A GUIDE FOR RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF FULL-TIME NONPROFESSIONAL FOOD SERVICE EMPLOYEES

by

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INTRODUCTION

A major function of food service administration is recruitment and selection of employees. Despite efforts toward efficient manpower use, turnover in this area occurs in food services for many and sometimes complex reasons. Because most of its jobs are unskilled or semiskilled, the food service industry pays low wages. Working conditions may prove to be difficult for many workers because of physical exertion required, necessity for being on the feet, odd working hours, and job assignments on weekends and holidays. Unskilled workers in the food industry may also lack motivation because too often they are employed by default, particularly when unqualified for other types of work.

High cost of hiring, training, and discharging employees does not allow for mistakes in choice and placement of workers. Qualifications and potential job performance of applicants may be difficult to assess. Unsatisfactory or dissatisfied employees can cause inefficiency and problems both to the organization and the individual. Careful selection of personnel then, is a responsibility of management. Increasing interest has been evidenced by discussion in the literature of the value of effective selection and placement. Although most books give methods and procedures in general, little is related directly or applicable to food services.

Selection measures may differ for every organization depending on type of operation, size, location, and job-related problems. Whenever labor supply permits, the tendency is for careful screening of applicants by means of such devices as application blanks, personal data forms, references, interviews, tests, and health examinations.

At present, only a small percentage of food services have either written established courses of action or policies regarding employee recruitment and selection. Although food services may have application blanks designed specifically for their own organization, few have or use interview procedures defining who is to perform the interview, how long it is to last, what information is to be obtained, or how many interviews to require of an applicant before final selection is made.

As in any phase of management, selection of employees requires flexibility. Logically, procedures for selection should vary with the needs of the particular organization and demands of the individual situation. Since selection implies choice and "discrimination," need for effective ways of screening the labor supply in order to obtain the best qualified employees is apparent.

Objectives of this report are to review the literature and to develop a guide for recruitment and selection of full-time, nonprofessional food service employees applicable to conditions found in a small midwestern city based

on suggestions from the literature and firsthand observations of employment practices of representative types of food services in Manhattan, Kansas.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Employee Selection

Personnel selection results from the need to fill a position or positions in the organization (Ehrle, 1964). This process involves evaluation of applicant capabilities and personalities as related to the job to be filled. Ultimately, the decision must be made to accept or reject the applicant.

Responsibility for Selection. West and Wood (1955) noted that many large organizations with food services may have personnel departments responsible for administration of manpower. However, the majority of food services are simple organization structures in which personnel is the responsibility of the person in charge of the unit. In this case, the food service director or manager may be responsible for selecting and training all employees.

Characteristics of Selection. Selection is two-fold, in Ehrle's (1964) opinion; differentiation of applicants who possess minimum qualifications and those who do not, and rank of applicants from highest to lowest in terms of qualifications. In addition, employee selection implies not only choice and discrimination, but prediction. The decision to accept and place an applicant predicts that he will perform effectively or reasonably well on the job. Because uncertainty of prediction adds to the complexity

of selection, thorough knowledge of the job and its requirements is needed, as well as insight into human behavior.

Selection as Decision-Making. Recognition of selection as a decision-making process reduces the margin of error even when optimum selection techniques have been used, pointed out Calhoon (1963). As in other decisions, those in the realm of selection often fail because objectives have not been considered adequately. Objectives should be set forth and considered throughout the process of selection, and then used to evaluate results.

Need for Effective Selection. Mandell (1964) stated that for an organization to survive in the highly competitive business world, management goals must include careful selection and placement of employees to be sure that they are physically, mentally, and temperamentally fitted to the jobs they are expected to do; and that new employees reasonably can be expected to develop into desirable employees. No organization can expect to grow and progress if it fails to hire employees with capacity for self-development and to provide an atmosphere conducive to achievement (Mandell, 1964).

Poor selection is unfortunate for both organization and employees, declared Calhoon (1963); and may cause major waste for the one, as well as maladjustment and discontent for the other. Calhoon (1963) stressed, however, that

dislike for the work cannot be entirely eliminated by efficient selection because some jobs intrinsically are not stimulating or pleasant.

Because of social stigma attached to discharge or failure in a job, Calhoon (1963) suggested that additional care must be used in selection. In companies where unions are established, management may find increasing difficulty in making dismissals, and instead feel obligated for the success and retention of personnel (Calhoon, 1963).

Problems of Selection. One problem in effective selection and placement, according to Mandell (1964), arises from differences in productivity which the same employee may show in different jobs and situations. The prime goal for the individual organization, therefore, is to select applicants who seem to have potential for growth within the organization's particular environment (Mandell, 1964). Calhoon (1963) remarked that employees without potential for growth constitute an impediment; and since they cannot advance, they may hinder progress of the men behind them. In time, even the substandard employee who works at a low-level job may feel anxieties as others are promoted ahead of him. In turn, this may have far-reaching effects on morale of other employees (Calhoon, 1963).

Responsibility of Management. From the first day of employment, management should assume responsibility for the new appointee. Calhoon (1963) argued that the act of

selection implies the organization's confidence in the worker's ability and expectation of success on the job. However, responsibility is a matter of degree and is incurred from the very beginning by the employee as well as the organization (Calhoon, 1963).

Employment Procedures. A procedure covering all phases of employment, specifically recruitment and selection of personnel, is a management control that assigns specific roles to different members of the organization in the selection process. Whether the organization be large or small, clearly stated policies help to establish responsibility and to prescribe orderly methods for choosing employees. Calhoon (1963) found that established policies and procedures aided newer members of management to become familiar with employee recruitment and selection and insured uniform and objective methods of selection of future workers. A selection procedure or program, Mandell (1964) warned, is more than just a question of eye-catching ads, elaborate company brochures, and casual job interviews.

