five components (all except co-workers) in relation to length of employment. Workers employed less than six months or longer than three years were more satisfied than those employed between six months and three years. Few relationships were found among work value factor scores and satisfaction component scores. Workers with higher value scores for work as a central life interest, however, had significantly greater satisfaction with work. Also, on two components, pay and co-workers, employees with a stronger belief that "knowing the right people" was important to success were less satisfied.

Performance and Satisfaction

Schwab and Cummings (36) group the theories on performance and satisfaction into three general categories: (a) satisfaction $\longrightarrow$ performance, (b) satisfaction $\longrightarrow$? $\longrightarrow$ performance, and

(c) performance ——→ satisfaction. According to Parker and Kleemeir (37), the satisfaction ——→ performance theories are premised on the idea that there is greater production, and hence greater profit when workers are satisfied with their jobs.

Schwab and Cummings (36) indicated that the satisfaction ——→ performance theories were supported by the human relationists and noted that the research of Herzberg et al. (38) is probably the best illustration of this. Schwab and Cummings (36) stated that although there had been partial replications done of Herzberg's study, they had not investigated the hypothesized performance consequences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Also, they stated that the evidence to support the premise that satisfaction ——→ performance has been nonexperimental in design and has not shown causality.

According to Schwab and Cummings, the model of satisfaction ——→ performance focuses on the complexity of the relationship and incorporates various intervening variables in an attempt to account for frequently ambiguous findings of empirical studies. Several studies have been reported supporting the contention that satisfaction is sometimes, but not always positively related to performance and that this relationship was variable (39-41).

Behling and Schriesheim (5) suggested that satisfaction ——→ ? ——→ performance theories were a substantial improvement over the satisfaction ——→ performance theories because the universal relationship implied in the satisfaction ——→ performance theories was not supported by available research. They indicated that satisfaction ——→ ? ——→ performance theories recognize the inconsistency of this interpretation and identified variables that could moderate or suppress the relationship.

Also, they stated that theories that treat satisfaction only as a cause of performance, and ignore the fact that it is almost certainly a result of performance as well, are unlikely to result in many insights into the behavior of people at work.

Lawler and Porter (42) suggested that the performance ——→ satisfaction theory is based on the belief that good performance could lead to rewards, which in turn could lead to satisfaction. They indicated that this formulation then would say that satisfaction rather than causing performance, as was previously assumed, is caused by it. Schwab and Cummings (36) stated that while performance ——→ satisfaction theory retains the idea of intervening variables, it stresses the importance of variations in effort and performance.

Behling and Schriesheim (5) outlined the advantages of the performance ——→ satisfaction theory, as typified by the Porter-Lawler model. First, they suggested that it lays out, in a compact and explicit form, ideas that fit closely with what many organizational behavior theorists and practicing managers believe. Further, they noted that it is much more nearly complete, both in the number of variables considered and in specification of the relationships among them than most other models. Finally, they stated that general predictions derived from the theory are supported by results of empirical research, though this support is neither plentiful, uniformly positive, nor completely sound methodologically. They indicated that despite criticisms the basic Porter-Lawler model is a reasonably good starting point in understanding the effort-performance-satisfaction relationship.

Hopkins et al. (43) examined relationships between job performance and job satisfaction of non-managerial female employees in school

foodservice. Mean scores on job performance ratings were used to define two dichotomous groups: high and low performers. The two groups differed significantly on several job satisfaction components, with high performers indicating greater satisfaction. Evidence showed that performance was related to individual perpetual outcomes, such as job satisfaction. Hopkins et al. indicated that perceived expectations and opportunities in the work environment may affect both satisfaction and performance.

Shaffer (44) used the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldman (45) to compare the characteristics and motivating potential of jobs designed for two types of hospital foodservice systems, conventional and highly technical. He divided jobs into two types according to high and low motivating potential scores (MPS) derived from the JDS. He defined high MPS jobs as those having an MPS above a mean of 100 and low MPS jobs as those falling below this mean. He compared satisfaction and performance scores for these two jobs. Results indicated that the high MPS jobs had higher performance ratings, although there were no differences on satisfaction measures.

Job Motivation

Patchen (46) stated that a number of experiments, surveys, and case histories, especially in industry, have demonstrated that various forms of participation in decision-making could bring marked improvement in motivation. He suggested that participation in decision-making could lead to increased motivation for two primary reasons: (a) the opportunities are created for individuals to get a sense of personal achievement from reaching goals in their work, and (b) identification with the

organization may result making the individual more sensitive to social pressures from organization members.

French et al. (1) stated that one effect of a high degree of participation by workers in decisions concerning their own work was strengthening motivation to carry out these decisions. They indicated that this is a major rationale for expecting a relation between participation and production.

Davis (47) suggested that an important characteristic of participation is that it motivates contribution by giving individuals an opportunity to direct their initiative and creativity toward the objectives of the group. In this way, he noted that participation differs from consent, which uses only the creativity and ideas of the leader who brings his/her idea to the group for their approval. Participation, he stated, requires more than mere approval of something already decided, but is a two-way psychological and social relationship among people rather than a procedure imposing ideas from above. Other researchers (31, 48-49) have indicated that participation in decision-making enhances morale because it increases the likelihood that the employees can satisfy their motives.

Patchen (29) suggested that it is important to examine the general conditions that produce motivation for achievement to clarify the relation between participation in decision-making and achievement motivation. He indicated that the ideas proposed are largely theoretical and need further empirical testing.

Work Motivation and Achievement Defined

Patchen (29) defined work motivation as the internal "push" to perform well on the job as it relates to the desire for achievement or

successful accomplishment. Atkinson (50) defined achievement motive as "a disposition to approach success." He indicated that the reason success is a goal is because of the "sense of pride" and the thrill of accomplishment that results from successful achievement (51).

Conditions Affecting the Motivation for Achievement

Patchen (29) used a goals-mean framework derived from general psychology (52) used previously in industrial situations by Georgopoulous and associates (53), and discussed by Kahn (54). Patchen (46) assumed that:

Motivation to work hard in order to get feelings of achievement	=	Extent to which achievement in specific work is an important goal	X	Extent to which effort in work situation is perceived as leading to achievement for the individual.

Based on the equation, he indicated that it is necessary to predict first the extent to which achievement in specific work situations is an important goal. He suggested that the extent to which achievement in work is a goal depends in part on the individuals "need for achievement." Given the general need for achievement, Patchen indicated that the formulation assumes further that the individual does not wish to achieve equally in every area of life. He stated that achievement is most important in those roles which form an important part of the person's self-image.

Effort and Feelings of Achievement

Patchen (46) indicated that it is important to try to account for variations in the extent to which effort in the work situation is perceived as leading to achievement. One variable suggested to affect this relationship is the desire on the part of the individual to live up to a

given standard of excellence. He suggested that this standard is always, directly or indirectly, one which involves comparisons with co-workers.

Patchen indicated that individual need for feedback on performance and job difficulty are other variables affecting the extent to which effort in the work situation is perceived as leading to achievement. He indicated that persons with high needs for achievement respond best to job situations that provide a challenge to their abilities.

Finally, Patchen suggested that another necessary ingredient to provide opportunities for achievement is to permit individuals to have control over means of attaining goals in the work situation. He stated that unless a person feels personal responsibility for job performance, he/she could not feel achievement in reaching some goal. He noted that the individual's control could result in part from actual autonomy (i.e., having responsibility delegated to him/her). The individual also could enjoy a measure of control indirectly by being able to influence the actions of superiors and subordinates. Patchen indicated that the following formula represents the extent to which effort is seen as leading to achievement:

Perceived probability that effort will objectively result in achievement	=	Clear standard of good performance (involving social comparisons)	X	Feedback on performance
	X	Difficulty of reaching goals	X	Control over means of reaching goals

Motivational Factors Affecting the Success of PDM

Singer (55), Ivancevich (56), and Fein (57), among others, have indicated that a number of motivational factors may affect the success of participation in decision-making (PDM). Singer (55) suggested that some

employees want or require a more directive leadership and therefore find PDM dissatisfying. Ivancevich (56) stated that PDM may not be effective with those who are unaccustomed to the involvement. Fein (57) indicated that PDM would not be effective among generally unmotivated employees, i.e., those with low job involvement, low need for achievement, or low commitment to organizational goals.

Organizational Identification

Organizational Identification and Participative Decision-Making

Patchen (29) viewed identification behavior as being composed of feelings of similarity among organizational members. He suggested that the perception of certain things in common, especially shared goals, plays an important part in creating a sense of solidarity and loyalty. He also noted that the perception of getting important satisfactions as a result of organizational membership might promote loyalty to that organization.

Brown (58) asserted that the involvement of individuals in an organization is related to their perceptions of the organization as an exclusive provider of important satisfactions. He added that identification depends on satisfactions and anticipated goal achievement derived from activities that are membership-bound, ego-involving, and intrinsically motivating.

According to Patchen (29), being given the opportunity to participate in decision-making can create important perceived similarities with management and also can be satisfying to many organizational members. He suggested, for example, that participation in setting time deadlines for the work or deciding on changes in work equipment or work methods is

likely to create a greater sense of similarity of status with management, a similarity of values and goals, and increased loyalty to the organization.

Patchen reported studies at Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) which had, as one of the prominent features, a formal program of consultation and joint decision-making between employee and management representative (referred to as the cooperative program). Data were collected from employees in eight administratively separate cooperative programs. Employees were given questionnaires designed to obtain information concerning interest and participation in the cooperative program and the extent to which the cooperative program represented a channel for active participation in work decisions. Also, information on identification with TVA as it related to aspects of participation in the cooperative program was collected.

A fairly strong positive correlation was found between the vigor of a cooperative program (i.e., percentage of employees directly involved in a program, attention given to employees suggestions) and overall level of identification with the work organization. This result however, was not found for all aspects of identification. The results suggested that participation in decision-making is likely to lead to a sense of solidarity with others in the organization but does not necessarily make organizational membership more important to the participants.

Patchen (29) indicated that one of the aspects of identification strongly associated with participation in the cooperative program was the perception of common purpose with management. Results gave only weak support, however, to the notion that perceptions of common purpose with

management could serve as an intervening variable between participation and other attitudes of solidarity with, and support for the organization.

The relationship between organizational identification and direct participation in the immediate job setting (i.e., in decisions about work methods and time limits) also was examined for ninety work groups. A moderate positive association was reported between the average amount of participation that members of a work group enjoyed and their average level of identification with TVA (29).

Finally, Patchen (29) noted that a measure of overall participation in decision-making had the strongest relation to organizational identification of any of a large number of factors examined. Results suggested that a combination of participation in decision-making at both the work group and higher (cooperative program) level might be necessary for sizeable increases in organizational identification to occur.

Brown (58) also studied employees located in five separate divisions of TVA. Most were represented by the employee organizations which met with management through the cooperative conference system. A survey administered to 834 skilled and professional employees was designed to measure each of several aspects of employees reactions to their work situation, to themselves, and to the organization. An index of identification with the work organization was correlated with three other types of variables: (a) measures relating to social structure (i.e., complexity and size); (b) measures of the perception of attributes of social structure, the interpersonal environment, and the task situation; and (c) measures of personality characteristics of members of the functional units.

The index of identification with TVA was related positively to the degree to which members (on the average) perceived the task environment as one which permitted autonomous decision-making and provided opportunities for personal achievement, and to the degree to which members (on the average) perceived the social environment as accessible. The index of identification appeared to be related negatively to the degree to which the task and social structure permitted autonomous decision-making, opportunities for achievement, and perceived access to the organization hierarchy (58).

Analysis of data on identification indicated that employees were tied to an organization to the degree to which opportunities were present to satisfy symbolic motives (i.e., achievement-oriented), not simply pragmatic motives. Brown (58) stated that there appeared to be two general organizational syndromes: (a) an alienative syndrome consisting of social alternatives, complexity of the local organizational setting, limited access to the qualities of membership, and role conflict; and (b) a participative syndrome consisting of opportunities for achievement and access to the qualities of membership. He concluded that one way to establish conditions supportive of identification with the organization is to provide structural support for the participative syndrome.

Organizational Identification as a Predictor of Job Satisfaction and Performance

Hopkins et al. (59) conducted a study to examine organizational identification of non-managerial school foodservice employees. Data from another aspect of research on job satisfaction and performance (43) also were analyzed to study interrelationships. Three hundred and four employees who comprised the sample were employed in ten senior highs and

fourteen junior high schools with on-site food production and service and district administration of the foodservice. Questionnaires were administered to obtain demographic information, information on job satisfaction, work values, and organizational identification.

Job satisfaction and work performance were studied in relation to organization identification behavior. Relatively high organization identification scores were found. Quality foodservice and good relationships with employees were rated as the two most important school foodservice goals. A high degree of congruence was shown between school foodservice managers and employees ratings of school foodservice goals. Personal identity with jobs was a consistent predictor of both job satisfaction and work performance.

Acceptance of Change and Participation in Decision-Making

Studies have indicated that by encouraging participation in decision-making, organizations can increase both the probability that change will be accepted and the overall effectiveness of that change (29, 60). Coch and French (60) conducted studies on groups of workers involved in designing changes in jobs in a pajama factory. Results indicated that the "rate of recovery" to changes in a job was directly proportional to the amount of worker participation, and rates of turnover and aggression were inversely proportional to the amount of participation. Coch and French suggested that it is possible for management to overcome resistance to change if the need for change is communicated effectively and if group participation is encouraged in planning for change.

Patchen (29) conducted studies at TVA investigating acceptance of change and employee participation in a program of labor management

consultation. A strong association was found between the vigor of the program and the index of acceptance of change in that program. The association was strongest between the amount of information employees received and acceptance of change. Acceptance of change also was related strongly to the percentage of employees who served on program committees, to perceptions of the consideration given to suggestions, and to the index of participation through the program.

Davis (47) indicated that participation in decision-making is helpful both in planning and installing changes because when employees understand the objectives and content of a change, they will be confident that management is not trying to "pull a fast one" on them. He noted that participation might actually improve carefully devised management plans, because it elicits the ideas of the persons who are most thoroughly acquainted with the working effects of those plans. Davis stated that when a change is within managements' control, such as the determination of a new work method, best results will be realized when the group participates in the recognition of the need for change.

Lewin (61) indicated that group participation is more effective in instigating change because of the power of "face to face" relationships in groups. Also, he indicated that groups are more pliable than individuals and suggested that "group-carried changes" are more readily brought about because of the unwillingness of the individual to depart too far from group standards.

Feldman and Kanter (62) assumed a somewhat linear relationship between increased participation in organizational decision-making and system outcomes such as willingness to adopt change, increase administrative control, and greater individual integration into the organization.

Anthony (2) stated that since change is often resisted by employees participation in decision-making becomes a key method to encourage change and put employees in a "change-oriented" frame of mind. He cited studies indicating that when people participate in making changes they will be more accepting of them and when change is viewed as being imposed on them by someone else, they tend to resist change.

Interest in Work Innovation and Participative Decision-Making

Anderson and Fiedler (63) conducted studies to compare the effectiveness of groups engaged in four creativity tasks under two leadership conditions, participatory and supervisory. In the participatory condition, the leader of the group was asked to contribute freely to group discussion. In the supervisory condition, the leader was asked to act as the coordinator and evaluator of the group's problem-solving. The sample included 120 Naval officers (ROTC) at the University of Illinois. Leaders were the senior midshipmen and the group members consisted of freshmen and sophomores in the Naval officers' training program. The participatory leader was found to be an extra source of ideas in the group and was likely, therefore, to increase the quantitative output of the team. The supervisory leader, on the other hand, could devote attention to guiding the group and to screening out the ideas of low quality.

Patchen (63) stated that from an organizational point of view much benefit could come from a search by employees at all levels for better ways to do things. For the individual, a continuing interest in innovation might represent an alertness which permitted use of an individual's mind and abilities. He noted that interest in innovation also might be

an indicator of general interest and involvement of employees in their jobs.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The objective of the research was to compare perceptions among non-supervisory hospital foodservice employees regarding their participation in decisions affecting their jobs with corresponding levels of job satisfaction, motivation, organizational identification, job innovation, acceptance of changes, and performance. An employee survey instrument and an accompanying performance evaluation form were used for data collection. Nonsupervisory employees in selected midwestern hospitals completed the survey. Supervisors completed a performance evaluation form used by Shaffer (44) as a measure of employee job performance of each participating employee under their direction. In addition, wage, tenure, and absentee data on each employee were collected, along with various other demographic and organizational data to assist in analysis of results.