Stone and Kendall (1956) noted that although the need for written procedures on personnel policy was apparent to most managers and administrators, many failed to put such policies in writing. Even though strong traditions may have the force of written policy, they should be strengthened by being put in writing. A written policy statement regarding employment procedures is assurance that

needs and problems of the organization have been recognized and studied, basic decisions made, and authority provided for daily decisions. As in any phase of manpower management, recruitment and selection require flexibility, constant evaluation, and revision as needed (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Established selection procedures may tend to set up restrictions when they clearly state and define minimum qualifications. Mandell (1964) speculated that the nature of selection methods and standards used by an organization affects the quality of applicants. If tests are used, rigid health examinations required, or references thoroughly checked, applicants who do not think they can qualify may be discouraged.

Strauss and Sayles (1960) observed that a self-selection process usually operated when job qualifications were stated. Self-selection was defined by Mandell (1964) as the conscious or unconscious decision that an applicant makes when he applies to a particular organization or accepts a particular type of job or level of work. Mandell (1964) cited two reasons for self-selection: most workers want to work at whatever jobs they do well, and individuals know their capabilities as well or even better than the selector does. Therefore, employee self-selection should increase validity of the manager's choice, and thus reduce cost and turnover (Mandell, 1964).

In industries where formal restrictions or defined qualifications were not set up by the company, Strauss and Sayles (1960) observed that a form of self-selection process operated. Certain types of people gravitated to and found working in certain kinds of industries and jobs compatible to their capabilities and personalities. Although this may exist in limited instances in food service systems, in general, self-selection without formal restrictions cannot be said to work in the food service field.

Job Requirements

Because of the importance of effective selection, diversity of qualifications of applicants, as well as variety of food service work, requirements and specifications of jobs need to be determined and clearly stated. According to Yoder (1948), every manager should have some notion of the work or job to be done when he hires a new employee. The idea of detailed descriptions of the principal duties of a job is a relatively new development. It was given impetus during World War II by the work of the United States Employment Service and by work in the Armed Forces (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Job Analysis. Several specific procedures aid in determining specifications of a job. One is job analysis, which involves classification and evaluation of all facts available about a given job and position. Calhoon (1963)

defined job analysis as a systematic procedure for securing and reporting information defining a specific job or position. This information as written up is the job description.

Purposes of Job Analysis. The purposes of job analysis as reviewed by Wallace (1948) are: (1) furnishes information from which job descriptions and specifications are prepared and upon which job classifications are based; (2) determines characteristics of jobs; (3) lays foundation for intelligent selection, designing training programs, appraising working conditions, and systematic wage determination as it makes possible the setting of job standards based on careful evaluation of duties and responsibilities; (4) promotes greater efficiency because of improved placement and methods improvements; and (5) assists management in proper allocation of authority and responsibility by describing duties of each position and the inter-relationships among jobs (Wallace, 1946).

Types of Job Analysis. The Manual of the American Dietetic Association "A Guide to the Selection and Training of Food Service Employees" cited two types of job analysis to be considered. One includes methods study and gives an accurate evaluation of operations, duties, and relationships of a job; it should be prepared and made by individuals versed in scientific procedures. The other is less detailed and excludes methods study, but includes

qualifications required of the suitable employee. Although the first type is more complete, it may be impractical and difficult to make such a detailed study. Each food service should determine the extent of job analysis as related to its needs. Calhoon (1963) mentioned also that the amount of detail developed for the job description and specification, as well as for allied information helpful in selection, depends on nature of the job.

Obtaining Information. Mandell (1964) outlined a variety of ways by which information for job descriptions can be obtained. One is the organization's existing job specifications. Other methods include observation of employees performing tasks, questionnaires filled out by the supervisor or employee, discussion with the particular supervisor and employee, and review of critical incidents. The last method involves a brief write-up by the supervisor about factual incidents illustrating effective and ineffective behavior that may be of critical importance and that necessarily requires judgment and complete knowledge of the job (Flanagan, 1954). Again, methods used would depend largely on the particular needs of the organization. Regardless of method of analysis, Wallace (1946) recommended that the result should be an adequate description of the job to provide information needed by the person charged with employee selection.

Information Required. The Occupational Analysis Division of the U. S. Department of Labor suggested the following categories of data to be included in job descriptions:

1. Amount of supervision received.
2. Extent of responsibility.
3. Need for and opportunity to use initiative.
4. Necessary background of knowledge.
5. Degree to which alertness is important.
6. Judgment factor.
7. Level of dexterity needed.
8. Standards of accuracy.
9. Tools and equipment normally used.
10. Production standards.
11. Working conditions (wages, hours, and shift).
12. Physical demands.

These are minimum general requirements and general categories. Additional data significant to the job must be added as required.

Since food service jobs differ from those in other industries, the American Dietetic Association manual for selecting and training food service employees gave two major groups of factors to be considered in developing a complete job analysis, job factors, and personal factors.

Job Factors:

1. Name or title of job.
2. Statement of duties; brief description of activities, materials, and equipment used.
3. Conditions of employment; hours, wages, shift, time off, and special benefits.
4. Degree of skill required; speed, accuracy, dexterity.
5. Promotional opportunities.

Personal Factors:

1. Sex -- preferred for each job, in compliance with labor laws.
2. Age -- minimum, maximum, and preferred, in compliance with federal and state laws.
3. Personal attributes; initiative, judgment, etc.
4. Physical ability and general state of health.
5. Marital status, parental status (number and ages of dependents), veteran status.
6. Education; minimum and preferred.
7. Experience.

Job Descriptions. Writing style used for job descriptions should follow a standardized form that makes for easy quick reference, avoids confusion, and allows the write-up to be as brief as possible (Calhoon, 1963). Whether an informal, narrative write-up with paragraphs, or a formal outline with points and subpoints is used, the specification must be brief, concise, and comprehensive. Itemizing points has advantages of ease in checking or reference (Calhoon, 1963). According to Lundberg and Armatas (1964), all writing for the job description should be in reply to four key questions of analysis: (1) What does the worker do? (2) Why does he do it? (3) How does he do it? and (4) What skills are involved in doing it? After the description is written, it should be given to the particular workers and supervisors to check for clarity and possible omissions, especially those tasks that are done only occasionally and may not have been observed in the analysis (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Job descriptions are useful not only for recruiting, but for the entire selection process, stated Calhoon (1963). They are useful in developing questions to ask during interviews and for evaluation of applicants through all phases of selection. This is true especially of critical requirements identified in the description. An often neglected advantage is that job descriptions furnish information to applicants and help them to reach a decision as to whether or not the job is suitable for them. Misunderstandings may be minimized about specific duties and responsibilities, as well as other particulars of the job (Calhoon, 1963).

Personal Factors in Employment

Difficulties may arise in determining personal factors critical to or required by a given job. Cameron (1964) stated that any company interested in maintaining a prominent position in industry, after considering all possible angles, should select employees on the basis of merit. Thereafter, on the job, controls should be carefully applied; such as, checks on employment, dismissals, and evaluation of individual input and output through job evaluations and rating programs (Cameron, 1964).

Personal Characteristics. Personal characteristics may be difficult to establish and their relationship to a job hard to assess. However, Mandell (1964) categorized two areas for consideration; job performance and behavior

traits. The former should be descriptive of performance as "highly productive," "attendance record perfect," and "meets all responsibilities and deadlines;" and should be useful in predicting work capabilities. The latter, perhaps more intangible, should delineate distinguishing qualities such as poise, intelligence, and tact. Whenever relevant to the job, both performance and behavior characteristics should be evaluated by effective interviews, checking references, and thorough medical checkups. Alcoholism and drug addiction may be discovered in health examinations, as well as other attributes related to total behavior patterns (Mandell, 1964).

Job Experience. Mandell (1964) observed that the problem in analyzing job experiences offered by applicants may be similar to that of education; where type, length, and level of experience may not be directly related to the new job. Experience indicates exposure but not necessarily ability. A good plan would be to specify "progressively responsible" experience in order to eliminate people who have worked at the same job and level for a long time and are not likely to learn tasks in a new job (Mandell, 1964).

Intelligence. The meaning of intelligence, according to Mandell (1964), is controversial and must be explained in terms of type and level. This characteristic may be understood if described in terms of ability to comprehend, learn, and follow instructions. Intelligence is a

diverse set of concepts. Mandell (1964) mentioned four attributes which, though closely related to intelligence, are not identical: good judgment, quick-wittedness, ability to learn, and memory.

Creativity. Another attribute related to intelligence is creativity. Calhoon (1963) defined creativity as the process that results in novel work which is accepted as useful or satisfying by a group at some point in time. Problem-solving, decision-making, and creativity are difficult to distinguish from one another; since any thinking to produce useful results must be mentally directed toward creativeness (Calhoon, 1963).

Sex. The experience of World War II demonstrated that many jobs previously considered unsuitable for women could, in fact, be performed ably by them. Kruger (1964) believed that women work for four basic reasons: (1) work is an economic necessity, (2) women want to work because of education or training, (3) women want social acceptance, and (4) employers are willing to hire women.

Problems of women in the work force, said Calhoon (1963), may be analyzed by examining ways in which they differ from men. He found the following points generally true:

> Physically, women average five inches shorter and 30 percent weaker than men. In intelligence, per se, no difference exists between men and women. However, women are superior to men in memory, making them particularly better in detail work. Men have faster reaction time and are better

> coordinated in gross body movements. In personality, a higher percentage of women are too sensitive and tests revealed surprisingly big numbers of dominant women. Women are more sensitive to feelings of others, tend to form cliques, and are more helpful in social situations. Women appear to need encouragement and reassurance more than men. Women have more reasons for absenteeism, have higher turnover, and have less motivation on the job, caused by the fact that work to most women is of secondary interest. Career girls and older women who are strongly career-oriented have, however, the same motivation as men.

In a recent study by Saleh et al. (1965) of female turnover, results brought out an important fact; namely, the conflict between woman's role as a career woman and her traditional role as homemaker, wife, and mother. In most cases, the conflict is resolved by accepting the traditional role and quitting the job. If she was not married, social and psychological pressures toward marriage complicated her attitude toward her job. Frequently, the job was not only a way of making a living, but also a means of important social contacts (Saleh et al., 1965).

Age. In states where laws prohibit discrimination in employment on the basis of age, preferred age requirements for a job cannot be specified. However, Mandell (1964) found that when this is done, the purpose is generally multiple. Age is used as an index of stamina, flexibility, and probable length of service before retirement. It is used also as a predictor of absenteeism, training time, and pension costs.

Whether older workers (over 40) are more productive than younger workers depends on the kind of work and the individual, according to Calhoon (1963). Various studies conducted by the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and universities have yielded contrasting results. One such study was reported by Cameron (1964). Results showed no scientific relationship between chronological age and enthusiasm or energy. To categorize a man's enthusiasm, energy, and potentiality on the basis of age alone was judged to be unfair.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics study emphasized the importance of distinguishing between chronological age and physical age, since variations in output per man-hour of persons within the same age group were greater than differences between the average output of different age brackets. A substantial proportion of workers in older groups performed better than the average for younger groups.

When considering advantages of using older workers, Calhoon (1963) found that quality of work and dependability stood out as assets of older workers. Other resources often present in older workers were judgment, diligence, interest in work, concentration, responsibility, high degree of job and company loyalty, less supervision, and the fact that older persons lend stability to other employees in the organization (Calhoon, 1963).

Although older persons may have longer illnesses and lose more time because of illness, a study done by the University of Illinois covering 3000 workers of age 60 and over, and another by Max Kossoris (as reported by Calhoon, 1963) including some 17,800 workers, indicated that total absence of older workers attributed to sickness was less than that of younger workers.

Recruitment

Selection can be only as good as the candidates for selection. According to Loen (1961), the task of recruitment is basically that of attracting enough applicants from which a judicious choice can be made. Recruitment was described by Yoder (1948) as a positive managerial function where candidates are found and made available, whereas selection is the negative counterpart serving the function of screening applicants made available by recruitment. In actual practice, Yoder (1948) noted that recruitment and selection phases are difficult to separate completely since some selectivity must be exercised in any recruiting activity.

Recruitment is a continuing function. Filling vacancies because of new positions available or turnover loss of employees is a typical task of the person charged with the personnel function. Those responsible for recruitment, stressed Stone and Kendall (1956), should be

sensitive to changes in the organization affecting operations and which may influence the type of manpower required.