Selection of Hospitals

Eight hospitals were selected initially from the American Hospital Association Guide to the Health Care Field (65) as the study sites. The hospitals were selected according to facility size and locality. The selected hospitals were medium to large-size (275-750 beds), short-term, non-unionized, general hospitals located in Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska. The foodservice directors of each hospital were contacted by telephone to explain the purposes and procedures of the study. Four of

eight directors agreed to participate in the study. One foodservice director, of the four who refused to participate, declined because the foodservice was being converted from a decentralized to a centralized system. Another refused because the foodservice did not meet the limitations of the study; the foodservice employees were unionized. The other two directors who declined indicated that they did not have sufficient staff to cover the time demands of the study.

Three alternate hospitals were identified and each of the foodservice directors agreed to participate. Foodservice employees and managers in the seven selected hospitals comprised the resultant sample.

Preliminary Work

A preliminary instrument (Appendix A) including eight different measurement tools was developed to satisfy the objectives of the research study. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith et al. (66), was used to measure employee satisfaction. A participation index was adapted from three different sources: the Psychological Influence index used by Vroom (4), an index of participation in decision-making used by Hage and Aiken (67), and items from the Survey of Organizations questionnaire developed by researchers at the University of Michigan in their studies of organizations (68). Other measurement indexes included in the questionnaire were adapted from Patchen (64): the Job Motivation Index, Acceptance of Job Changes Index, Interest in Work Innovation Index, and Identification with Work Organization Index. The performance evaluation form used by Shaffer (44), which was adapted from that used by Hopkins et al. (43), was selected to evaluate employee performance. Several

biographical items also were included in the questionnaire, adapted from those used by Martin and Vaden (35).

The employee survey instrument was administered in a pilot study prior to the actual research at a community hospital foodservice not included in the study. The objective was to provide experience for researcher in data collection procedures and to determine needed revisions in the questionnaires or study design. Several questions on the employee questionnaire were deleted that were repetitious of others or that provided unnecessary information. Several questions were reworded to improve clarity; additional response categories were developed for some items as suggested by results and comments from the pretest.

Employee Survey Instrument

The final instrument (Appendix B) for the employee survey was printed in an eight page booklet. The cover sheet identified the sponsoring organization and included a statement encouraging participation in the study. Table 1 identifies the variables measured by the employee survey, summarizes the sources of the measures, and lists items on the questionnaire measuring these variables.

Part I. Job Satisfaction Measures

The JDI developed by Smith et al. (66) was used to measure job satisfaction. The JDI was designed to measure satisfaction in relation to various components of work: promotion, pay, supervision, the work itself, and co-workers. Development of the JDI involved extensive research including responses of 952 people in seven different organizations. The instrument is composed of seventy-two descriptive adjectives grouped within the five major components. Nine items are in the

Table 1: Sources for items on employee questionnaire

variable	measure	source	items in questionnaire
job satisfaction	Job Descriptive Index, JDI	Smith et al. (66)	Part I
participation in decision-making	Psychological Influence Index	Vroom (4)	Part II, questions 1-4
		Hage and Aiken (67)	Part II, question 5
	Survey of Organizations	Taylor and Bowers (68)	Part II, questions 6 and 7
job motivation	Job Motivation Index	Patchen (64)	Part II, questions 8-11
acceptance of job change	Acceptance of Changes Index	Patchen (64)	Part II, questions 12-17
interest in work innovation	Interest in Work Innovation Index	Patchen (64)	Part II, questions 18-23
organizational identification	Identification with Organization Index	Patchen (64)	Part II, questions 24-29
biographical data		Martin and Vaden (35)	Part III

components of pay and promotion and eighteen items are included in the categories of supervision, co-workers, and work. The respondent is asked to write "yes" next to an item (or adjective) that describes perceptions related to pay (promotion, work, etc.) and "no" for an item that does not. A question mark "?" is used to indicate that the respondent could not decide.

The JDI is widely used and is considered highly reliable (69). Also, recent studies have indicated (70, 71) that the JDI had good stability coefficients over time and was applicable to employees with different demographic characteristics. Smith et al. (66) indicated an advantage of the JDI is that the verbal level of the items is quite low and does not require the respondent to understand complicated abstractions. The reliability or internal consistency of JDI was determined to be between .74 and .79, depending upon the scoring method employed.

Part II. Measures of Other Criterion Variables of the Study

Participation. Seven questions used for measurement of participation in decision-making were taken from three different sources: The Psychological Influence Index developed by Vroom (4), an index of participation in decision-making used by Hage and Aiken (67), and the Survey of Organization questionnaire developed by researchers at the University of Michigan (68). The Psychological Influence Index was used by Vroom (4) in a study to determine whether participation in decision-making varied with the personality structure of the follower. The four questions (Part II, items 1-4) from Vroom's research were revised slightly for use in this questionnaire: (a) In general, how much influence or say, do you feel you have on what goes on in your work unit?

(b) To what degree do you feel you can influence the decisions of your immediate supervisor regarding things over which you are concerned? (c) How frequently does your immediate supervisor ask your opinion when a problem comes up which involves your work? and (d) If you have a suggestion for improving a job or changing an operation in some way, how easy is it for you to get your ideas across to your immediate supervisor? Respondents were asked to select the most applicable alternative on a five-point scale: 1, representing low participation, to 5, representing high participation.

In Vroom's study (4) of personality determinants and participation in decision-making among line supervisors, test-retest reliability of the index from use over a seven month period was .61 for ninety-one supervisors. When fourteen supervisors who changed either their position or their superior during this period were removed from the group, the reliability coefficient increased to .63.

One question (Part II, item 5) was from Hage and Aiken's (67) index of participation in decision-making. Three others which were directed toward higher management or were repetitious were not used. The index was designed to measure the degree to which the occupants of various positions participated in decisions about the allocation of resources and the determination of organization policies. The degree of participation in decision-making was measured by obtaining an average of participation by staff members in organization-wide decisions such as the hiring of personnel, the promotion of personnel, the adoption of new policies, and the institution of new services.

The last two items on participation (Part II, items 6-7) were from the Survey of Organization questionnaire developed by researchers at the

University of Michigan (68). The Survey, used as a core measurement tool in a program of developmental studies of industrial and commercial enterprises, taps certain critical dimensions of organizational climate, managerial leadership, peer behavior, group processes, and satisfaction. Only questions from the decision-making index were utilized for the present research. The internal consistency reliability estimate for decision-making practices index was .79.

Job Motivation. The Job Motivation Index consisted of four questions (Part II, items 8-11) designed to measure general devotion of energy to job tasks. The index was used by Patchen (64) in his study performed in five geographically separate units of Tennessee Valley Authority and in a private electronics company. The instruments from his research were used to measure employee motivation and morale and to a lesser extent, employee attitudes toward their jobs. Patchen reported that all four questions on the Job Motivation Index showed evidence of validity; however, test-retest reliability data were available for only two of the questions, .80 for individuals and .83 for small groups.

Acceptance of Job Change. The Acceptance of Job Changes Index, also from Patchen (64), is a five-item index (Part II, items 12-17) designed to assess employee readiness to accept changes introduced into the work situation. The data indicated a reliability for the five-item index of .76 for individuals and .80 for small groups. Scores for larger groups were expected to be more stable and thus even more reliable.

Interest in Work Innovation. Patchen's (64) Interest in Work Innovation Index consisted of six items (Part II, 18-23) used to measure the degree to which employees indicate interest in finding better ways to

do their jobs. Patchen contended that a continuing interest in innovation could represent an alertness on the part of individuals to use their minds and abilities and for employees, an indicator of general interest and involvement in their jobs. The test-retest reliability for the six-item index was .87 for individuals and .92 for groups.

Organization Identification. Identification with Work Organization Index is an eight-item instrument (Part II, 24-29) used to measure employee solidarity (i.e., of common interest and purpose) with other members of the organization. The index also was developed by Patchen (64) for the studies mentioned above. Results from Patchen's studies suggested that the questions possessed a degree of validity sufficient to make them useful for making gross distinctions between those high and low on organizational identification.

Part III. Demographic Information

The demographic data requested included the following: basis of employment (full-time or part-time), length of employment in job, educational background, prior job, area of work, marital status, and age. The demographical questions were asked both for descriptive purposes and to study relationships between demographic variables and perceptions of participation in decision-making and the other research variables.

Performance Evaluation Instrument

The performance evaluation form (Appendix C) used by Shaffer (44) and adapted from Hopkins et al. (43) was completed by each employee's supervisor to provide assessment of nineteen aspects of job performance in relation to six dimensions: quality of work, quantity of work, ability

to follow instructions, initiative and judgment, attendance, and personal relations. Two to four items were included within each dimension. Individual items were rated on a five-point scale: superior, above average, satisfactory, needs improvement, and unsatisfactory. Hopkins et al. found the reliability of the evaluation instrument was .98. Shaffer (44) reported that the reliability of the overall instrument was .91 and that for the dimension scores, reliability varied from .80 to .94.

Procedures Prior to On-Site Visit

The seven participating foodservice directors were contacted by telephone and informed that the researcher would require two days to present the questionnaire to as many nonsupervisory personnel as possible, preferably in small group settings (Appendix D). Also, the plan for supervisory personnel to evaluate each participating employee under their supervision was discussed. The researcher offered to share a summary of the results with the foodservice director. A date for a preliminary visit was arranged with the foodservice director to discuss the research in more detail and to establish possible administration dates for the instrument and other data collection.

A letter confirming the telephone conversation was mailed to each foodservice director (Appendix D). Directors and other management personnel were asked to solicit the participation of their nonsupervisory personnel.

At the preliminary visit, the researcher met with the foodservice director and other key personnel to discuss details of the study. Each director was given a copy of the research proposal that provided

background and details of the study. Dates for on-site data collection visits were scheduled. The director was asked to identify a person who would assist the researcher in collection of various organizational data during the on-site visit.

A follow-up letter was sent to the foodservice directors confirming dates of on-site visits; memoranda to be distributed to the foodservice supervisors were included in the mailing, which explained supervisory participation in the study (Appendix D). Each foodservice director was contacted by phone one week prior to the visit to confirm the dates and times. The director of one hospital cancelled the original data collection dates and rescheduled a time two months later because of internal employee problems within the organization that the director indicated might bias the results.

Procedures for On-Site Visits

Completion of Employee Ratings

Two days were spent at each hospital for data collection. Procedures were patterned after those of Martin, Swartz, and Vaden (35, 72), Hopkins et al. (43), and Shaffer (44). At the outset of the visits, a brief conference was held with the foodservice director and other key personnel. The questionnaires were administered to the hospital foodservice personnel in groups at each facility in accordance with the schedule established with the management at each site. Questionnaire administration followed until all employees who were willing to participate had completed the survey. Approximately 30 minutes were required for employees to complete the instrument. Participants were assured that their responses would be confidential.

The instruments, an envelope, and a pencil were placed on a chair for each respondent prior to arrival. A standard verbal explanation (Appendix E) was given to participants prior to survey completion at each hospital. A poster (Appendix E) illustrating correct response to the JDI was explained as suggested by Hopkins (73). In preliminary work, she found that school foodservice personnel had difficulty in understanding directions for completion of the JDI.

Participants were informed that responses to the questionnaire would not be seen by supervisors. Managerial personnel were not present during administration of the instrument. Each employee was provided with informed consent information, verbally and written (Appendix E).

Each respondent was assigned an identification number that was placed on the questionnaire and also on a card that could be detached from the questionnaire. This identification scheme permitted later pairing of respondents' questionnaires with job performance evaluations. The respondents were instructed to place their name on the card, detach it, and return it to the researcher before completing the questionnaire. After completion, the respondents were asked to place the questionnaires in envelopes provided and return them directly to the researcher.

Supervisory Ratings of Employee Performance

The study was explained to the supervisors of the participating food-services and they were given a packet including another copy of the memorandum (Appendix D) mailed earlier, performance evaluation forms (Appendix C) for each employee under their direction, and a return envelope. The memorandum provided written informed consent information and further clarification. Supervisors were assured that the performance

evaluation forms would be kept completely confidential and used only for research purposes. A card with employees' names and identification (ID) numbers were attached to numbered evaluation forms to permit linking of employee responses and performance evaluations without having employees' names appear on the evaluation forms. Supervisors were assured that the ID numbers would be used for analysis purposes only. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were provided for supervisors to return the forms as soon as possible after the time of the visit. A follow-up memorandum was sent to nonrespondents two weeks after the visit (Appendix F).

Collection of Organizational Data

While at the facility, a form was completed to document the visit and other information was collected to aid in interpretation of results and provide additional research data. Other data included absentee data for each employee, an organizational chart, job descriptions, pay scales and individual employee wage rates, personnel policies, and work schedules (refer to Appendix G for copies of forms).

For this study, absenteeism was defined as any occasion when the worker failed to report for duty during the nine month period immediately preceding data collection visits to the hospitals when the absence was not planned in advance. Single long-term absences due to illness, accidents, or maternity leave were recorded as only one absence; i.e., absence was recorded by number of occasions, not duration of absences.

The researcher collected additional data when the questionnaire was not being administered. A form was used to check collection of individual data and a checklist was maintained during each visit to assure all appropriate data had been gathered (Appendix G).

Each foodservice director was sent a follow-up letter (Appendix F). Also, a memorandum was sent to contact persons at each hospital if all supervisors had not returned envelopes containing the completed performance evaluations for each employee for whom they were responsible. The follow-up memorandum to nonresponding supervisors was enclosed along with an additional self report form, and additional performance evaluation forms as needed.

Data Analysis

Employees at the seven hospitals surveyed were assigned a job categorization number according to Shaffer's scheme (Appendix H). The numbers utilized for coding purposes corresponded to the following list of job titles:

1. cafeteria worker
2. cashier
3. cook
4. dietetic clerk
5. general foodhandler
6. general kitchen worker
7. patient tray attendant
8. sanitation worker
9. storeroom worker

Data were coded and keypunched on three cards for computer processing (Appendix I). Programs and routines in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (74) were used for all data analysis except for the analysis of variance. Absolute and relative frequencies were compiled for all items on the research instrument.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was scored according to Smith et al. (66) (Table 2). In scoring the JDI, items are designated as positive or negative descriptors of the various aspects of a particular job. Weights are assigned to responses in computation of scores. The scoring

Table 2: JDI items with positive and negative items and scoring[1]

pay[2,3]	promotion
__+__ income adequate for normal expenses	__+__ good opportunity for advancement
__+__ satisfactory profit sharing	__-__ opportunity somewhat limited
__-__ barely live on income	__+__ promotion on ability
__-__ bad	__-__ dead-end job
__+__ income provides luxuries	__+__ good chance for promotion
__-__ insecure	__-__ unfair promotions
__-__ less than I deserve	__-__ infrequent promotions
__+__ highly paid	__+__ regular promotions
__-__ underpaid	__+__ fairly good chance for promotion

[1]Source: Smith et al. (66).

[2]Scoring: + = positive indicator
- = negative indicator
yes to a positive indicator = 3
no to a negative indicator = 3
yes to a negative indicator = 0
no to a positive indicator = 0
question mark to any response = 1

[3]Score of each component = Σ of item scores.
Overall satisfaction score = Σ of scores on work + supervision + co-workers + 2 (pay + promotion).

Table 2: (cont.)

work itself	supervision	co-workers
+ fascinating	+ asks my advice	+ stimulating
- routine	- hard to please	- boring
+ satisfying	- impolite	- slow
- boring	+ praises good work	+ ambitious
+ good	+ tactful	- stupid
+ creative	+ influential	+ responsible
+ respected	+ up-to-date	+ fast
- hot	- doesn't supervise enough	+ intelligent
+ pleasant	- quick tempered	- easy to make enemies
+ useful	+ tells me where I stand	- talk too much
- tiresome	- annoying	+ smart
+ healthful	- stubborn	- lazy
+ challenging	+ knows job well	- unpleasant
- on your feet	- bad	- no privacy
- frustrating	+ intelligent	+ active
- simple	+ leaves me on my own	- narrow interests
- endless	- lazy	+ loyal
+ gives a sense of accomplishment	+ around when needed	- hard to meet

and positive (+) and negative (-) items were included in Table 2; the higher the score, the higher the job satisfaction. Five component scores are computed for the JDI. The maximum score is 54 for three components, work, supervision, and co-workers; 27, for pay and promotion components. The pay and promotion scores are doubled and combined with the other three scores to compute an overall satisfaction score.