Basic Appeals. Mandell (1964) concluded that since recruiting is a problem of appeal, one of the first steps should be to learn what the organization has to offer and how to appeal to the needs and wants of potential employees. As in other industries, many possible candidates are available for food service jobs. Temple Burling (as quoted by Mandell, 1964) suggested nine basic appeals that an organization can have in order to attract candidates. Mandell (1964) emphasized that claims to these appeals must be in agreement with the actual situation and that both strong and weak points of the organization should be mentioned to applicants:

> Security. First in importance to the employee is the feeling of security derived from an adequate income, job tenure, confidence in his employer, dependable supervision, justice, adequate communication between himself and those above him in the organization, and no violent shifts or changes in the work situation.
>
> Self-esteem. Second is the self-esteem acquired from income, status in the organization, pride in the organization and its products or services, recognition for a job well done, recognition as an individual, and protection from humiliation.
>
> Opportunity for Growth. The third basic appeal is opportunity for growth and new experiences. While dependable routine appeals to some workers, growth and promotion appeal to most. Related to growth is training and upgrading.
>
> Companionship. The kinds of people the potential employee will work with and the presence or absence of group spirit are especially important to most women, and to all applicants, in general.

Employer's Reputation. The appeal of the employer's image to the potential worker, his friends, and his family can not be overestimated. To many people, this is part of the psychic income from the job. Good public relations foster not only good customers, but also good employee-management relations.

Job Content. The appeal of job content can easily be obscured by psychological factors, just as the emphasis on human relations obscured the fact that it was only a part, although an important one, of the typical job or position. Emphasis on responsibility and duties eliminate applicants who realize the job is not suitable for them. Challenging jobs, with duties well-defined and initiative encouraged, attract superior workers.

Financial Rewards. In many cases, the salary offered may be the immediate reason for interest in the job. Compensation programs must take into consideration several important factors before they can be used as appeals. Fringe benefits enhance the attractiveness of the job, but appeal in varying degrees to individuals.

Location. Highly important to many potential applicants is the location of the workplace. Traffic congestion and the resulting loss of time and expense of travel from distant suburbs have encouraged industries to locate in outlying areas. Location will have a lot to do with attracting women and family men.

Other Appeals. Related to fringe benefits, potential employees will be moved by such auxiliary benefits as advantageous hours, free meals, health insurance, free laundry, or employee discounts in company stores.

Although the local labor market is important, Stone and Kendall (1956) found that the standing of the organization in the community is of greater significance. Recruitment is less of a problem when the organization has a reputation of being a good place to work. All members of

management have a continuing obligation to see that this reputation is established and maintained (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Recruitment Standards and Philosophies. Recruiting is a complex task. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) gave four requirements for farsighted recruiting: (1) consideration of manpower needs, (2) knowledge of promotional ladder within the organization, (3) prediction of future turnover rates based on past experience and growth expectations, and (4) understanding of type of person who may be best suited for specific positions and available jobs. Recruitment problems differ for every food service. Each organization must come up with its own standards and philosophies. Whereas, some flexibility is desirable, too much of it may defeat the value of the system (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Lundberg and Armatas (1964) cited the following standards and philosophies which may be established in developing the recruitment program:

1. Minimum skills and requirements of each job and position must be established prior to any recruitment. Requirements should state preferred age, sex, marital status, and other factors related to the job.

2. The organization needs to understand, know, and objectify degree of potential for personal development required in new employees and at the same time relate these requirements with actual chances for development in the organization.

3. Prior to recruitment, every employee and member of the organization who will be affected by the employment of a new worker

should be informed, in order to preserve stability and morale among the employees.

4. The organization must decide whether all new employees will be hired from the bottom and then trained for promotion, or new employees hired as the position is made available. Generally, a combination of both systems is used in order to avoid promoting unqualified employees and also take advantage of hiring highly qualified candidates for higher positions.

Recruiting Sources

Food service administrators are confronted with the problem of knowing where to obtain satisfactory employees. No matter how well the personnel function may be carried out, some turnover of employees will be normal. Ideally, a constant supply of replacements should be available. However, when jobs are plentiful and workers scarce, this is not always possible; and organizations may be forced to employ untrained and inexperienced workers (American Dietetic Association Manual, 1947). Marks of good recruiting, concluded Mandell (1964), are knowing where to look for suitable prospects and what appeals and media will give effective results.

Recruitment sources vary in ability to supply possible candidates for either new jobs or replacements for employees leaving established positions. Factors determining the effectiveness of various employee sources are location of the food service, season or time of year, status of

labor market at a given time, and reputation of the organization searching for workers (Mandell, 1964). Some of the more common recruitment sources are personal contacts, former employees, chance applicants, mail applicants, schools and colleges, employment agencies, radio, newspapers, trade journals, and unions.

Personal Contacts. A commonly used means of obtaining labor is through personal contacts, either direct or indirect. Stone and Kendall (1956) credited employees already part of the organization with making good suggestions for possible additions or replacements. This appeared to be true especially for small organizations in small communities. However, impetus to this origin of labor for medium to large companies was given by the tight labor markets of World War II (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Two kinds of sources may result from recommendations of employees: (1) relatives and (2) friends of employees. Some managers question the use of this category as a source of job candidates. Friends and relatives, reasoned Calhoon (1963), when carefully screened offer certain advantages:

1. Offer some pre-screening by the employee through his hesitation to recommend anyone who
    a. would not make a good employee
    b. would reflect adversely on the employee himself
    c. would risk the safety, well-established routine, well-being and reputation of the employee himself.

2. Ease adjustment of new workers to the job and environment through employee contact.

3. Provide stability to the organization through more congenial work atmosphere.

Generally, when an employee advanced the name of an applicant as a potential employee or was called upon to verify his history, commented Shaw (1962), he was frank about the information regardless of how close to the applicant he otherwise might be. Yoder (1948) noted that employees react favorably to opportunities to help select their colleagues and fellow workers, encouraging a high level of loyalty and morale. Employee suggestions provide as good or even better quality applicants, asserted Shaw (1962), than do some of the other recruitment methods. A further advantage, he suggested, was avoidance of public announcement of the vacancy and, oftentimes, subsequent filling of the position when employees arranged for an interview between a friend or relative and management.

Disadvantages arising from the use of employee recommendations should not be ignored. West and Wood (1955) warned that personal ties may be stronger than business loyalties, and inept, unskilled or unsuitable employees may be recommended highly by the friend or relative. Calhoon (1963) mentioned the fact that since families and friends tend to identify with one another, strong clannish feelings may lead to an unfortunate reaction against a policy, a disciplinary measure, or even a superior. The possibility

of alienating present employees should be considered if their recommended friend or relative is not selected or proves to be unable to perform the work and subsequently is discharged.

Former Employees. Loen (1961) stated that past employees who have left the organization of their own accord could be rehired, although care should be exercised to ascertain the reasons for their resignation. Previous part-time employees also constitute a good recruitment resource, according to Calhoon (1963).

Mandell (1964) suggested that records should be kept of job performance of former employees in order to identify those who did satisfactory work and left for reasons that did not reflect hostility toward the organization. Calhoon (1963) stated that prejudice against those who have left and wish to return is shortsighted, because these applicants may have improved through additional experience. Loen (1961) however, emphasized that former employees need to be carefully evaluated because regardless of the excellence of job performance, "job-hoppers" are poor employment risks.

Chance Applicants. "Walk-ins" or chance applicants constitute a sizable source of prospective employees for many companies, according to Stone and Kendall (1956). In tight labor markets and certain seasons of the year, the number is reduced considerably. Whatever the condition of the labor market, however, provision should be made to

receive the chance applicants in a manner that will give a favorable impression of the organization (Stone and Kendall, 1956). Loen (1961) advised that all chance applicants be given preliminary application forms to fill in or at least have them leave their names and addresses, and positions wanted. In addition, Calhoon (1963) believed that all chance applicants should be given short, preliminary interviews whenever possible.

Chance applicants may be of several types, concluded Calhoon (1963). Some are recent school graduates; some are school drop-outs seeking profitable employment; some may be workers presently employed looking for better jobs; some may be economically displaced through no fault of their own; and some are marginal applicants who can obtain no work and are virtually unemployable. One of the difficulties with chance applicants is dovetailing their need for a job at the precise moment that a suitable job may be available.

Mail Applications. Though uncommon for nonprofessional jobs, food services occasionally may receive mail applications and inquiries for jobs. Quality and quantity of these will depend on the reputation and employment policies of the organization. Promptness in replying is a first requisite, said Stone and Kendall (1956). Although some applicants obviously will be unqualified for the position available, all letters and inquiries should be acknowledged.

Prompt follow-through gives the organization an opportunity to know more about applicants who may have possibilities for future employment. For the unqualified, a friendly "turn-down" letter, signed by the manager may be used. Prompt answers to mail applications indicate efficiency and creates a favorable impression to all applicants whether they are accepted or rejected.

Schools and Colleges. For work in the food service industry, West and Wood (1955) regarded most localities with high schools, trade or vocational schools, and colleges as often having excellent prospective workers. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) found that college students, even those not in the food field, make good part-time and summer employees. A two-way advantage is provided: for the food service, high-type, relatively low-wage employees when most needed; and for the student, financial help, as well as work experience. Employing students dignifies labor, indicated West and Wood (1955), and promotes cooperation and democracy. However, constant supervision is needed when using part-time student help if high food standards and acceptable service are to be maintained.

According to Stone and Kendall (1956), realistic and differential standards must be established in recruitment of high school and vocational school graduates; that is, such graduates must be placed in positions where they are offered an opportunity for advancement. Otherwise, they

will quickly lose interest in the job and look for more challenging work elsewhere.

Employment Agencies. Several types of employment agencies are available to employers and people seeking jobs. They may be classified as public, private, and mutual agencies.

Public Employment Agencies. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) claimed that public employment agencies are little used by food services except in particular localities. Referrals from public agencies and some charitable agencies often may not have been well-screened when the agency is concerned more with placing the applicant in a job than ascertaining his qualifications for the job. In some cities, however, public employment services are highly satisfactory (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964). State employment agencies offer a wide range of prospects, both in number and quality; and Calhoon (1963) observed that they are most helpful when the labor market is tight.

Spriegel and Dale (1953) noted an improvement of attitudes toward and the use of state employment services. This was attributed to continuance of tight labor markets in many areas, necessitating the use of every available recruitment source possible. Since state and federal agencies serve principally high school graduates, the unemployed, and the economically displaced, they are better

sources of unskilled and semiskilled rather than skilled workers.

Advantages of state and federal agencies as a source of applicants were ascertained by Stone and Kendall (1956) to be the capability of covering a wide area and thus pulling applicants from all over the state, and by Lundberg and Armatas (1964) as having the tools to do first-rate referral jobs.

Private Employment Agencies. Private employment agencies sometimes provide excellent recruits for the food industry, said Lundberg and Armatas (1964). Stone and Kendall (1956) found that private or "fee" agencies have traditionally operated as individually or group-owned businesses. The advantage of private employment agencies is that because of the fee, they usually screen applicants effectively and have qualified applicants in the first place. Stone and Kendall (1956) noted that most private agencies are local in scope and seldom able to canvass outside their general area. Private agencies may sometimes specialize in particular types of jobs, such as domestic work, secretarial and clerical work, or accounting and bookkeeping. The employer using such a service may be more specific in his requirements, more selective, and have better chances of finding good workers than from a generalized agency (Stone and Kendall, 1956). An important difference between public and private agencies is that private

agencies are not limited to unemployed persons, as is generally true in the case of the public services. Pressures in public offices to refer unemployment compensation applicants to suitable jobs puts emphasis on placement of the economically dislocated, whereas private agencies register large numbers of employed persons seeking jobs with higher pay or better opportunities for growth than available in their present situation. Such individuals are willing to pay the agency to help them in their search (Stone and Kendall, 1956). Whatever agencies may be used, Loen (1961) favored the idea of the organization furnishing the agency with informational brochures, illustrations of facilities, and details concerning the vacancy to be filled.