Research scores from Part II of the employee questionnaire were computed by summing items within each index as indicated in Table 3. Scoring methods employed for variables were adapted from those utilized by Vroom (4), Hage and Aiken (67), Taylor and Bowers (68), and Patchen (64).

Table 3: Computation of selected research scores from employee questionnaire

scores	computation
	Σ of items in Part II:
psychological influence (PSYI)	items 1-4
decision-making influence (DMI)	items 6, 7
job motivation (JM)	items 8-11
acceptance of change (ACI)	items 12-17
interest in innovation (II)	items 18-23
organizational identification (OID)	items 24-29

Coefficient alpha was used to analyze reliability of the research scores (Table 4). Based on findings of the initial evaluation, modifications were made to increase reliability. Two scores (PSYI and DMI), and one additional item (Part II, item 5) were combined to compute the participation in decision-making score (PART): two other scores (ACI and

Table 4: Reliability coefficients of selected research scores

score[1]	coefficient alpha	
	initial	modified
psychological influence (PSYI)	.78	
decision making influence (DMI)	.70	
participation[2] (PART)		.78
job motivation (JM)	.27	
acceptance of change (ACI)	.41	
interest in innovation (II)	.50	
change orientation[3] (ACIII)		.50
organizational identification (OID)	.52	

[1]N varies from 183 to 210. Refer to Table 3 for computation of scores.

[2]PSYI, DMI, and one additional item (Part II, item 5) were combined to compute PART score.

[3]ACI and II were combined and one item (Part II, item 15) was deleted to increase reliability.

II) were combined and one item (Part II, item 15) was deleted to increase reliability for a Change Orientation score (ACIII). The Job Motivation score was not sufficiently reliable for use in further analysis; therefore, analysis was limited to compilation of responses on individual items comprising the scale.

Supervisory ratings of various aspects of each employee's job performance were used to compute six scores (Table 5). Two to four items comprised each dimension of job performance. The score for each dimension was the sum of the ratings on each item. An overall score was

Table 5: Computation of work performance scores

score	computation
quality of work (Qual)	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ of items 1a-d}^{1}}{4}$
quantity of work (Quan)	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ of items 2a-c}}{3}$
following directions (Fol Dir)	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ of items 3a-d}}{4}$
initiative and judgment (Ini Jud)	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ of items 4a-c}}{3}$
attendance (Atten)	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ of items 5a and b}}{2}$
personal relations (Per Rel)	$\frac{\Sigma \text{ of items 6a-c}}{3}$
overall performance	Σ of Qual, Quan, Fol Dir, Ini Jud, Atten, Per Rel

[1]Refers to item numbers on performance evaluation form.

computed by summing scores on each dimension. Reliability was assessed using coefficient alpha (Table 6). Coefficients ranged from .83 to .93.

An objective of the study was to compare results in relation to high and low participation jobs. Relatively small numbers of employees comprised each of Shaffer's job categories (N = 6 to 38); therefore, mean participation scores were computed for jobs which provided a basis for their classification as being high and low participation. Job satisfaction, change orientation, organizational identification, and work performance scores were analyzed using general linear model analysis of variance (75). Independent variables utilized were job type (high or low participation), age, and tenure.

Table 6: Reliability coefficients for work performance scores computed from supervisory ratings

work performance scores[1]	coefficient alpha
quality of work	.92
quantity of work	.93
following directions	.93
initiative and judgment	.88
attendance	.89
personal relations	.83
overall job performance	.93

[1] N varies from 205 to 214. Refer to Table 5 for computation of scores.

Since high levels of work performance and job satisfaction are desired organizational outcomes, multiple regression was used to identify predictors of job performance and satisfaction scores. Predictors were: wage, tenure, participation in decision-making, organizational identification, and change orientation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of the Sample

The characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 7. The sample (N = 213) was comprised of nonsupervisory foodservice workers in non-unionized hospital foodservices, employed in seven midwestern hospitals in Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska.[1] Approximately half of the sample indicated they were 31 years or older (53 per cent). Only 8.9 per cent were under 18 years of age.

A large majority (87.8 per cent) of the sample were female. The percentage of respondents who were married (48.4 per cent) was approximately the same as those not married (43.7 per cent). Many of the persons surveyed (67.6 per cent) had resided in their current location for 11 years or longer. A large majority of the respondents (72.8 per cent) had completed high school; only a few had attended college.

Using the standard job categorization for hospital foodservice workers developed by Shaffer (44), the participants from the seven hospitals in the study were classified into nine jobs. The respondents were fairly evenly distributed among the cafeteria clerks, cooks, dietetic clerks, general foodhandlers, and patient tray attendants (14.0 to 18.7 per cent), but considerably fewer held positions as kitchen, sanitation, and storeroom workers (2.8 to 7.9 per cent). Approximately 93 per cent of the workers were employed full-time; almost half had a prior job in the foodservice industry.

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[1]General information about hospitals is in Appendix J.

Table 7: Characteristics of the sample

characteristic	N	%[1]
age		
15 to 18 years	19	8.9
19 to 24 years	43	20.2
25 to 30 years	38	17.8
31 to 50 years	55	25.8
51 or more years	58	27.2
sex		
female	187	87.8
male	26	12.2
marital status		
married	103	48.4
widowed	17	8.0
not married	93	43.7
years lived in area		
0 to 4 years	32	15.2
5 to 10 years	36	17.1
11 or more years	142	67.6
highest educational level		
grade school	20	9.4
high school	155	72.8
attended 1 or more years college	34	16.0
college graduate	3	1.4
vocational school	1	.5
job positions		
cafeteria worker	35	14.0
cook	38	17.8
dietetic clerk	35	16.4
general foodhandler	37	17.3
general kitchen worker	6	2.8
patient tray attendant	40	18.7
sanitation worker	17	7.9
storeroom worker	6	2.8

[1] N varies from 210 to 214 because of nonresponses.

Table 7: (cont.)

characteristic	N	%
tenure		
6 mos or less	46	21.5
7 mos to 18 mos	50	23.4
>18 mos to 5 years	37	17.2
>5 years to 10 years	40	18.7
>10 years	41	19.2
basis of employment		
full-time	197	92.9
part-time	15	7.1
clientele contact		
patients	52	24.3
cafeteria customers	43	20.1
both patients and cafeteria customers	33	15.4
neither	86	40.2
prior job		
foodservice related	104	49.0
other	73	34.4
none	35	16.5

Of the 59.8 per cent of the sample who reported having clientele contact, 24.3 per cent indicated that their contact was with patients, 20.1 per cent reported contact with cafeteria customers, and 15.4 per cent indicated they had contact with both patients and cafeteria customers. Approximately 40 per cent indicated they did not have clientele contact.

Martin, Swartz, and Vaden (35, 72), and Shaffer (44) also conducted research among nonsupervisory hospital foodservice employees in several midwestern hospitals. The demographic data collected from those studies were compared with data from the present study to determine if there were differences between work groups or if they tended to be a homogeneous group. Similarities were found in age distributions between Martin and Vaden's (35) and Swartz and Vaden's (72) samples and the present study. Shaffer's (44) sample, however, was somewhat younger; 54 per cent of the participants in his study were 29 years or younger. In all three of the other studies, the majority of the respondents indicated they had resided in the area 11 years or longer. Similarities also existed in the level of educational achievement; most respondents achieved high school graduation but few held degrees from college. Also, persons surveyed in Martin, Swartz, and Vaden's (35, 72) studies and in Shaffer's research (44), indicated they had previously held foodservice related positions and the majority were full-time employees. Similarities, therefore, existed in all three studies; respondents were fairly long-time residents in the area, had achieved a high school level of education, had held foodservice positions previously, and were employed full-time.

Analysis of Participation in Decision-Making and Related Measures

Participation in Decision-Making Measures

Table 8 presents the distribution of responses to items concerning participation in decision-making. Many of the respondents (42.5 per cent) reported having little or very little influence or say in what went on in their work unit. A fairly large number (36.4 per cent) indicated having some influence, whereas only about 20 per cent reported having much influence or say in what went on in their work unit.

Many of the respondents (43.2 per cent) indicated they had some influence over the decisions of their immediate supervisor regarding things over which they were concerned. Approximately 35 per cent reported having little or very little influence over such decisions and 21.6 per cent indicated having much or very much influence over supervisory decisions concerning them.

Over 40 per cent indicated they were occasionally asked for their opinion by their immediate supervisor and another 24.6 per cent reported being asked either often or always. A greater percentage of respondents (31.7 per cent) indicated that it was easy or very easy to get their ideas across to their immediate supervisor than thought it was difficult or very difficult (21.8 per cent). Many of the sample (46.6 per cent) indicated that they had mixed feelings concerning how easily they were able to convey their ideas to their supervisor.

Approximately 87 per cent of the employees reported that they never or seldom participated in the decision to hire new employees. Many of the respondents (45 per cent) indicated that the persons affected by decisions made in their department were asked to a little or very little

Table 8: Responses to items concerning participation in decision-making

item	response category	%[1]
In general, how much influence or say do you feel you have on what goes on in your work unit?	very little	32.7
	little	9.8
	some	36.4
	much	12.6
	very much	8.4
To what degree do you feel you can influence the decisions of your immediate supervisor regarding things over which you are concerned?	very little	23.9
	little	11.3
	some	43.2
	much	15.5
	very much	6.1
How frequently does your immediate supervisor ask your opinion when a problem comes up which involves your work?	never	16.0
	rarely	18.4
	occasionally	41.0
	often	15.6
	always	9.0
If you have a suggestion for improving a job or changing an operation in some way, how easy is it for you to get your ideas across to your immediate supervisor?	very difficult	10.4
	difficult	11.4
	mixed	46.4
	easy	24.6
	very easy	7.1
How frequently do you usually participate in the decision to hire new employees?	seldom	11.7
	sometimes	7.5
	often	3.8
	always	1.9
	never	75.1
When decisions are being made in this department to what extent are the persons affected asked for their ideas?	to a very little extent	41.3
	to a little extent	17.8
	to some extent	31.0
	to a great extent	8.0
	to a very great extent	1.9
People at all levels in an organization may have information about how to do things better. To what extent do you feel information from all levels is used for making decisions in this department?	to a very little extent	28.7
	to a little extent	16.3
	to some extent	37.8
	to a great extent	12.4
	to a very great extent	4.8

[1] N varies from 211 to 214 because of nonresponses.

extent for their ideas about how to do things better. Almost 40 per cent (37.8 per cent) reported the persons affected by such decisions were asked for their ideas to some extent. Only 17.2 per cent indicated that persons having information about how to do things better were asked for their input in decisions concerning their department to a great or a very great extent.

Job Motivation Measures

Four questions related to job motivation of the foodservice were included in the study. Many of the respondents (46.5 per cent) indicated that on most work days time never seemed to drag (Table 9); although 25.3 per cent believed time dragged at work about a third to half a day. About three-fourths (74.4 per cent) indicated they were moderately to very strongly involved in their jobs; whereas 25.6 per cent indicated limited or little involvement.

Over half of the employees (52.6 per cent) reported they did extra work that was not required of them almost every day and another 36.4 per cent indicated they did extra work between one to three times a week. Over half of the sample (52.1 per cent) indicated they worked harder or much harder than most other employees doing the same type of work in their department. Most of the remaining employees (46 per cent) indicated they worked about the same as most other people.

Acceptance of Change and Interest in Innovation

Table 10 details responses to items concerning acceptance of change and interest in innovation. Approximately 40 per cent of the respondents indicated that only 5 per cent or fewer of the changes in the way a job was done were more trouble than they were worth. About 20 per cent

Table 9: Responses to items concerning job motivation

item	response category	%[1]
On most work days, how often does time seem to drag for you?	about half the day or more	19.2
	about one-third of the day	6.1
	about one-quarter of the day	11.3
	about one-eighth of the day	16.9
	time never seems to drag	46.5
Some people are completely involved in their job--they are absorbed in it night and day. For other people, their job is simply one of several interests. How involved do you feel in your job?	very little involved; my other interests are more absorbing	14.7
	slightly involved	10.9
	moderately involved; my job and my other interests are equally absorbing to me	42.2
	strongly involved	25.1
	very strongly involved; my work is the most absorbing interest in my life	7.1
How often do you do some extra work for your job which isn't really required of you?	almost every day	52.6
	two or three times a week	20.1
	about once a week	16.3
	once every few weeks	5.7
	about once a month or less	5.3
Would you say you work harder, less hard, or about the same as other people doing your type of work in this department?	much harder than most others	21.8
	a little harder than most others	30.3
	about the same as most others	46.0
	a little less hard than most others	1.4
	much less hard than most others	0.5

[1] N varies from 209 to 211 because of nonresponses.

Table 10: Responses to items concerning acceptance of change and interest in innovation

item	response category	%[1]
Sometimes changes in the way a job is done are more trouble than they are worth because they create a lot of problems and confusion. How often do you feel that changes which have affected you and your job in this organization have been like this?	50% or more of the changes have been more trouble than they're worth	21.2
	about 40% of the changes	10.8
	about 25% of the changes	12.3
	about 15% of the changes	15.3
	only 5% or fewer of the changes have been more trouble than they're worth	40.4
From time to time changes in policies, procedures, and equipment are introduced by the management. How often do these changes lead to better ways of doing things?	changes of this kind never improve things	8.3
	they seldom do	8.7
	about half of the time they do	35.0
	most of the time they do	30.6
	changes of this kind are always an improvement	17.5
How well do the various people in the department who are affected by these changes accept them?	very few of the people involved accept the changes	13.1
	less than half do	9.7
	about half of them do	18.9
	most of them do	35.4
	practically all of the people involved accept the changes	22.8
Within the past year have there been any changes in the way your job is done--like in the equipment you work with, the work procedures, the job standards and requirements, the kind of records you have to keep, etc.? There have been:	no changes; my work is done exactly the way it was a year ago	19.3
	one or two changes; but it is not too different	27.7
	a few changes; it's a little difficult now	25.2
	quite a few changes; things are fairly different	16.8
	many changes; my work is almost completely different now from the way it was a year ago	10.9

[1] N varies from 196 to 209 because of nonresponses.

Table 10: (cont.)

item	response category	%
In general, how do you now feel about changes during the past year that affected the way your job is done?	there have been no changes in my job in the past year	22.9
	made things somewhat worse	11.9
	not improved things at all	7.0
	not improved things very much	12.9
	improved things somewhat	33.8
	been a big improvement	11.4
During the past year when changes were introduced that affected the way your job is done, how did you feel about them at first? At first I thought the changes would:	make things somewhat worse	8.7
	not improve things at all	9.2
	not improve things very much	23.0
	improve things somewhat	34.7
	be a big improvement	13.3
	there have been no changes in my job in the past year	11.2
In your kind of work, if a person tries to change the usual way of doing things how does it generally turn out?	usually turns out worse; the tried and true methods work best in my kind of work	18.6
	usually doesn't make much difference	48.5
	usually turns out better; our methods need improvement	32.8
Some people prefer doing a job in pretty much the same way because this way they can count on always doing a good job. Others like to go out of their way in order to think up new ways of doing things. How is it with you on your job?	I always prefer doing things pretty much in the same way	21.5
	I mostly prefer doing things pretty much in the same way	39.7
	I mostly prefer doing things in new and different ways	27.8
	I always prefer doing things in new and different ways	11.0
How often do you try out, on your own, a better or faster way of doing something on the job?	once a week or more often	39.9
	two or three times a month	19.7
	about once a month	10.1
	every few months	12.5
	rarely or never	17.8
How often do you get chances to try out your own ideas on your job, either before or after checking with your supervisor?	several times a week or more	16.1
	about once a week	13.1
	several times a month	10.1
	about once a month	16.1
	less than once a month	44.7

Table 10: (cont.)

item	response category	%
In your kind of job, it's usually better to let your supervisor worry about new or better ways of doing things.	strongly agree	25.4
	mostly agree	32.7
	mostly disagree	25.9
	strongly disagree	18.0
How many times in the past year have you suggested to your supervisor a different or better way of doing something on the job?	never had occasion to do this during the past year	39.6
	once or twice	24.3
	about three times	11.4
	about five times	7.9
	six to ten times	7.9
	more than ten times had occasion to do this during the past year	8.9

indicated that 50 per cent or more of the changes were not worth the trouble because they created problems or confusion.