Mutual Agencies. Signs of increased development of mutual agencies in industry have become apparent in recent years. The mutual agency is usually a non-profit organization subsidized by a group of companies to recruit, and in some cases, to select applicants for employment (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Radio Advertising. Radio advertising, according to Lundberg and Armatas (1964), has been found effective in rural and suburban areas for procurement of full- and part-time help by the food industry. Radio reaches women not actively seeking employment. These women can be reminded that they have skills in cooking and housekeeping that can

be exchanged for extra income, while still having time to keep up their own homes (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964). This has been helpful for school lunch programs and the motel and hotel business.

Physically Handicapped. Most indifference to the physically handicapped as a source of labor may be attributed to lack of knowledge of the record they have made as workers, as well as to ungrounded fears that workmen's compensation insurance rates may be higher for the disabled. Stone and Kendall (1956) reported on surveys demonstrating that absenteeism, labor turnover, and accident rates were surprisingly low for handicapped workers. Bridges (1946) discovered that productivity reports proved the handicapped, in general, equaled or were higher than the average for all employees in this area. The number of disabled persons employed in the labor force was estimated by Stone and Kendall (1956) to be between two and seven million in the 1950's.

Lundberg and Armatas (1964) contended that since most jobs require only certain faculties and skills, sound personnel policy would dictate the employment of physically handicapped persons for certain jobs, such as a dish room crew of deaf-mutes by a restaurant. Employing a disfigured waitress might be inappropriate, whereas the same individual could prove to be an efficient store room clerk. The organization should place handicapped persons where they

can contribute most to the organization and at the same time prove that they can be useful members of society (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Newspapers and Magazines. A frequent method used for recruiting is advertising in newspapers, magazines, trade and technical journals. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) found that newspapers were useful in attracting unskilled workers and young people whose knowledge of employment opportunities might be meager.

Ideally, newspaper "help-wanted" advertisements should sell the available job to qualified applicants. Preparation of good advertisements, according to Mandell (1964), has become such a specialized task that most national organizations and large companies have professional men to do the job. Two general types of advertisements are used, classified and display. Classified will be found in the regular "Help Wanted" columns. Display ads may be only enlargements of the classified ads, although the trend is toward use of pictures and layouts similar to those of product advertisements.

Advertisements can be "open," giving the name and address of the organization, or "blind," giving only a telephone number or post office box number (Loen, 1961). Open ads usually yield more applicants and enable the organization to advertise its name to the community, whereas blind ads enable the company to announce vacancies without having

to respond to all applicants. The latter procedure cuts down on the number of applicants, but is not considered a good public relations practice (Loen, 1961). Mandell (1964) noted that in using blind advertisements, desirable candidates may not take time to apply to an unknown organization; thus the value of its reputation is lost.

Wording the advertisement is important. Content and nature of appeals used should be varied according to type of worker sought (Stone and Kendall, 1956). Lundberg and Armatas (1964) ascertained that placing the advertisement as close as possible to the beginning of the classified ad section had the advantage of immediately catching the eye of people scanning the page. Timing the advertisement so that it reaches the most people is important also, according to Stone and Kendall (1956). Sunday and Monday are the best days of the week to run advertisements. The American Dietetic Association Manual (1947) suggested the addition of news stories also to the display ads to give general publicity. West and Wood (1955) stressed the importance of defining and stating qualifications of jobs clearly in the ads, unless unskilled and untrained workers are sought.

Other Sources. Numerous other sources of recruits may be overlooked. These vary for different localities and with the type of food service and its needs. Such sources as social organizations, churches, customers, and suppliers may yield good prospects on occasion. Heretical as it may

sound, Calhoon (1963) found that other organizations can be good sources of trained and skilled workers. This source may be used only with the utmost tact and discretion for several reasons: (1) to avoid offending the other organization, (2) to avoid recruiting workers whom the other organization wishes to get rid of, and (3) to avoid having one's own employees "pirated."

A frequently overlooked source of applicants is the organization's own applicant file. Stone and Kendall (1956) suggested that the organization keep a current file or "waiting list" that is classified in the easiest and most convenient way, either alphabetically by name of the applicant or by job classification.

Development of Sources. Not only must the recruiter know the sources, but he also has to obtain their cooperation, said Mandell (1964). Once effective sources have been identified, they must be cultivated. School counselors, employment agencies, employees, and placement officials must be informed of the numbers and kinds of employees needed, and advantages offered by the organization. They must be convinced that the organization deserves priority with qualified applicants (Mandell, 1964).

Means of obtaining cooperation and developing good relations are infinite. In any case, sincerity is a first and essential factor, contended Mandell (1964). When applicants are recruited through employees, the quality of

these employees affects the quality of their recruits to a large extent. Frequent personal contacts which are well-timed and reasonable make good impressions. The vocational teacher who comes in close contact with students is not only a source of referrals but an important link in the evaluation process itself. People often used as references and who knew the applicants at work or at school can help with the important first steps in the screening process (Mandell, 1964).

Application Blank

An application blank, remarked Calhoon (1963), should provide information that will aid management to reach a decision in choosing new employees. The completed application should furnish enough facts to judge an applicant's ability to do a job with success (Loen, 1961). Calhoon (1963) contended that data collected should help predict success on the job, or as Mandell (1964) noted, discourage unsuitable applicants. Basically a selection tool, the application form, observed Lundberg and Armatas (1964), generally accompanies all initial contacts with potential employees. This material may be used also as a permanent personnel record, a method of shortening interview time, and an indication of candidate literacy, stated Lundberg and Armatas (1964). Whatever type and form used, Loen (1961)

stressed that it should be tailored to fit the specific needs of the organization.

Types of Application Blanks. Short preliminary application blanks may be used for chance applicants or those believed to be unqualified for the specific job opening (Loen, 1961; Mandell, 1964). Calhoon (1963) noted that large companies, with distinct classifications of employees, may need a different form for each category; whereas for small organizations, a standard one should be adequate.

Form of Presentation. Application blanks vary from one organization to another. They can be printed, mimeographed, or typed; on sheets of paper or cards; be long or short. Length and inclusiveness of the application form will depend to some extent on the job requirements (Loen, 1961). When comprehensive answers are required, enough space should be provided, emphasized Mandell (1964). Stone and Kendall (1956) stressed that the application form used must reflect company policies and create a favorable impression on the applicants.

Factors Affecting Efficiency of Forms. Wording and comprehensiveness of information obtained affect efficiency and validity of the selection process (Mandell, 1964). Too often, observed Stone and Kendall (1956), application blanks may be long, cumbersome, and tedious to answer. Inadequate attention is given to content in terms of specific relation of information requested and the job itself. Some companies

gather application blanks from various sources and combine them into one form, whether or not the data is appropriate (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Inadequacies in quality of paper, typography, and layout repel even qualified applicants, according to Mandell (1964). He further noted that the time required to complete the form, not the length (because time needed for check-off questions can be less than for a shorter form requiring narrative responses), is a relevant factor. Qualified applicants lose interest if they must complete time-consuming forms before they are assured that the organization is interested in what they have to offer. On the other hand, if questions imply that a thorough evaluation will follow, this may encourage qualified candidates and discourage those who do not meet basic requirements (Mandell, 1964).

Content of Application Blanks. Stone and Kendall (1956) found that the most commonly included items in application blanks are the following: date of application, name of applicant, address, telephone number, date of birth (to avoid direct statement of age), marital status, number of dependents, education, experience, employment record with reasons for job changes, and references. For purposes of filing, Lundberg and Armatas (1964) noted that the first item on the application should be position sought. In addition, Lundberg and Armatas (1964) suggested the

following be included on applications for food service jobs: social security number, sex, height and weight, whom to notify in case of emergency, and health card if required by a governing agency. Complete coverage of major information categories insures the validity and efficiency of application forms at each selection stage, indicated Mandell (1964).

Identifying Information. Items referring to race, creed, and political beliefs are fast disappearing from application blanks, either because of legislation or management public relations policies. Calhoon (1963) said that casual and little used data do not belong in most application forms. Such items as color of eyes and hair, languages spoken, where born, and personal references are in no way related to prediction of success on the job. Employer references can be obtained from the employment record, noted Stone and Kendall (1956); and physical characteristics are more adequately determined by health examination than by an applicant's statement.

Information on male applicant's selective and military service status, according to Mandell (1964), may be requested to identify military obligations, possible emotional problems, and relevant experience. Answers to the number and nature of dependents provide clues to financial status and needs of the candidate, and strength of motivations. Most organizations ask about relatives employed by

them to avoid placing someone under a relative's supervision (Mandell, 1964).

Education, Experience, and Other Factors. A section of the application blank usually is devoted to the applicant's education and experience. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) noted that for many unskilled jobs in food services, questions on education may be irrelevant, since secondary education is undesirable unless the employer believes such candidates may soon be promoted. Previous experience is valuable for most jobs and should always be included in the list of information requested (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Although looks have been discredited as having validity for judging or evaluating applicants, according to Calhoon (1963), pictures may be useful for identification purposes and for positions where appearance is important. Stone and Kendall (1956) found that the applicant's photograph may help to identify the candidate in the mind of the selector, both when final selection is made and when filling a vacancy from the application file.

Under any circumstance, information sought in application blanks should be relevant to the objectives of selection, stated Calhoon (1963). This statement was supported by Stone and Kendall (1956) who said that application forms must call only for information essential for personnel record purposes and for predicting job success and tenure. At no time should the applicant feel his privacy invaded.

Accuracy of Information. Accuracy of information furnished on application blanks is never totally assured. However, Calhoon (1963) said that relatively little evidence of error is apparent in application information. Errors most frequently occur in matters pertaining to extent of education, salary changes, reasons for leaving previous jobs, age, continuity of employment, and type or degree of skill in duties performed (Calhoon, 1963).

To assure accuracy and honesty of answers, Heckman and Huneryager (1962) found that statements or employment agreements appearing on the application blank, usually at the end, were useful and widely accepted. Usual statements are the following: (1) certification that the information given on the application is true, (2) authorization to investigate the information, (3) authorization to make a health examination or agree to one, (4) agreement that supplying misinformation deliberately constitutes grounds for discharge, and (5) agreement to abide by company rules and regulations if hired (Heckman and Huneryager, 1962).

Weighted Application Blanks. Applicants may be appraised by assigning numerical weights to items on the application blank and their answers and adding the score (Calhoon, 1963; Stone and Kendall, 1956). Research results reported by Stone and Kendall (1956) showed weighted application blanks to be valuable as a predictive device in personnel selection. Such personal factors as age, number

of dependents, membership in social and civic organizations, years of education (where relevant to the job), previous jobs and earnings, and years on former jobs were found to correlate closely with length of service, turnover rate and relative success on the job.

Some of the earliest research reported on weighted application blanks was concerned with its use in the selection of salesmen (Stone and Kendall, 1956). In recent years, enough research has been undertaken on a variety of jobs to show the value of this selection tool. Analysis over a five-year period of application blanks of chemists and engineers hired demonstrated that high performance men differed significantly on a number of items from others. When items were rated and employees scored, high-performance employees received considerably higher scores than did others (Hinrichs, 1960).

Despite information as to its utility, Calhoon (1963) found no universal weighting or identification of discriminatory items that could be transferred from one situation or type of job to another. Upon deciding to use weighted application blanks, each organization must devise one tailored to their specific jobs. Trice (1964) stressed the two main factors to consider in evaluating success or value of weighted application blanks were lapsed time and follow-up study. The literature does not report any research or use of this selection device for food industry jobs.

Resume Studies and Unstructured Application Forms. Resume studies as a selection tool have been found useful for skilled, supervisory, technical and administrative positions, according to Calhoon (1963). Both the resume study and unstructured application forms represent an effort to allow for more expression from the applicants than do conventional forms. Gaudet and Casey (1959) observed that when questions were phrased so that the applicant could respond by writing as he pleased, management could evaluate employment factors in depth much more than if only the stereotyped application blank was used. As with any tool of selection and personnel management, the unstructured application form and resume study need research before they will be accepted by more organizations, said Calhoon (1963).