About two-thirds indicated that the changes in policies, procedures, and equipment introduced by management led to better ways of doing things either most (35 per cent) or about half the time (30.6 per cent). Considerably fewer employees indicated they believed changes of this kind seldom or never improved things; whereas 17.5 per cent were always supportive of policy or procedural changes.

Over half of the respondents (58.2 per cent) indicated that most or all of the people in the department affected by the changes accepted them; 22.8 per cent indicated that less than half or very few of the people accepted change. The remainder (18.9 per cent) indicated that about half of the people accepted changes affecting their work.

Over half the respondents (52.9 per cent) indicated that within the past year there had been one or two or only a few changes in the way their jobs were done. Another 27.7 per cent indicated there had been quite a few or many changes within the past year in the way their job was performed. Approximately 20 per cent of the employees reported that no changes had been made.

When asked about reactions to changes in their jobs, 45.2 per cent were positive and 31.8 per cent were negative. Another 22.9 per cent reported there were no changes in the past year. When queried about their initial reactions to changes, 48 per cent reported that the changes brought about a degree or a lot of improvement. Almost 32.2 per cent indicated that at first they believed changes would not improve things at all or very much, and 8.7 per cent indicated they first thought the changes would make things worse.

Many employees (48.5 per cent) indicated that in their kind of work, trying to change the usual way of doing things generally did not make much difference. About one-third (32.8 per cent) indicated that such changes caused things to turn out better; whereas 18.6 per cent indicated that changing the usual way of doing things would turn out worse.

Over half of the respondents (61.2 per cent) indicated they mostly or always preferred doing things in the same way. The remainder (38.8 per cent) reported that they always or often preferred doing things in new and different ways. Many of the respondents (39.9 per cent) indicated they tried out a better or faster way of doing something on the job at least once a week or more often. Almost 30 per cent indicated they tried new methods from about one to three times a month, whereas 30.3 per cent indicated they tried out their own better or faster ways of doing things on the job only once every few months, rarely, or never.

Almost 45 per cent of the employees surveyed indicated they had limited opportunity (less than once a month) to try out their own ideas on their job, either before or after checking with their supervisor. Another 39.3 per cent, however, had such a chance several times a month or more often.

A majority (58.1 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed that it was usually better to let the supervisor worry about new or better ways of doing things in their kind of job. The remainder disagreed or strongly disagreed. Almost two-thirds of the respondents (63.9 per cent) indicated that in the past year they never or infrequently (only once or twice) had occasion to make suggestions to their supervisor concerning a different or better way of doing something on the job. Frequent opportunity (more than ten times) was reported by only 8.9 per cent.

Organizational Identification Measures

Six items were used to examine the extent of organizational identification of the foodservice employees (Table 11). Patchen (29) viewed identification behavior as being composed of feelings of similarity among organization members. He suggested that the perception of certain things in common, especially shared goals, plays an important part in creating a sense of solidarity and loyalty. He also noted that the perception of getting important satisfactions as a result of organizational membership might promote loyalty to that organization. Hopkins et al. (59) indicated that identification behavior was comprised of individual feelings of membership, loyalty toward the organization, and defense of the organization.

One measure of organizational identification used in this study asked respondents to indicate agreement or disagreement with two statements concerning extent of shared goals. Statement A related to hospital management and employees working toward the same goal of providing the best possible services to patients and customers; whereas Statement B indicated management looks out for the hospital's interests causing employees to have to look out for their own interests. Over half (54.6 per cent) agreed completely with statement A or agreed more with A than B. Almost 20 per cent (18.9 per cent) of those surveyed indicated they agreed equally with A and B. Considerably fewer (25.6 per cent) agreed more with statement B than A or completely with B. The large percentage of hospital foodservice employees (54.6 per cent) who agreed with statement A suggests they identified to a great degree with the goals of the hospital by considering themselves as sharing a common goal with the institution. Hall et al. (76) indicated that an important way in

Table 11: Responses to items concerning organizational identification

item	response category	%[1]
Here are two statements about the relations between management and employees at your hospital.	agree completely with B	8.7
	agree more with B than A	16.9
	agree equally with A and B	19.8
	agree more with A than B	25.1
A. In this hospital management and employees are working toward the same goal of providing the best possible services to patients and customers.	agree completely with A	29.5
B. In this hospital management looks out for the hospital's interests and employees have to look out for their own interests.		
Which of the two statements above comes closer to your own opinion?		
If you could begin working over again, but in the same occupation as you are in now, how likely would you be to choose this hospital as a place to work?	definitely would choose another place	11.0
	probably would choose another place	12.9
	would not care whether it was here or some other place	15.8
	probably would choose this hospital	33.0
	definitely would choose this hospital	27.3
How would you feel when you hear someone criticizing this hospital?	I mostly agree with the criticism	10.6
	it does not bother me	43.8
	it gets me a little mad	30.8
	it gets me mad most of the time	10.1
	it gets me quite mad	4.8
In general, how often do you tell someone in your immediate family about some things concerning this hospital?	about once a year	8.7
	once every few months	9.2
	about once a month	13.6
	once a week or more	29.1
	every day or two	39.3

[1] N varies from 198 to 209 because of nonresponses.

Table 11: (cont.)

item	response category	%
In general, how often do you tell someone outside your immediate family (friends, neighbors, etc.) about something concerning this hospital?	about once a year	24.2
	once every few months	17.7
	about once a month	20.2
	once a week or more	21.7
	every day or two	16.2
During the past year, how many times did you attend a dinner, picnic, or other social event together with your co-workers outside of work hours?	none	45.7
	once	17.8
	two or three times	16.8
	four times or more	11.1
	no event held since I began work	8.7

which a person becomes integrated into an organization is to incorporate the values and goals of the organization into his/her identity.

Over half of the respondents (60.3 per cent) surveyed indicated that if they began working over again, but in the same occupation as they were currently employed, they would definitely choose the hospital in which they were presently working or probably would choose that hospital. Almost 16 per cent indicated they would not care whether it was at the hospital they were working or some other place. Less than one-fourth (23.9 per cent) indicated they would definitely or probably choose another place to begin working again.

When respondents were asked how they would feel if they heard someone criticizing their hospital, the largest percentage (43.8 per cent) indicated that it would not bother them. Over 45 per cent, however, indicated they would get a little, or quite mad. Defending the organization to outsiders was viewed by Lee (77) as a type of loyalty toward the organization.

Over two-thirds of the respondents (68.4 per cent) indicated they told someone in their immediate family about the hospital where they worked once a week or as frequently as every day or two. The remainder (32.5 per cent) discussed their work with their families infrequently (once a month or less). Over 40 per cent (41.9 per cent) indicated that they told someone outside of their immediate family (i.e., friends, neighbors, etc.) less frequently than once a month about something concerning the hospital. Approximately 20 per cent (20.2 per cent) reported having discussed their work at the hospital with someone outside the family approximately once a month. Almost 40 per cent (37.9 per cent)

indicated they talked about the hospital with friends or neighbors at least once a week or more frequently.

Almost half of the sample (45.7 per cent) indicated that in the past year they had not attended a dinner, picnic, or other social event with their co-workers outside of work hours. A few (8.7 per cent), however, indicated that no event had been held since they began work.

Intercorrelation of Research Scores

Several scores were computed from the measures discussed in the previous sections. As reported in the methods section, three scores with sufficient reliability were the participation in decision-making, change orientation, and organization identification scores. These scores were intercorrelated with the job performance scores computed from supervisory ratings and the job satisfaction ratings computed from responses to the JDI to study relationships. Coefficients are shown in Table 12.

Correlations obtained among the job performance ratings (quality of work, quantity of work, following directions, initiative and judgment, attendance, and personal relations) were fairly high, ranging from .50 to .80. These findings indicated that the six ratings on dimensions of performance were highly interrelated suggesting either a halo effect on the part of supervisors rating the employees or a tendency for workers to perform well in most categories of work if they were high performers.

Lower coefficients were obtained between job satisfaction scores. The correlation coefficients ranged from .17 to .58, although as anticipated higher correlations were obtained between the overall satisfaction score and the component scores (work, pay, etc.). The satisfaction scores were fairly independent or less interrelated than the performance

Table 12: Intercorrelation of scores on job performance, job satisfaction, participation in decision-making, change orientation, and organizational identification[1]

	job performance ratings							job satisfaction scores						other scores		
variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
job performance ratings																
1. quality																
2. quantity	.80															
3. following directions	.77	.77														
4. initiative and judgment	.73	.77	.73													
5. attendance	.57	.60	.60	.50												
6. personal relations	.67	.72	.74	.70	.63											
7. overall score	.88	.90	.89	.86	.77	.86										
job satisfaction scores																
8. work	.20	.26	.24	.24	.17	.25	.26									
9. supervision	.28	.24	.30	.29	.16	.30	.30	.58								
10. pay	.02n.s.	.10n.s.	.10n.s.	.10n.s.	.13	.13	.10n.s.	.33	.18							
11. promotion	.11n.s.	.11n.s.	.13	.13	.11n.s.	.16	.14	.50	.39	.35						
12. co-workers	.18	.18	.20	.20	.16	.22	.22	.48	.47	.17	.28					
13. overall score	.21	.24	.26	.26	.20	.30	.28	.79	.73	.58	.75	.67				
other scores																
14. participation (PART)	.29	.32	.27	.32	.13	.31	.32	.37	.44	.30	.45	.28	.53			
15. organizational identification (OI)	.04n.s.	.11n.s.	.05n.s.	.08n.s.	.13	.11n.s.	.10n.s.	.38	.30	.26	.26	.26	.41	.30		
16. change orientation (ACIII)	.05n.s.	.12	.04n.s.	.10n.s.	.00n.s.	.15	.09	.41	.35	.18	.30	.26	.42	.41	.37	

[1]All values significant except those indicated n.s. N varies from 20e to 214.

rating scores. Smith et al. (66) indicated JDI components were independent measures. Employees may be satisfied with one aspect of their job but not with another. Intercorrelations among the job satisfaction scores and supervisory ratings of job performance produced fairly low correlations between the two types of measures. The highest correlation was .30.

Organizational identification and change orientation scores generally were unrelated to job performance scores. A few weak positive correlations resulted. Coefficients between participation in decision-making and job performance scores were somewhat higher. All were above .27 with one exception. The correlation between the attendance performance score and the participation score was .13.

The organizational identification, change orientation, and participation scores all were related positively to the job satisfaction scores. The weakest correlation was between satisfaction with pay and change orientation. Otherwise, coefficients ranged from .26 to .53. Data indicate that participation in decision-making contributed to both job performance and job satisfaction. Also, stronger identification with the organization was a variable supportive of the development of job satisfaction. In addition, those employees who were more accepting of changes in the organization or job tended to be more satisfied. Neither of the latter two variables (organizational identification or change orientation) were relevant to improved job performance.

Analysis of Participation Scores by Job Type

Mean scores on the scale developed from the participation in decision-making measures (PART) were calculated to classify jobs as high

and low participation due to the relatively small numbers in each of the job categories (Table 13). Of the six positions, four were classified as high participation jobs (cafeteria worker, dietetic clerk, general kitchen or sanitation worker, and patient tray attendant), because scores were not significantly different between these jobs. Two of the six jobs were classified as low participation (cooks and general food handlers) jobs because the PART scores were significantly lower than those of the other six. Mean participation scores for high and low participation jobs also are shown in Table 13. Persons employed in high participation jobs had a mean participation score of 18.35, whereas those in low

Table 13: Participation in decision-making scores by job type

job no.	job type	N	mean participation score[1]	std. error
1	cafeteria worker	35	17.58	0.90
2	cook	38	15.77	0.94
3	dietetic clerk	35	18.71	0.86
4	general food handler	37	14.48	0.90
5	general kitchen or sanitation worker	23	19.18	1.07
6	patient tray attendant	40	18.19	0.82
high participation jobs (jobs 1, 3, 5, and 6)		133	18.35	0.46
low participation jobs (jobs 2 and 4)		75	15.14	0.69

[1]Refer to Tables 3 and 4 for computation of score.

participation positions had a mean of 15.14. This categorization of jobs was used in further analysis of data from other variables in the study.

Analysis of Job Satisfaction, Change Orientation, and Organizational Identification Scores

Analysis of variance was used to study effects of age, tenure, and job type (high or low participation job) on job satisfaction, change orientation, and organizational identification scores. F ratios were significant in analysis of four of the satisfaction scores and the organizational identification score according to age. Scores on satisfaction with pay and promotion were significantly different according to job type (Table 14). Also, overall satisfaction and organizational identification scores differed significantly according to job type. None of the F ratios were significant for effects of tenure on the dependent variables.

Change orientation scores also were examined for differences according to age, tenure, and job. No significant differences were found, however.

Least squares means and standard errors are shown in Table 15 for scores on the six satisfaction measures and the change orientation and organizational identification scores for high and low participation groups and for the five age groups. Means are not shown for the tenure groups because differences were not significant for all variables analyzed. Comparisons of high and low participation groups indicated that the high participation groups scored significantly higher on three dimensions of satisfaction: pay, promotion, and overall satisfaction. Scores on all other satisfaction measures tended to be higher for the high participation group than for the low participation group. The overall satisfaction

Table 14: Analysis of variance of job satisfaction, change orientation, and organizational identification scores[1]

score	mean square error[2]	F ratios age df=4	tenure df=4	job df=1
satisfaction scores:				
work itself	97.30	6.57*	1.59	2.81
supervision	151.96	3.36*	0.74	1.99
pay	42.63	0.68	0.53	3.74*
promotion	60.74	0.94	0.51	5.79*
co-workers	173.87	2.79*	0.96	2.08
overall satisfaction	2006.85	4.07*	1.06	6.67*
other scores:				
change orientation	42.33	0.57	0.68	0.13
organizational identification	14.93	3.31*	2.50	4.20*

[1] Refer to Tables 2, 3, and 4 for computation of scores.

[2] df error varies from 190 to 197.

* $P \leq .05$

Table 15: Least squares means and standard errors for job satisfaction, change orientation, and organizational identification scores[1]

groups	job satisfaction scores: work itself	supervision	pay	promotion	co-workers	overall	change orientation score	organizational identification score
	mean std. error							
job type:[2]								
high participation	27.94 ±.90	37.70 ±1.13	11.00 ±.60	12.25 ±.71	36.60 ±1.21	149.74 ±4.10	34.82 ±.60	18.24 ±.40
low participation	25.34 ±1.34	36.00 ±1.70	9.01 ±.90	9.30 ±1.10	33.60 ±1.80	131.52 ±6.10	34.45 ±.91	17.00 ±.53
age groups:								
15 to 18 years	24.20 ±2.62	38.65 ±3.30	10.90 ±1.74	9.51 ±2.07	37.00 ±3.51	140.61 ±11.92	36.22 ±1.74	17.24 ±1.03
19 to 24 years	19.90 ±1.80	30.51 ±2.24	8.54 ±1.19	8.85 ±1.42	28.60 ±2.40	113.80 ±8.15	33.80 ±1.23	16.20 ±.72
25 to 30 years	27.43 ±1.64	38.40 ±2.05	10.21 ±1.08	11.60 ±1.30	34.93 ±2.20	144.30 ±7.45	33.91 ±1.10	16.84 ±.65

[1]Refer to Table 14 for analysis of variance statistics. Data not shown for tenure groups because F ratios were nonsignificant for all variables.

[2]Job groups defined by participation in decision making scores (refer to Table 13).

Table 15: (cont.)

groups	job satisfaction scores						change orientation score	organizational identification score
	work itself	supervision	pay	promotion	co-workers	overall		
	mean std. error							
31 to 50 years	30.00 ±1.35	39.90 ±1.70	9.70 ±.90	11.74 ±1.07	36.73 ±1.80	149.50 ±6.13	35.00 ±.90	18.60 ±.53
51 or more years	31.72 ±1.47	39.23 ±1.83	10.70 ±1.00	12.23 ±1.17	38.21 ±2.00	155.00 ±6.70	34.31 ±1.00	19.24 ±.60
total group	28.03	37.90	10.30	11.60	35.65	145.30	34.52	18.10

score was 13.7 per cent higher for the high participation group compared to that of the low participation group. Also, the high participation group scored significantly higher on organizational identification. Satisfaction with work was highest among the 31 to 50 and over 51 age groups; whereas the 19-24 year old group scored lowest. These findings are similar to those of Martin and Vaden (35) who found that employees in the 19-24 year old group and 25-30 year old group scored lower on satisfaction with work than did the 31 to 50 and over 51 years age groups.

On the satisfaction with supervision scores, employees in the 19-24 years old and 25 to 30 years age groups scored lowest, whereas the other groups had similar scores. The pattern on the satisfaction with co-workers score was similar. Overall satisfaction scores were significantly lower for employees in the 19-24 year old group than those in the 15 to 18, or the three older age groups. The 51 years and older group had the highest overall satisfaction (mean 155.0).

Organizational identification scores also differed significantly among age groups. Those 31 years and older had significantly higher scores than did the younger employees. These findings are inconsistent with Hopkins et al. (43) who found no significant differences among age groups. Their sample, however, tended to be older than that in this study. Most of the school foodservice personnel in that study were over 30 years of age.

Analysis of Work Performance Scores

Job performance of the hospital foodservice employees was measured by supervisory ratings, using a standard performance rating form in all hospitals surveyed. Supervisors were asked to rate each of the

employees working directly under their direction on six performance criteria: quality of work, quantity of work, following directions, initiative and judgment, attendance, and personal relations.

Analysis of variance was used to study differences in supervisory ratings of performance in relation to employee groups defined by age, tenure, and job type (Table 16). Attendance and personal relation scores were significantly different among age groups; whereas significant F ratios resulted from the analysis of all seven job performance dimensions with respect to job type.

Table 16: Analysis of variance of supervisory ratings of work performance

work performance scores[1]	mean square error[2]	F ratios		
		age df=4	tenure df=4	job df=1
quality of work	0.56	1.20	1.34	10.55*
quantity of work	0.60	1.05	1.10	10.02*
following directions	0.45	1.27	1.14	8.09*
initiative and judgment	0.58	0.61	1.10	6.19*
attendance	0.74	3.12*	1.34	9.64*
personal relations	0.52	2.70*	1.35	13.24*
overall performance	15.28	1.66	0.99	11.83*

[1]Refer to Table 5 for computation of scores.

[2]df error varies from 195 to 196.

* $P \leq .05$

Table 17 lists least square mean scores on performance measures for the high and low participation and the five age groups. As was true for the analysis of job satisfaction and other measures, no differences were found among tenure groups; therefore, means are not shown for employees according to length of time employed.

Comparisons of high and low participation groups indicated that the high participation group scored significantly higher on all dimensions of work performance, including overall performance. For the performance criterion, attendance, employees in the 19-24 year old group scored lowest; whereas the two oldest age groups (31 to 50 and 51 years and older) had the highest attendance scores. Also, employees in the 19-24 year old group scored significantly lower on the personal relations performance criterion compared to the other groups. The youngest and the two oldest groups had the highest scores on this dimension.

Predictors of Job Performance and Job Satisfaction

Job Performance

Since high levels of work performance and job satisfaction are desired organizational outcomes, multiple regression was conducted, in an attempt to identify predictors of performance and satisfaction. In one model (referred to as the full model), wage, tenure, and three scores (PART, OIK, and ACIII) were independent variables (N = 111). In the partial model, wage was deleted because wage data were available in only four of the seven institutions surveyed. In this analysis, complete data on other variables were available on 193 foodservice employees. Table 18 presents significant predictors ($P \leq .05$) of supervisory work performance ratings using the two models.

Table 17: Least squares means and standard errors for work performance scores[1]

groups	work performance scores						
	quality of work	quantity of work	following directions	initiative and judgment	attendance	personal relations	overall performance
	mean std. error						
job type:[2]							
high participation	3.43 ±.07	3.53 ±.07	3.44 ±.06	3.31 ±.07	3.60 ±.08	3.56 ±.07	20.83 ±.36
low participation	3.05 ±.10	3.14 ±.11	3.13 ±.09	3.01 ±.10	3.18 ±.12	3.14 ±.10	18.70 ±.53
age groups:							
15 to 18 years	3.27 ±.20	3.40 ±.21	3.32 ±.18	3.07 ±.20	3.28 ±.23	3.50 ±.19	19.96 ±1.04
19 to 24 years	3.04 ±.14	3.15 ±.14	3.09 ±.12	3.01 ±.14	3.04 ±.16	3.04 ±.13	18.45 ±.71
25 to 30 years	3.15 ±.12	3.27 ±.13	3.23 ±.11	3.23 ±.13	3.29 ±.14	3.24 ±.12	19.43 ±.65

[1]Refer to Table 16 for analysis of variance statistics. Data not shown for tenure groups because F ratios were nonsignificant for all variables.

[2]Job groups defined by participation in decision making scores (refer to Table 13).

Table 17: (cont.)

groups	work performance scores						
	quality of work	quantity of work	following directions	initiative and judgment	attendance	personal relations	overall performance
	mean std. error						
31 to 50 years	3.35 ±.10	3.33 ±.11	3.36 ±.09	3.27 ±.10	3.60 ±.12	3.45 ±.10	20.24 ±.54
51 or more years	3.38 ±.11	3.50 ±.12	3.43 ±.10	3.20 ±.11	3.73 ±.13	3.52 ±.11	20.75 ±.58
total group	3.31	3.40	3.34	3.22	3.51	3.42	20.18

Table 18: Significant predictors of supervisory work performance ratings ($P \leq .05$)

	quality of work		quantity of work		following directions		initiative and judgment		attendance		personal relations		overall performance	
predictors	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r
full model (N=111)[1]														
wage	.36	.26	.29	.29	.40	.33	.39	.30	.20	.21	.25	.18	.20	.30
tenure	-.24	-.05			-.16	.00	-.24	-.06			-.18	-.07		
PART							.27	.30			.22	.24	.28	.22
OID			.18	.19	.15	.17			.18	.19				
Multiple R	.32		.34		.40		.46		.28		.34		.36	
F-ratio	6.24		7.31		6.73		9.80		4.49		4.54		8.00	
Constant	2.09		1.61		1.74		1.17		1.75		2.04		11.80	
partial model (N=193)														
PART	.32	.32	.35	.35	.28	.28	.35	.35			.34	.34	.34	.34
tenure							-.11	-.11	.18	.17				
OID									.17	.15				
Multiple R	.32		.35		.28		.40		.24		.34		.34	
F-ratio	21.80		26.31		16.65		15.00		5.80		24.21		24.93	
Constant	2.50		2.50		2.70		2.40		2.64		2.60		15.65	

[1] In full model, wage, tenure, and three scores (PART, OID, ACIII) were independent variables. Refer to Tables 3 and 4 for computation of scores. ACIII was not a significant predictor in any of the equations. Wage data not available from three of seven hospitals in which data were collected. In partial model, wage was deleted.

In the full model, two variables were significant predictors of supervisory ratings of the quality of work performed, wage and tenure. Tenure had a negative beta weight indicating that those employed for a shorter length of time had higher performance scores on this dimension. In the partial model, participation in decision-making was a positive predictor of quality of work performance.

Quantity of work was predicted from wage and organizational identification in the full model. Only participation in decision-making was a significant predictor in the partial model.

In the full model, three variables were significant predictors of ratings on how well employees were able to follow directions: wage, tenure, and organizational identification. Tenure, however, was a negative, although weak predictor. Participation in decision-making was the only predictor of performance in following directions in the partial model.

Initiative and judgment was predicted from three measures in the full model: wage, tenure, and participation in decision-making. Again, tenure was a negative predictor. In the partial model, when wage data were unavailable, both tenure and participation in decision-making were significant predictors of initiative and judgment. A negative beta weight resulted for tenure as in the analysis using the full model.

Attendance was predicted from two measures in both the full and partial models. In the full model, wage and organizational identification were significant predictors; whereas in the partial model, tenure and organizational identification scores predicted attendance. Analysis of the attendance dimension of performance was the only instance when tenure was a positive predictor; i.e., those with longer tenure were

rated as better attenders by their supervisors than those with shorter tenure.

Three scores in the full model were significant predictors of the performance criterion of personal relations: wage, tenure, and participation in decision-making. Only the participation in decision-making score was a significant predictor in the partial model.

Wage and participation in decision-making were positive predictors of overall performance in the full model. In the partial model, participation in decision-making was the only significant predictor of job performance.

Results from this study are comparable to both Vroom's and Hopkins et al. findings (4, 59). Participation in decision-making correlated positively with measures of job performance both in this study and in Vroom's work, suggesting that participation has a generally positive relationship to job performance.

Hopkins et al. (59) found that personal identity with the job was a positive predictor of the performance criterion of the quantity of work performed. Persons who identified personally with their jobs by sharing good interpersonal relations were predicted to complete work consistently in the amount required. Also, personal identity with job was a significant predictor of overall performance and three performance dimensions: following directions, attendance, and personal relations.

Job Satisfaction

Significant predictors of job satisfaction are shown in Table 19. In the full model, all four independent variables (wage and participation in decision-making, organizational identification, and change orientation scores) were significant positive predictors of satisfaction

Table 19: Significant predictors of job satisfaction ($P \leq .05$)

	work		supervision		pay		promotion		co-workers		overall satisfaction	
predictors	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r
full model (N=111)[1]												
wage	.15	.18	.17	.17					.14	.14	.12	.13
PART	.17	.41	.38	.48	.29	.29	.53	.53			.44	.56
OID	.35	.51	.24	.38					.37	.37	.33	.49
ACIII	.25	.47										
Multiple R	.63		.55		.29		.53		.40		.65	
F-ratio	18.59		16.51		10.64		45.30		10.93		28.22	
Constant	-14.54		-3.47		4.33		-3.90		4.32		-17.42	
partial model (N=193)												
PART	.21	.38	.33	.45	.24	.30	.41	.45	.18	.29	.39	.53
OID	.21	.37	.17	.31	.19	.26	.14	.26	.17	.27	.23	.41
ACIII	.26	.42	.15	.36					.14	.27	.18	.43
Multiple R	.52		.50		.35		.47		.37		.62	
F-ratio	23.89		22.62		14.03		28.30		10.48		40.15	
Constant	-2.98		3.64		-0.78		-4.53		7.32		-8.27	

[1]Refer to Table 18 for footnotes. Tenure was not a significant predictor in any of the equations.

with work itself. In the partial model, work satisfaction also was predicted from the three scores in the equation (participation in decision-making, organizational identification, and change orientation). The same pattern was true for satisfaction with supervision provided, satisfaction with co-workers, and overall satisfaction. The pattern of predictors for satisfaction with pay and promotion differed somewhat; however, the same predictors were significant in analysis of both of these satisfaction scores. The participation in decision-making score was a significant positive predictor in both the full and partial models. The organizational identification score also was a significant positive predictor in the partial model.

Findings from this study are consistent with those reported by Abdel-Halim and Rowland (14) and Hopkins et al. (59). Abdel-Halim and Rowland (14) also found participation in decision-making to be related positively and significantly ($P \leq .01$) to job satisfaction. Hopkins et al. (59) found organizational identification scores were significant predictors of certain components of satisfaction: satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with co-workers, and overall satisfaction with the job.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Participation in decision-making (PDM) is one method that has been utilized to improve performance and to increase employee satisfaction on the job, two major organizational objectives. Much attention has been devoted to investigating the effects of PDM at higher skilled and professional levels. Many believe that PDM will not work effectively at lower levels where jobs are characteristically elemental and repetitive (e.g., foodservice jobs). The purpose of this research was to investigate perceptions of participation in decision-making among nonsupervisory hospital foodservice employees and study relationships between these perceptions and other variables: levels of satisfaction, performance, job motivation, organizational identification, job innovation, and acceptance of change.

Hospital foodservice employees in seven medium to large-sized, non-unionized, general hospitals located in Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska constituted the sample (N = 213). The employee questionnaire was comprised of three parts: a job satisfaction scale; items measuring participation in decision-making, job motivation, acceptance of change, interest in work innovation, and organizational identification; and biographical items. Job performance was assessed by supervisory ratings on seven dimensions of performance: quality of work, quantity of work, ability to follow instructions, initiative and judgment, attendance, personal relations, and overall performance.

A large percentage of the sample responding to the survey were female, 31 years or older, with a high school educational level. Also, a majority of the respondents were full-time employees.

Responses to items of participation in decision-making indicated that although the employees perceived themselves as having little direct influence on supervisory decisions, they were asked for their opinions and were able to express their opinions and ideas fairly easily. Many respondents, however, indicated they had mixed feelings about how easily they were able to convey their ideas to their supervisors. Employees generally did not feel that the appropriate people had input in the decision-making processes of the department. A majority of the respondents indicated they never or seldom participated in decisions to hire new employees.

Many of the respondents were highly motivated and others were relatively unmotivated. Although two-thirds of the employees indicated that on most work days time did not drag, one-third believed time did drag. Most employees indicated they were strongly involved in their jobs and did more work than was required of them. Although half of the employees indicated they worked harder than their co-workers, a large percentage indicated they worked equally hard as their co-workers.

Most of the sample surveyed indicated they were accepting of changes made in their department and generally believed the changes were an improvement, although a number of respondents indicated that at first they believed changes would not improve things at all or very much. Over half of the respondents, however, indicated that few changes had been made in their job within the past year. Employees scored relatively low on the interest in innovation measures, indicating they generally

preferred doing things in the same way and believed that it was better to let their supervisors worry about new or better ways of doing things.

Respondents' scores on the organizational identification measures indicated that a majority shared common goals with their hospital. Although a majority of the employees indicated they would choose the same hospital where they were working if they began working again in the same occupation, a large percentage (39.7 per cent) indicated they did not care or were unenthusiastic about working at their perspective hospitals. Although a sizeable number (45.7 per cent) of the respondents indicated they got mad when their hospital was criticized, a majority indicated that either the criticism would not bother them or they often agreed. Over two-thirds discussed things concerning the hospital with their immediate families fairly frequently, however, many of the employees were not compelled to tell friends about their jobs. Also, a majority indicated they did not socialize with their co-workers.

Using scores on the participation in decision-making scale, four positions were classified as high participation jobs: cafeteria worker, dietetic clerk, general kitchen or sanitation worker, and patient tray attendant. Two positions were classified as low participation jobs: cooks and general food handlers. The high participation group scored significantly higher on three dimensions of satisfaction: pay, promotion, and overall satisfaction. Scores on all other satisfaction measures also tended to be higher for the high participation than for the low participation group. Also, the high participation group scored significantly higher on organizational identification. Four of the satisfaction scores and the organizational identification score differed significantly among age groups.

Differences in supervisory performance ratings were analyzed in relation to employee groups defined by age, tenure, and job type (high versus low participation jobs). Attendance and personal relations scores were significantly different among age groups; whereas significant F ratios resulted from analysis of all seven job performance dimensions with respect to job type. No differences were found among tenure groups. Work performance ratings were significantly higher for employees in the high participation group, compared to those of employees in the low participation group.

In an attempt to identify predictors of job performance and satisfaction, stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted using two models. In the full model, wage, tenure, and three scores, participation in decision-making (PART), organizational identification (OID), and change orientation (ACIII), were independent variables (N = 111). In the partial model, wage was deleted because wage data were available in only four of the seven institutions surveyed. In this analysis, complete data on other variables were available on 193 foodservice employees.

In the full model, two variables were significant predictors of supervisory ratings of the quality of work performed: wage and tenure. Tenure had a negative beta weight indicating that those employed for a shorter length of time had higher performance scores on this dimension. In the partial model, participation in decision-making was a positive predictor of quality of work performance.

Quantity of work was predicted from wage and organizational identification in the full model. Only participation in decision-making was a significant predictor in the partial model.

In the full model, three variables were significant predictors of ratings on how well employees were able to follow directions: wage, tenure, and organizational identification. Tenure, however, was a negative, although weak predictor. In the partial model, participation in decision-making was the only predictor of the following directions performance dimension.

Initiative and judgment was predicted from three measures in the full model: wage, tenure, and participation in decision-making. Again, tenure was a negative predictor. In the partial model, when wage data were unavailable, both tenure and participation in decision-making were significant predictors of initiative and judgment. A negative beta weight resulted for tenure as in the analysis using the full model.

Attendance was predicted from two measures in both the full and partial models. In the full model, wage and organizational identification were significant predictors; whereas in the partial model, tenure and organizational identification scores predicted attendance. Analysis of the attendance dimension of performance was the only instance when tenure was a positive predictor; i.e., those with longer tenure were rated as better attenders by their supervisors than those with shorter tenure.

Three scores in the full model were significant predictors of the performance criterion of personal relations: wage, tenure, and participation in decision-making. Only the participation in decision-making score was a significant predictor in the partial model.

Wage and participation in decision-making were positive predictors of overall performance in the full model. In the partial model,

participation in decision-making was the only significant predictor of job performance.

In the full model, all four independent variables, wage and participation in decision-making (PART), organizational identification (OID), and change orientation (ACIII) scores, were significant positive predictors of satisfaction with work itself. In the partial model, work satisfaction also was predicted from the three scores in the equation (PART, OID, ACIII). The same pattern was true for satisfaction with supervision provided, satisfaction with co-workers, and overall satisfaction.

The pattern of predictors for satisfaction with pay and promotion differed somewhat; however, the same predictors were significant in analysis of both of these satisfaction scores. The participation in decision-making score was a significant positive predictor in both the full and partial models. The organizational identification score also was a significant positive predictor in the partial model.

Evidence from this study suggested that hospital foodservice employees tend to have limited participation in decision-making, although they do have input in the decisions made by their supervisors. There was evidence that the employees believed the appropriate persons often did not have input into decisions, however.

Further examination is needed to investigate the reasons for cooks being included among the low participation jobs. To gain additional insight, measures more specific to food related issues need to be developed to include types of decisions in which foodservice employees might have more direct input.

Results suggested that participation in decision-making has a positive relationship to organizational identification and change orientation; i.e., high scores on participation in decision-making were significantly related to high scores on organizational identification and change orientation. Job satisfaction also bears a positive relationship to participation in decision-making, as well as to organizational identification and change orientation.

Wage was a positive predictor of all dimensions of performance, indicating that employees with higher wages perform better. Participation in decision-making tends to have a positive effect on performance. Also, the consistent positive relationship between participation in decision-making and the measures of job satisfaction indicates that participation tends to contribute to positive reactions to work and the work place. More studies, however, are needed before any general conclusions can be made about the effects of participation in decision-making among hospital foodservice personnel.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Preliminary Instrument

Part II. Check (✓) the one best answer that describes your opinion or reaction related to the questions about your job or department in which you work.

1. In general, how much influence or say do you feel you have on what goes on in your work unit?

___(1) Very little
___(2) Little
___(3) Some
___(4) Much
___(5) Very much

2. To what degree do you feel you can influence the decisions of your immediate supervisor regarding things over which you are concerned?

___(1) Very little
___(2) Little
___(3) Some
___(4) Much
___(5) Very much

3. How frequently does your immediate supervisor ask your opinion when a problem comes up which involves your work?

___(1) Never
___(2) Rarely
___(3) Occasionally
___(4) Often
___(5) Always

4. If you have a suggestion for improving a job or changing an operation in some way, how easy is it for you to get your ideas across to your immediate supervisor?

___(1) Very difficult
___(2) Difficult
___(3) Mixed (sometimes difficult, sometimes easy)
___(4) Easy
___(5) Very easy

5. How frequently do you usually participate in the decision to hire new employees?

___(1) Seldom
___(2) Sometimes
___(3) Often
___(4) Always
___(5) Never

6. To what extent are decisions made at the right levels in this department?

___(1) To a very little extent
___(2) To a little extent
___(3) To some extent
___(4) To a great extent
___(5) To a very great extent

7. When decisions are being made in this department to what extent are the persons affected asked for their ideas?

___(1) To a very little extent
___(2) To a little extent
___(3) To some extent
___(4) To a great extent
___(5) To a very great extent

8. People at all levels in an organization may have information about how to do things better. To what extent do you feel information from all levels is used for making decisions in this department?

___(1) To a very little extent
___(2) To a little extent
___(3) To some extent
___(4) To a great extent
___(5) To a very great extent

9. On most work days, how often does time seem to drag for you?

___(1) About half the day or more
___(2) About one-third of the day
___(3) About one-quarter of the day
___(4) About one-eighth of the day
___(5) Time never seems to drag

10. Some people are completely involved in their job--they are absorbed in it night and day. For other people, their job is simply one of several interests. How involved do you feel in your job?

___(1) Very little involved; my other interests are more absorbing
___(2) Slightly involved
___(3) Moderately involved; my job and my other interests are equally absorbing to me
___(4) Strongly involved
___(5) Very strongly involved; my work is the most absorbing interest in my life.

11. How often do you do some extra work for your job which isn't really required of you?

___(1) Almost every day
___(2) Two or three times a week
___(3) About once a week
___(4) Once every few weeks
___(5) About once a month or less

12. Would you say you work harder, less hard, or about the same as other people doing your type of work in this department?

___(1) Much harder than most others
___(2) A little harder than most others
___(3) About the same as most others
___(4) A little less hard than most others
___(5) Much less hard than most others

13. Sometimes changes in the way a job is done are more trouble than they are worth because they create a lot of problems and confusion. How often do you feel that changes which have affected you and your job in this organization have been like this?

___(1) 50% or more of the changes have been more trouble than they're worth
___(2) About 40% of the changes
___(3) About 25% of the changes
___(4) About 15% of the changes
___(5) Only 5% or fewer of the changes have been more trouble than they're worth

14. From time to time changes in policies, procedures, and equipment are introduced by the management. How often do these changes lead to better ways of doing things?

___(1) Changes of this kind never improve things
___(2) They seldom do
___(3) About half of the time they do
___(4) Most of the time they do
___(5) Changes of this kind are always an improvement

15. How well do the various people in the department who are affected by these changes accept them?

___(1) Very few of the people involved accept the changes
___(2) Less than half do
___(3) About half of them do
___(4) Most of them do
___(5) Practically all of the people involved accept the changes

16. Within the past year, have there been any changes in the way your job is done--like in the equipment you work with, the work procedures, the job standards and requirements, the kind of records you have to keep, etc.? (Answer for changes affecting you in your present job classification.)

There have been:

___(1) No changes; my work is done exactly the way it was a year ago.
___(2) One or two changes; but it is not too different.
___(3) A few changes; it's a little different now.
___(4) Quite a few changes; things are fairly different.
___(5) Many changes; my work is almost completely different now from the way it was a year ago.

17. In general, how do you now feel about changes during the past year that affected the way your job is done?

____(1) There have been no changes in my job in the past year.
____(2) Made things somewhat worse
____(3) Not improved things at all
____(4) Not improved things very much
____(5) Improved things somewhat
____(6) Been a big improvement

18. During the past year when changes were introduced that affected the way your job is done, how did you feel about them at first?

At first I thought the changes would:

____(1) There have been no changes in my job in the past year.
____(2) Make things somewhat worse
____(3) Not improve things at all
____(4) Not improve things very much
____(5) Improve things somewhat
____(6) Be a big improvement

19. In your kind of work, if a person tries to change the usual way of doing things, how does it generally turn out?

____(1) Usually turns out worse; the tried and true methods work best in my kind of work
____(2) Usually doesn't make much difference
____(3) Usually turns out better; our methods need improvement

20. Some people prefer doing a job in pretty much the same way because this way they can count on always doing a good job. Others like to go out of their way in order to think up new ways of doing things. How is it with you on your job?

____(1) I always prefer doing things pretty much in the same way
____(2) I mostly prefer doing things pretty much in the same way
____(3) I mostly prefer doing things in new and different ways
____(4) I always prefer doing things in new and different ways

21. How often do you try out, on your own, a better or faster way of doing something on the job?

____(1) Once a week or more often
____(2) Two or three times a month
____(3) About once a month
____(4) Every few months
____(5) Rarely or never

22. How often do you get chances to try out your own ideas on your job, either before or after checking with your supervisor?

____(1) Several times a week or more
____(2) About once a week
____(3) Several times a month
____(4) About once a month
____(5) Less than once a month

23. In my kind of job, it's usually better to let your supervisor worry about new or better ways of doing things.

____(1) Strongly agree
____(2) Mostly agree
____(3) Mostly disagree
____(4) Strongly disagree

24. How many times in the past year have you suggested to your supervisor a different or better way of doing something on the job?

____(1) Never had occasion to do this during the past year
____(2) Once or twice
____(3) About three times
____(4) About five times
____(5) Six to ten times
____(6) More than ten times had occasion to do this during the past year

25. Here are two statements about the relations between management and employees at your hospital.

A. The relations between management and employees here are much different than in other hospitals because in this hospital both are working toward the same goal of providing the best possible services to the customer.

B. Relations between management and employees here are not very different than in other hospitals where management looks out for the hospital's interests and employees have to look out for their own interests.

Which of the two statements above comes closer to your own opinion?

____(1) Agree completely with B
____(2) Agree more with B than A
____(3) Agree equally with A and B
____(4) Agree more with A than B
____(5) Agree completely with A

26. If you could begin working over again, but in the same occupation as you are in now, how likely would you be to choose this hospital as a place to work?

____(1) Definitely would choose another place
____(2) Probably would choose another place
____(3) Would not care whether it was here or some other place
____(4) Probably would choose this hospital
____(5) Definitely would choose this hospital

27. How would you feel when you hear someone criticizing this hospital?

____(1) I mostly agree with the criticism
____(2) It does not bother me
____(3) It gets me a little mad
____(4) It gets me mad most of the time
____(5) It gets me quite mad

28. In general, how often do you tell someone in your immediate family about some things concerning this hospital?

____(1) About once a year
____(2) Once every few months
____(3) About once a month
____(4) Several times a month
____(5) Once a week or more

29. In general, how often do you tell someone outside your immediate family (friends, neighbors, etc.) about something concerning this hospital?

____(1) About once a year
____(2) Once every few months
____(3) About once a month
____(4) Several times a month
____(5) Once a week or more

30. During the past year, how many times did you attend a dinner, picnic, or other social events together with your co-workers outside of work hours?

____(1) Once or more
____(2) Two times
____(3) Three times
____(4) Four times
____(5) Five times or more

Part III. Please place a check (✓) in front of the answer that best applies to you.

1. ____(1) Married
____(2) Not married

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. How long have you worked here?

_____ _____
yrs. mos.

8. What job did you have prior to working here?

____(1) Foodservice related
____(2) Other
____(3) None

9. 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

10. If yes in question 9, 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

11. In your present job do you work:

____(1) in the kitchen
____(2) in the cafeteria
____(3) on the patient floors

Department of Dietetics, Restaurant and Institutional Management

Kansas State University

EVALUATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Was the questionnaire difficult to answer?
   _____ Yes
   _____ No

2. Indicate the number of the questions you found difficult to answer.

NUMBER	COMMENTS

3. What suggestions do you have for revising the questionnaire?
   _____ None, leave questionnaire as it is
   _____ Suggestions, please specify

4. What additions would you suggest?
   _____ None
   _____ Additions, please list below

5. What would you omit on the questionnaire?
   _____ Nothing
   _____ Omit, please list below

6. How long did it take to fill out the questionnaire?
   _____

7. Other comments:

APPENDIX B

Final Instrument

(KSU Letterhead)

HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE

PERSONNEL STUDY

Please complete all questions. Do not sign the questionnaire. Place completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and turn in to the representative from Kansas State University.

Thank you for your help and cooperation!

Hospital Fooservice Personnel Study

Part I. Instructions: Put a Y for YES beside an item if the item describes part of your job (work, pay, etc.). Put an N for NO if the item does not describe part of your job. Put a ? in the blank if you cannot decide.

Y = Yes
N = No
? = Not sure

WORK

____ fascinating
____ routine
____ satisfying
____ boring
____ good
____ creative
____ respected
____ hot
____ pleasant
____ useful
____ tiresome
____ healthful
____ challenging
____ on your feet
____ frustrating
____ simple
____ endless
____ gives a sense of accomplishment

PAY

____ income adequate for normal expenses
____ satisfactory profit sharing
____ barely live on income
____ bad
____ income provides luxuries
____ insecure
____ less than I deserve
____ highly paid
____ underpaid

PROMOTION

____ good opportunity for advancement
____ opportunity somewhat limited
____ promotion on ability
____ dead-end job
____ good chance for promotion
____ unfair promotions
____ infrequent promotions
____ regular promotions
____ fairly good chance for promotions

SUPERVISION

____ asks my advice
____ hard to please
____ impolite
____ praises good work
____ tactful
____ influential
____ up-to-date
____ doesn't supervise enough
____ quick tempered
____ tells me where I stand
____ annoying
____ stubborn
____ knows job well
____ bad
____ intelligent
____ leaves me on my own
____ lazy
____ around when needed

CO-WORKERS

____ stimulating
____ boring
____ slow
____ ambitious
____ stupid
____ responsible
____ fast
____ intelligent
____ easy to make enemies
____ talk too much
____ smart
____ lazy
____ unpleasant
____ no privacy
____ active
____ narrow interests
____ loyal
____ hard to meet

Part II. Check (✓) the one best answer that describes your opinion or reaction related to the questions about your job or the department in which you work.

1. In general, how much influence or say, do you feel you have on what goes on in your work unit?

____ (1) Very little
____ (2) Little
____ (3) Some
____ (4) Much
____ (5) Very much

2. To what degree do you feel you can influence the decisions of your immediate supervisor regarding things over which you are concerned?

____ (1) Very little
____ (2) Little
____ (3) Some
____ (4) Much
____ (5) Very much

3. How frequently does your immediate supervisor ask your opinion when a problem comes up which involves your work?

____ (1) Never
____ (2) Rarely
____ (3) Occasionally
____ (4) Often
____ (5) Always

4. If you have a suggestion for improving a job or changing an operation in some way, how easy is it for you to get your ideas across to your immediate supervisor?

____ (1) Very difficult
____ (2) Difficult
____ (3) Mixed (sometimes difficult, sometimes easy)
____ (4) Easy
____ (5) Very easy

5. How frequently do you usually participate in the decision to hire new employees?

____ (1) Seldom
____ (2) Sometimes
____ (3) Often
____ (4) Always
____ (5) Never

6. When decisions are being made in this department to what extent are the persons affected asked for their ideas?

____ (1) To a very little extent
____ (2) To a little extent
____ (3) To some extent
____ (4) To a great extent
____ (5) To a very great extent

7. People at all levels in an organization may have information about how to do things better. To what extent do you feel information from all levels is used for making decisions in this department?

____ (1) To a very little extent
____ (2) To a little extent
____ (3) To some extent
____ (4) To a great extent
____ (5) To a very great extent

8. On most days, how often does time seem to drag for you?

____ (1) About half the day or more
____ (2) About one-third of the day
____ (3) About one-quarter of the day
____ (4) About one-eighth of the day
____ (5) Time never seems to drag

9. Some people are completely involved in their job--they are absorbed in it night and day. For other people, their job is simply one of several interests. How involved do you feel in your job?

____ (1) Very little involved; my other interests are more absorbing
____ (2) Slightly involved
____ (3) Moderately involved; my job and my other interests are equally absorbing to me
____ (4) Strongly involved
____ (5) Very strongly involved; my work is the most absorbing interest in my life.

10. How often do you do some extra work for your job which isn't really required of you?

____ (1) Almost every day
____ (2) Two or three times a week
____ (3) About once a week
____ (4) Once every few weeks
____ (5) About once a month or less

11. Would you say you work harder, less hard, or about the same as other people doing your type of work in this department?

____ (1) Much marder than most others
____ (2) A little harder than most others
____ (3) About the same as most others
____ (4) A little less hard than most others
____ (5) Much less hard than most others

12. Sometimes changes in the way a job is done are more trouble than they are worth because they create a lot of problems and confusion. How often do you feel that changes which have affected you and your job in this organization have been like this?

____ (1) 50% or more of the changes have been more trouble than they're worth
____ (2) About 40% of the changes
____ (3) About 25% of the changes
____ (4) About 15% of the changes
____ (5) Only 5% or fewer of the changes have been more trouble than they're worth

13. From time to time changes in policies, procedures, and equipment are introduced by the management. How often do these changes lead to better ways of doing things?

____ (1) Changes of this kind never improve things
____ (2) They seldom do
____ (3) About half of the time they do
____ (4) Most of the time they do
____ (5) Changes of this kind are always an improvement

14. How well do the various people in the department who are affected by these changes accept them?

____ (1) Very few of the people involved accept the changes
____ (2) Less than half do
____ (3) About half of them do
____ (4) Most of them do
____ (5) Practically all of the people involved accept the changes

15. Within the past year, have there been any changes in the way your job is done--like in the equipment you work with, the work procedures, the job standards and requirements, the kind of records you have to keep, etc.? (Answer for changes affecting you in your present job classification.)

There have been:

____ (1) No changes; my work is done exactly the way it was a year ago.
____ (2) One or two changes; but it is not too different.
____ (3) A few changes; it's a little different now.
____ (4) Quite a few changes; things are fairly different.
____ (5) Many changes; my work is almost completely different now from the way it was a year ago.

16. In general, how do you now feel about changes during the past year that affected the way your job is done?

____ (1) There have been no changes in my job in the past year
____ (2) Made things somewhat worse
____ (3) Not improved things at all
____ (4) Not improved things very much
____ (5) Improved things somewhat
____ (6) Been a big improvement

17. During the past year when changes were introduced that affected the way your job is done, how did you feel about them <u>at first</u>?

At first I thought the changes would:

____ (1) Make things somewhat worse
____ (2) Not improve things at all
____ (3) Not improve things very much
____ (4) Improve things somewhat
____ (5) Be a big improvement
____ (6) There have been no changes in my job in the past year.

18. In your kind of work, if a person tries to change the usual way of doing things, how does it generally turn out?

____ (1) Usually turns out worse; the tried and true methods work best in my kind of work
____ (2) Usually doesn't make much difference
____ (3) Usually turns out better; our methods need improvement

19. Some people prefer doing a job in pretty much the same way because this way they can count on always doing a good job. Others like to go out of their way in order to think up new ways of doing things. How is it with you on your job?

____ (1) I always prefer doing things pretty much in the same way
____ (2) I mostly prefer doing things pretty much in the same way
____ (3) I mostly prefer doing things in new and different ways
____ (4) I always prefer doing things in new and different ways

20. How often do you try out, on your own, a better or faster way of doing something on the job?

____ (1) Once a week or more often
____ (2) Two or three times a month
____ (3) About once a month
____ (4) Every few months
____ (5) Rarely or never

21. How often do you get chances to try out your own ideas on your job, either before or after checking with your supervisor?

____ (1) Several times a week or more
____ (2) About once a week
____ (3) Several times a month
____ (4) About once a month
____ (5) Less than once a month

22. In your kind of job, it's usually better to let your supervisor worry about new or better ways of doing things.

____ (1) Strongly agree
____ (2) Mostly agree
____ (3) Mostly disagree
____ (4) Strongly disagree

23. How many times in the past year have you suggested to your supervisor a different or better way of doing something on the job?

____ (1) Never had occasion to do this during the past year
____ (2) Once or twice
____ (3) About three times
____ (4) About five times
____ (5) Six to ten times
____ (6) More than ten times had occasion to do this during the past year

24. Here are two statements about the relations between management and employees at your hospital.

A. In this hospital management and employees are working toward the same goal of providing the best possible services to patients and customers.

B. In this hospital management looks out for the hospital's interests and employees have to look out for their own interests.

Which of the two statements above comes closer to your own opinion?

____ (1) Agree completely with B
____ (2) Agree more with B than A
____ (3) Agree equally with A and B
____ (4) Agree more with A than B
____ (5) Agree completely with A

25. If you could begin working over again, but in the same occupation as you are in now, how likely would you be to choose this hospital as a place to work?

____ (1) Definitely would choose another place
____ (2) Probably would choose another place
____ (3) Would not care whether it was here or some other place
____ (4) Probably would choose this hospital
____ (5) Definitely would choose this hospital

26. How would you feel when you hear someone criticizing this hospital?

____ (1) I mostly agree with the criticism
____ (2) It does not bother me
____ (3) It gets me a little mad
____ (4) It gets me mad most of the time
____ (5) It gets me quite mad

27. In general, how often do you tell someone in your immediate family about some things concerning this hospital?

____ (1) About once a year
____ (2) Once every few months
____ (3) About once a month
____ (4) Once a week or more
____ (5) Every day or two

28. In general, how often do you tell someone outside your immediate family (friends, neighbors, etc.) about something concerning this hospital?

____ (1) About once a year
____ (2) Once every few months
____ (3) About once a month
____ (4) Once a week or more
____ (5) Every day or two

29. During the past year, how many times did you attend a dinner, picnic, or other social event together with your co-workers outside of work hours?

____ (1) None
____ (2) Once
____ (3) Two or three times
____ (4) Four times or more
____ (5) No event held since I began work

Please turn page and complete questions in Part III.

Part III. Please place a check (✓) in front of the answer that best applies to you.

1. ____ (1) Married
____ (2) Widowed
____ (3) Not married

2. ____ (1) Full-time
____ (2) Part-time

3. ____ (1) Female
____ (2) Male

4. 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

5. How long have you lived in this area?

____ (1) 0-4 years
____ (2) 5-10 years
____ (3) 11 or more years

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. How long have you worked here?

_____ yrs. _____ mos.

8. What job did you have prior to working here?

____ (1) Foodservice related
____ (2) Other
____ (3) None

9. In your present job do you have regular contact with patients or cafeteria customers?

____ (1) Patients
____ (2) Cafeteria customers
____ (3) Both patients and cafeteria customers

APPENDIX C

Performance Evaluation Form

KSU KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Department of Dietetics, Restaurant
and Institutional Management
Justin Hall
Manhattan, Kansas 66506
Phone: 913 532-5521-2

I.D. Number _____

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF HOSPITAL PERSONNEL

	1 Unsatis-factory	2 Needs Improvement	3 Satis-factory	4 Above Average	5 Superior
1. Quality of Work					
a. Accuracy	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Neatness	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Organization of work	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d. Thoroughness	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Quantity of Work					
a. Amount of work performed	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Completion of work on schedule	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Consistency of work production	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Following Directions					
a. Compliance with work instructions	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Observance of rules and regulations	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Care and use of equipment	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d. Observance of safety rules	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Initiative and Judgment					
a. Use of initiative	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Use of judgment	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Adapting to new situations, unusual demands or emergencies	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Attendance					
a. Punctuality	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Regularity of attendance	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Personal Relations					
a. Getting along with other employees	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Meeting and handling the public	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Attention to personal appearance, cleanliness, hygenic measures	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

7. Other factors:

	1 Not Applicable	2 Low	3 Medium	4 High
a. Employee's loyalty to the hospital foodservice	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Employee's loyalty to his/her job	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied
c. In general, how satisfied do you believe this person is with his/her rewards for his/her efforts?	( )	( )	( )
d. In general, how satisfied do you believe this person is with his/her position in the organization?	( )	( )	( )

APPENDIX D

Contacts with Foodservice Directors

TELEPHONE CONVERSATION WITH FOODSERVICE DIRECTOR

My name is Liz Brammer, and I am a graduate student in Dietetics, Restaurant, and Institutional Management at Kansas State University, working with Dr. Allene Vaden. The Department is sponsoring a research project concerning participation of foodservice employees in organizational decision-making.

The phase of the research I am working on will focus on hospital foodservice personnel. Dr. Vaden has recommended your hospital as a possible participant. The foodservice supervisors would be asked to complete a standard job performance evaluation for each employee working directly under them. Supervisors will also be asked to complete a self report form evaluating their own managerial style. During a visit to your hospital, all non-supervisory foodservice employees would be asked to complete a measure of their perceptions of participation in organizational decision-making, job satisfaction, motivation, acceptance of change, organizational identification, and job innovation. A thirty-minute time block would be necessary for the employees to complete the questionnaire. I would plan to visit your hospital for one to two days at a time convenient to you and your department. A schedule for these days would be established in conjunction with you to have as many employees complete the questionnaire as possible in small groups.

Also, prior to the visit to collect the actual research data, I would plan to visit your hospital to orient myself and to assist in final plans for the data collection.

We anticipate collecting these data early this fall. Would you be willing to participate?

(If participating), I will follow-up the conversation with a letter.

Would you suggest a date and time for my preliminary visit to your hospital?

Thank you for your cooperation.....

(KSU Letterhead)

September 26, 1979

(Initial Letter to Follow-up Telephone Contact)

This letter is to follow-up my phone conversation with you on September 25 regarding a proposed hospital foodservice research project. As we discussed, the Department of Dietetics, Restaurant and Institutional Management here at K-State is doing a series of studies concerned with behavioral factors affecting the foodservice operations. As part of this series we are proposing a study investigating participation of foodservice employees in organizational decision-making. The focus of this particular study is on hospital foodservice personnel in medium to large sized hospitals in Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska.

Most of the studies in behavioral science have been conducted in major manufacturing industries. Data are needed in our industry on how people look at their jobs, what motivates them, and what are their interests. These are some of the concerns addressed in the proposed study.

Each hospital will receive a full copy of the complete report. Also, we will provide summary data for each hospital.

We tentatively identified ten hospital foodservices in the Midwest Area. Selection was based on size, whether or not it had a non-contract foodservice, and on geographic location.

As we discussed, prior to the visit to collect the actual research data, I will arrange a preliminary visit to the participating hospitals during the next two to three weeks. During this visit I would like to meet the foodservice supervisors, familiarize myself with the facilities, and make final plans for the data collection.

A later visit would be scheduled, in October or November at each institution for actual collection of data. The three instruments to be used for collecting the basic data for this study are (1) Employee Questionnaire, (2) Employee Performance Appraisal, and (3) Self Report Form (Enclosures 1, 2, and 3). The first questionnaire will be completed by the employees; the second and third, by supervisory personnel.

According to our proposed plans the employee questionnaire will be completed during this second visit. We hope that as many of the nonsupervisory foodservice workers as possible will participate. Participation

will be voluntary but the larger the sample, the greater reliability of the resultant data. We hope, however, that employees will be encouraged to take part in the study. Ideally, the questionnaire will be completed by each person in groups of three or more employees, but the grouping and scheduling of meetings with workers will be planned in accordance with each organization's best interests. At the preliminary meetings we can discuss this aspect in more detail.

At the time of administration of the questionnaire, the research objective will be explained, as well as the process for collecting and summarizing the results. Also employees will be assured of confidentiality of their responses. We will furnish all forms and pencils. Since no supervisory personnel will be present during the administration of the questionnaire, a room or area conducive to completing the employee questionnaires will be needed. The process should take no longer than 30-35 minutes.

The forms to be completed by the supervisory personnel will be left on site, to be completed at the convenience of the personnel involved. These forms can be returned to us at Kansas State University at a later time.

In addition to the data collected from the three research instruments, we would like some information from the facility records. Specifically, we would like to have a copy of the organization chart, job descriptions, pay scales, and absentee data for the nonsupervisory positions being studied.

We appreciate your willingness to participate in the study. If you should need to contact us, the office number is 913/532-5521, home (L. Brammer) 539-7362, or home (A. Vaden) 539-6256. Thank you for your time and interest.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth M. Brammer
Graduate Student

Allene G. Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Associate Professor

Enclosures

EMB/ns

(KSU Letterhead)

October 24, 1979

(Letter to Foodservice Director after Preliminary Visit Confirming Date of On-Site Visit)

I enjoyed meeting with you on (date of preliminary visit) and appreciate your willingness to participate in our research on employee participation in organizational decision-making. As we discussed, I will plan to come to your hospital on (date of on-site visit) pending further notification of necessary changes in administration dates. I have provided answers below to various questions that were asked during the preliminary visits to the hospitals included in the study. I am sending replies to all questions asked to foodservice directors of all six participating hospitals so that you will all have the same information.

If you have other questions please call or write. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Allene G. Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Associate Professor

Elizabeth Brammer
Graduate Student

EB:ns

Responses to questions raised during visits:

1. There were some questions with respect to the policies we requested. We are interested in personnel policies for the department of dietetics, to assist us in interpreting data.

2. Unless therapeutic dietitians have technicians or clerks working under their supervision, they will not need to complete performance evaluation forms. Therapeutic dietitians will not be considered nonsupervisory employees even though they might report to a head clinician. We are interested in surveying nonsupervisory personnel.

3. Supervisory personnel will not include employees who perform duties that other nonsupervisory employees perform, or whose major function is of a nonsupervisory orientation; e.g., head dishroom person, who

may supervise, but also performs dishwashing tasks. These persons will be considered as part of the employee group.

4. We are requesting that management of each hospital introduce the nature of the survey to employees and to encourage as many employees as possible to participate. Supervisors will schedule times for interested employees to complete the questionnaire.

5. Absenteeism is defined as any occasion during the nine month period (January 1 to September 30, 1979) when the worker failed to report for duty when the absence was not planned in advance. However, if an employee calls in the day before he plans to be absent, it is <u>not</u> to be considered a planned absence. Single long-term absences due to illness, accidents, or maternity leave will be recorded as only one absence; in other words, absence will be recorded by <u>number</u> of occasions, not duration of absence.

(KSU Letterhead)

To: (Foodservice Director)

From: Liz Brammer

Please distribute these letters to each of your supervisors who will be taking part in the study to inform them of the details and their responsibilities. Thank you.

(KSU Letterhead)

TO: Supervisors of Participating Foodservices

FROM: Elizabeth M. Brammer
Graduate Student

Allene G. Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Associate Professor

SUBJECT: Hospital Foodservice Employee Participation Research

At Kansas State University (KSU) we are involved in a project studying employee participation in hospital foodservice. The Foodservice Director of your hospital has given us permission to conduct the study within your foodservice. The study will contribute information regarding employee participation, needs of foodservice workers, and employee performance. A questionnaire will be completed by the foodservice employees which will include questions related to their job satisfaction and opinions of the hospital foodservice.

As part of the project, we would like for you to do three things. First, we would like for you to encourage all of the employees under your supervision to take part in the study. Dates have been established with the director of your department. Elizabeth Brammer from KSU will be at your hospital for two days to collect data for the study.

Second, we would like you to complete a self report form evaluating your own managerial style. Third, we would like you to evaluate each of your employees. Forms will be provided such as the one attached, and one form should be completed for <u>each</u> employee. The Performance Evaluations will be kept completely confidential and used only for research purposes. You should indicate the one response that best describes the employee's performance on the item in question. Please be as candid as possible. In these evaluations, we are looking for differences in degrees of performance. For example, an employee may be superior in accuracy of work but only satisfactory in amount of work performed. Do <u>not</u> write the employee's name on the form. The form is identified with an ID number for analysis purposes only. An index card attached to the form will tell you the name of the employee you will be evaluating.

It would be helpful if you could complete every item on these forms. Your responses should be honest and as accurate as possible. Please do not discuss any of the answers with the employees.

I will leave an envelope for you to return the completed forms directly to me during the days that I visit your hospital or you can mail them to me as soon as possible.

This survey is being conducted under the guidelines established by Kansas State University. By cooperating, you will help provide answers to important questions related to management of foodservice employees; however, your participation is strictly voluntary. Confidentiality is guaranteed; your name will not be associated with the results of the study.

Your institution will receive a copy of the overall results of the study. Thank you for your assistance and cooperation.

APPENDIX E

Instructions to Employees

INSTRUCTIONS TO EMPLOYEES

I am Liz Brammer, a graduate student in the Department of Dietetics, Restaurant, and Institutional Management at Kansas State University. We are conducting a survey regarding decision-making in hospital foodservice. Your hospital was one of the hospitals selected to participate in the survey. The foodservice director has given us permission to conduct the study. The questions in the survey are not personal but are concerned with your opinions about your job and the hospital. However, university regulations include the following requirements for all survey projects. This survey is being conducted under guidelines established by Kansas State University. By cooperating, you will help provide answers to important questions; however, your participation is strictly voluntary.

You should omit any questions which you feel unduly invade your privacy or which are otherwise offensive to you. Confidentiality is guaranteed; your name will not be associated with your answers in any public or private report of the results. Your supervisor will not know your answers. The only persons who will see them are you and me and you will not be identified on the questionnaire. Also, it will be helpful if you would complete the questionnaire as completely as possible. I would like to ask that you do not consult anyone sitting near you concerning your answers in order that we may receive your individual responses. We would appreciate your honest responses to all items on the questionnaire; however, if you would prefer not to answer the questionnaire, please return it in the envelope provided. Your return of the completed questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in the study.

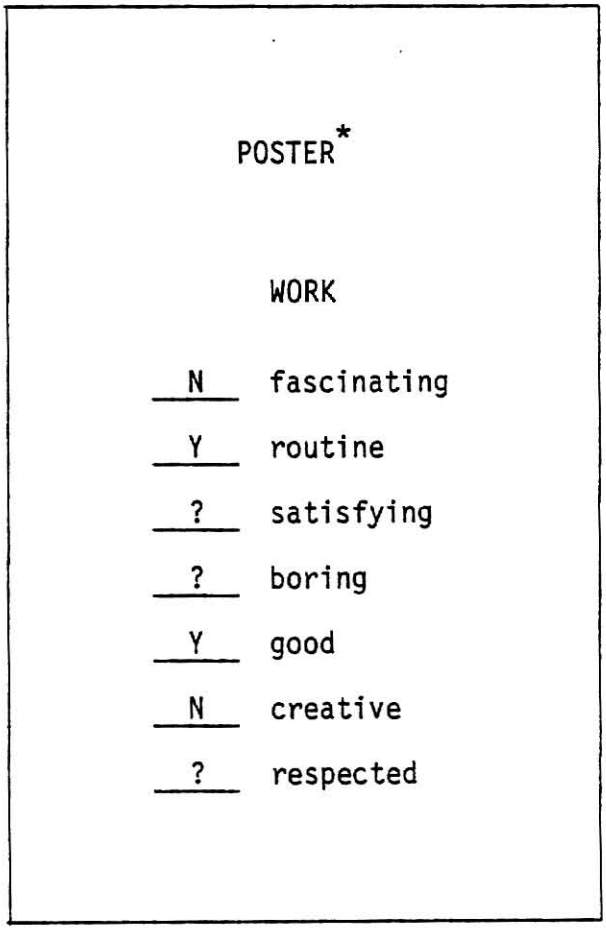
Answers from the questionnaire will be punched on computer cards using only numbers (show punched card). The cards will be sent through a computer for processing. This is the way I will receive the information (show a sample computer printout). This printout does not list individual responses; only totals and averages are listed. After the data have been analyzed, the questionnaires will be destroyed.

Now, let me briefly describe the various parts of the questionnaire to assist you in answering the questions. There are three separate parts. Each section begins with self-explanatory instructions, however, Part I of the questionnaire may be a little more difficult than the others. Please open your questionnaire to page 1 or Part I. In this section, you are asked to indicate which items describe the work that you do and which do not. Also, there is a way to indicate which items you are uncertain about with respect to your job. When you answer the questions on this page you are to place a "Y" next to an item which describes perceptions of your work and work environment and an "N" for an item which does not. A question mark, "?," may be used to indicate that you could not decide. For example (hold up poster), you might decide that your work is not fascinating or creative, but is routine and good (point to appropriate place on poster). You are undecided as to whether or not it is satisfying, boring, or respected. You would then write an "N" next to the words fascinating and creative and a "Y" next to routine and good. A question mark would be placed next to satisfying and boring.

In Part II, pages 2-6, please read each item carefully and check the response that best describes your opinions. Some of the items are a little long--you may need to read them twice. Part III, on page 7 of the questionnaire, asks a few questions about you to help us in analyzing questionnaire results.

Please sign your name on the index card attached to the questionnaire and return it to me now. I need this in order to match your questionnaire with your job description. Then complete the questionnaire according to the printed directions. Do not sign the questionnaire. Please place the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided, seal, and hand it directly to me.

If you have any questions I will be happy to answer them. The validity of the study will be dependent on your honesty in answering the questions. Thank you for your help and cooperation.



*A poster was prepared with the information indicated above to assist in explaining completion of Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to foodservice employees.

(KSU Letterhead)

INFORMED CONSENT INFORMATION

The purpose of this study is to survey participation of hospital foodservice personnel in organizational decision-making. This survey is being conducted under guidelines established by Kansas State University. By cooperating, you will help provide answers to important questions; however, your participation is strictly voluntary. The questions in the survey are not personal, but are concerned with your opinions about your job and the hospital. You should omit any questions which you feel unduly invade your privacy or which are otherwise offensive to you. Confidentiality is guaranteed; your name will not be associated with your answers in any public or private report of the results. Code numbers are used for research purposes only and names of individual respondents will not be released.

We would appreciate your honest responses to all items on the questionnaire; however, if you would prefer not to answer the questionnaire, please return it in the envelope provided. Also, you may choose not to answer individual questions. Your return of the completed questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in the study.

APPENDIX F

Follow-up Correspondence

(KSU Letterhead)

TO: (Name of Foodservice Supervisor)

FROM: Elizabeth M. Brammer, graduate student

This acknowledges receipt of:

_____ Employee Performance Evaluation(s)

The following evaluations have not been received:

Thanks for your assistance!

(KSU Letterhead)

December 7, 1979

(Letter to Foodservice Directors after On-Site Visit)

Dear

I extend my sincere appreciation for allowing me to conduct my research at your institution and for your help in making my data collection a success. Data from this study will provide useful information for understanding the needs of foodservice workers and their work environment.

I enjoyed meeting and interacting with various members of the department and appreciate the courtesy and cooperativeness extended to me. Your institution will receive a copy of the results upon completion of the project in early Spring. Again, thank you.

Sincerely,

Dr. Allene G. Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Associate Professor

Elizabeth M. Brammer
Graduate Student

ns

APPENDIX G

Forms for Data from Organization

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION-MAKING IN HOSPITAL FOODSERVICES

Report of Visit to Hospital

Date of Visit: _____ Bed Capacity: _____

Time: _____ Foodservice Manager: _____

Hospital: _____ Type of System: _____

Address: _____
Street

_____
City State Zip Code

Date contacted concerning visit: _____

How contacted: _____

Comments:

Schedule during visit:

Comments concerning visit:

Hospital: _____ Location: _____ Date of Visit: _____

ID No.	Name	Job	Wage Per Hr.	Supr.	Date Employed	Days Absent 1/1-9/30	Job Description	Employee Form	Perf. Eval.

TASKS WITH SUPERVISOR

Hospital _____

Supervisor _____

Management Style Form _____

Employees Supervised (names)	Performance evaluation

Hospital: _____ Date: _____

Location: _____

VISIT CHECKLIST

Organization chart _____

Job descriptions _____

Pay scales _____

Absentee data _____

Personnel policies _____

Duty schedules _____

Anniversary dates _____

Employee instruments _____

Management style forms _____

Performance evaluations _____

Supervisory packets _____

APPENDIX H

Job Category Descriptions

Composite jobs compiled from the hospital foodservice job descriptions:[1]

1. cafeteria worker	set up cafeteria serving line; clean tables; serve hot and cold food on cafeteria serving line, replenish serving line; store leftovers; clean serving line; make coffee, assist in meeting room with meal service; general cleaning of cafeteria equipment and serving line; arrange lettering on menu board; portion desserts and salads; may do some short order cooking; replenish condiments; fill napkin holders; prepare simple garnishes; may relieve cashier occasionally; reconstitute frozen food occasionally; replenish vending machines; collect vending machine monies occasionally and prepare simple desserts.
2. cashier	perform simple clerical duties; perform complex cashier duties to include maintaining cash reports, operating cash register, handling monies, set register prices and clean register; clean tables; brew coffe, occasionally; requisition cafeteria supplies; post daily menu; report customer complaints; make sandwiches, occasionally; and may assist on serving line.
3. cook	operate all foodservice equipment; cook a variety of foods using all methods of preparation to include frying, steaming, roasting, baking, grilling, and broiling for patients and staff; may assign tasks to helpers such as pre-preparation; replenish serving lines; clean work area and equipment; may serve food prepared; requisition food for menu item preparation; may prepare food for special catered meals; prepare and bake complex desserts such as cakes, breads, pies, and other pastry.
4. dietetic clerk	maintain patient diet information; arrange menus; tally patient trays; maintain nourishment records; check trays for

[1]Source: Shaffer (44).

4.	dietetic clerk (cont.)	accuracy; clean work area; answer telephone; fold menus; receive and relay messages to and from the wards; write identified data on menus; tally menu items; assist with tray assembly; assist dietitian; type miscellaneous items; prepare late trays; clean trayline; relieve patient services workers on weekends; supervise trayline when supervisor is absent; plan special menus; inventory and maintain supply of instructional material; deliver menus to patients; assist patients in selecting menus; provide liaison between foodservice and nursing service.
5.	general foodhandler	serve food on patient trayline; perform simple food preparation tasks such as making toast, salads, desserts, beverages, nourishments, and sandwiches; portion food; clean work and equipment; deliver nourishments to patient areas; replenish serving lines; pre-prepare ingredients for menu items prepared by cooks; slice and wrap meats; may pass nourishments to patients; may maintain simple records of quantities prepared and served; may use all types foodservice equipment.
6.	general kitchen worker	perform general labor tasks incidental to moving equipment and supplies from one place to another; sweep and mop floors; remove trash; clean pots and pans; clean food preparation equipment; assist with moving food in and out of storage; sort, clean, and store dishware; assist tray assembly; assist with simple food preparation; may perform any task within the operation except complex cooking.
7.	patient tray attendant	distribute meals and nourishments to patients; stock patient area pantries; prepare tray garnishes; clean foodservice equipment; work on trayline assembling trays and serving food; check patient trays for accuracy; clean work areas; occasionally clean food carts; pick-up and return trays from patient areas; assist in stripping food delivery carts following meals; occasionally collect menus; may work in ward galleys reconstituting/thermalizing foods for patients.

8.	sanitation worker	wash dishes; occasionally assist other areas of foodservice; store clean dishes; sweep and mop floors; do general cleaning to include floors, walls, and equipment; wash pots and pans; strip and clean dish-machine; remove trash from foodservice; pull tray carts to and from patient areas.
9.	storeroom worker	check-in and inspect deliveries from vendors; clean and wrap produce deliveries; wash and pan chickens and store in freezer; clean storeroom areas and equipment; work in dishroom occasionally; place stock in storage; conduct inventories; fill requisitions and deliver to appropriate using area; perform general kitchen cleaning occasionally; maintain records or all receipts and issues; rotate stock; may perform simple food preparation tasks; may assist other foodservice workers when time permits.

APPENDIX I

Coding of Questionnaire Data

Coding of Questionnaire Data

Card 1:

Column	
1	Card Code 1
2-4	Identification Code (ID)
5	Organization Number
6	Supervisor Number
7	Job Number
8-10	Wage Rate, Hourly
11-12	Times Absent
13-15	Tenure in Months
16-38	Performance Evaluation of Hospital Personnel Code responses as reported: 1 = Unsatisfactory 2 = Needs improvement 3 = Satisfactory 4 = Above average 5 = Superior

Card 2:

Column	
1	Card Code 2
2-4	Identification Number (ID)
5-76	Part I, items 5-76 Code: 0, if blank 1, if Y = Yes 2, if N = No 3, if ? = Not sure

Card 3:

Column	
1	Card Code 3
2-4	Identification Number (ID)
5-33	Part II, items 1-33 Code responses as reported
34-38	Part III, items 1-5 Code responses as reported
39	Item 6 Code: 1 = Grade school 2 = High school 3 = Attended 1 or more years of college 4 = College graduate 5 = Voc-tech
40-42	Item 7, record tenure in months

Card 3: (cont.)

Column	
43	Item 8, code responses as reported
44	Item 9 Code: 1 = Patients 2 = Cafeteria customers 3 = Both patients and cafeteria customers 4 = Neither

APPENDIX J

Hospital Descriptions

Description of the hospitals	
1. St. Joseph Medical Center	
bed capacity	522
location	Wichita, KS
ownership	church operated (Catholic); nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	6
supervisory staff	7
all other personnel	79
full-time	67
part-time	12
special characteristic(s)	conventional foodservice system
2. Wesley Medical Center	
bed capacity	738
location	Wichita, KS
ownership	nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	9
supervisory staff	7
all other personnel	139
full-time	108
part-time	31
special characteristic(s)	conventional foodservice system; employs many slow learners; competes with major airplane company for unskilled workers

Description of the hospitals (cont.)

3. Stormont Vail Regional Medical Center

bed capacity	388
location	Topeka, KS
ownership	nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	8
supervisory staff	8
all other personnel	104
full-time	91
part-time	13
special characteristic(s)	cook-chill operation; up-dated facilities; galleys located on all floors.

4. Bethany Medical Center

bed capacity	400
location	Kansas City, KS
ownership	nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	5
supervisory staff	5
all other personnel	123
full-time	73
part-time	50
special characteristic(s)	conventional foodservice system with some convenience foods; pellet system

Description of the hospitals (cont.)

5. Lincoln General Hospital	
bed capacity	286
location	Lincoln, Nebraska
ownership	nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	3
supervisory staff	7
all other personnel	83
full-time	44
part-time	39
special characteristic(s)	conventional foodservice system
6. Shawnee Mission Medical Center	
bed capacity	373
location	Shawnee Mission, KS
ownership	church operated (Seventh Day Adventist); nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	6
supervisory staff	7
all other personnel	100
full-time	80
part-time	20
special characteristic(s)	conventional foodservice system; vegetarian diet served

Description of the hospitals (cont.)

7. Research Medical Center

bed capacity	538
location	Kansas City, MO
ownership	nongovernmental, not for profit
personnel	
professional staff	9
supervisory staff	6
all other personnel	156
full-time	96
part-time	50
on-call	10
special characteristic(s)	conventional foodservice system

PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION-MAKING AND RELATED FACTORS AMONG NONSUPERVISORY HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE EMPLOYEES

by

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B.S., Kansas State University, 1976

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

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ABSTRACT

Hospital foodservice employees in seven medium to large-size non-unionized, general hospitals located in Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska constituted the survey sample (N = 213). The objectives of the research were to investigate the perceptions of participation in decision-making of nonsupervisory hospital foodservice employees and study relationships between these perceptions and other variables: levels of satisfaction, performance, job motivation, organizational identification, job innovation, and acceptance of change.

The employee questionnaire was comprised of three parts: a job satisfaction scale; items measuring participation in decision-making, job motivation, acceptance of change, interest in work innovation, and organizational identification; and biographical items. Job performance of the hospital foodservice employees was measured by supervisory ratings, using a standard performance rating form in all hospitals surveyed. Supervisors were asked to rate each of the employees working directly under their direction on six performance dimensions: quality of work, quantity of work, following directions, initiative and judgment, attendance, and personal relations.

Using scores on the participation in decision-making scale, four positions were classified as high participation jobs: cafeteria worker, dietetic clerk, general kitchen or sanitation worker, and patient tray attendant. Two positions were classified as low participation jobs: cooks and general food handlers. The high participation group scored significantly higher on three dimensions of satisfaction: pay, promotion,

and overall satisfaction. Scores on all other satisfaction measures also tended to be higher for the high participation than for the low participation group. Also, the high participation group scored significantly higher on organizational identification. Four of the satisfaction scores and the organizational identification score differed significantly among age groups.

Differences in supervisory performance ratings were analyzed in relation to employee groups defined by age, tenure, and job type (high versus low participation jobs). Attendance and personal relations scores were significantly different among age groups; whereas significant F ratios resulted from analysis of all seven job performance dimensions with respect to job type. No differences were found among tenure groups. Work performance ratings were significantly higher for employees in the high participation group, compared to those of employees in the low participation group.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to identify predictors of job satisfaction and performance, using wage, tenure, and three scores, participation in decision-making (PART), change orientation (ACIII), and organizational identification (OID), as predictors. Wage data were not available in three hospitals; therefore, equations also were computed for the total sample with wage omitted.

Wage was a significant positive predictor of all dimensions of performance. Tenure was a negative predictor of four dimensions and participation in decision-making and organizational identification were significant predictors of three of seven scores. In the analysis with wage omitted, participation in decision-making was a significant predictor of all dimensions of performance.

Wage, PART, and OID were significant predictors of overall satisfaction and satisfaction with work and supervision. ACIII also was a significant predictor of work satisfaction. In analysis with wage deleted, participation in decision-making and organizational identification were significant predictors of all seven satisfaction scores. Change orientation (ACIII) was a significant predictor of only two scores (pay and promotion satisfaction).