Application File. Rogers (1960) contended that the application form is a two-headed tool of great importance; first as an aid to selection of the right person for the job, and second, as a source of candidates for future openings. How to file applications is a question that can be answered only by the specific situation and needs of the organization.

In large industrial concerns, Rogers (1960) noted that the popular way of filing is by job classification. Research and experience have shown that this system often created chaos and confusion, thus defeating the purpose of

the file. A more advantageous and faster system, according to Rogers (1960), is alphabetical holding by name of all applications. This was found especially effective for small companies and for organizations in small communities. A system developed by the Swivelier Company of Nanuet, New York, and reported by Rogers (1960) used 8" x 10½" standard Royal-McBee "Keysort" cards, which allowed for compact filing and the use of a long McBee needle in sorting out particular job categories while still holding the applications in alphabetical order. This system though efficient can be valuable and economically feasible only for larger companies (Rogers, 1960).

References

Stone and Kendall (1956) observed that employer practices vary widely in types of references required of new applicants, methods of verification, consistency with which references are checked, and dependence placed on reference inquiries. Most application forms include space for listing character or ability references or contain an item asking if present or previous employers may be contacted. Impressions received in an interview, explained West and Wood (1955), should be sustained or revised in the light of recommendations from references furnished by the applicant. Most authors agree that references vary in

reliability as a source of information and as such, should be evaluated separately and carefully.

References, according to Calhoon (1963), are a marginally useful source of information, and although they seldom yield the valid information expected from knowledgeable sources, an organization cannot afford to ignore them. Mandell (1964) concluded that references are an excellent and important adjunct to other selection methods because they provide some information on the behavior of the applicant as observed in natural situations. Stone and Kendall (1956) contended that the primary purpose of reference checks is to evaluate the accuracy of information given by the applicant and to obtain supplemental data.

Reference-Checking Methods. The mail method, maintained Mandell (1964), is useful in soliciting information and opinions of people who cannot easily be reached by telephone or in person. Calhoon (1963) believed that mail inquiries should be carefully designed to furnish critical information but not impose on the respondent. Mail inquiries, though cheap, have many disadvantages. Mandell (1964) warned that occasionally answers may not be received, perhaps to avoid hurting the applicant's chances for employment. Fair judgments may be inhibited by lack of understanding of: (1) reasons for a given evaluation of the candidate, (2) standards used by the reference, (3) meaning of terms, and (4) ability to know whether behavior described is

typical or not. Biases, prejudices, or lack of information usually are not disclosed (Mandell, 1964).

The telephone call was found by Mandell (1964) to be a desirable method of checking references. Stone and Kendall (1956) agreed, especially for local inquiries, and further pointed out that it is a quick way of obtaining information. Answers given over the phone are often more frank than those committed to writing, and additional information can be obtained before the depth interview. The telephone call, according to Mandell (1964), also can be useful when the respondent is a small businessman without a secretary or is not likely to be articulate in writing. Stone and Kendall (1956) speculated that refusal to give answers to telephone inquiries might be based on company policy prohibiting release of information without first having a signed statement from the employee giving his permission for its release.

Though oftentimes impractical, one of the best checks is to see and talk with the reference source, stated Calhoon (1963). Visits make possible the gathering of complete and reliable data and provide a basis for future inquiries (Stone and Kendall, 1956). However, it is time-consuming and expensive; and therefore may be warranted only in evaluating candidates for important positions.

Accuracy of References. Loen (1961) stressed that care and judgment must be exercised in evaluating references.

Employers, former teachers, and supervisors may fail to supply frank, accurate information because they do not want to hurt the applicant's chances for employment, observed Calhoon (1963).

West and Wood (1955) said that knowledge of the relative judgment shown by persons or agencies commonly consulted is necessary for wise evaluation of persons recommended. Negative answers and what was not said, Loen (1961) suggested, should be considered with actual information gathered. Calhoon (1963) found that words used (unsure or vague comments) and tonal inflection of the voice (hesitancy and stammering) may indicate the kind of follow-up questions that should be asked. The usual techniques in interviewing, according to Mandell (1964) must be used in coaxing frank and accurate answers from reference sources, whether the method be by telephone or a personal visit.

Interviews

The interview has been described by Balinsky (1962) as a conversation with a purpose, namely, to obtain appropriate and valid information. The interview, according to Mandell (1964), is the most complex of selection techniques because its scope may include measurement of relevant attributes, as well as integration and clarification of other information about the applicant. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) observed that although application blanks, tests and

references are used in employee selection, no one device is more important or widely used than the personal interview. However, even at its best, contended Strauss and Sayles (1960), the interview is not a precise technique and is difficult to conduct even for the trained and experienced.

Nature of Employment Interviews. Employment interviews give the selector an opportunity to evaluate the applicant's appearance and manner, his general temperament, and the first impression he will create in meeting customers and workers, stated Lundberg and Armatas (1964). This meeting is an important occasion when not only the employer but the applicant consider mutual problems and interests. The employer is not granting a privilege, nor is the applicant asking a favor. Each has something to offer, the employer the job and the applicant his services (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Interviews are two-way communication devices. When communication is one-way, the interview fails on two points, according to Lundberg and Armatas (1964). First, rapport and goodwill toward the enterprise is not established; and second, objectives of the interview are not accomplished. The interview is usually the first personal contact between candidates and the organization. Therefore, the attitude with which the applicant leaves the employment office will sooner or later be reflected in the general reputation of

the enterprise, whether the candidate is hired or rejected (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Leopold (1958) observed that in an interview, communication occurs in various ways; verbal, extra-verbal, and non-verbal. Extra-verbal means conveying feeling and meaning by tone of voice and the manner and feeling in which statements are made or questions asked. Non-verbal includes expression of feelings in "body language;" a shrug of the shoulder, raising an eyebrow, shift in the chair, or spread of outstretched hand.

Effectiveness of the interview, said Balinsky (1962), is influenced by several factors. In the first place, the interviewer must understand his own motivation and interest. Furthermore, he should have the ability to listen and be able to make logical inferences with judgment. In the second place, the interviewer must have a thorough knowledge of the job to be filled, its requirements, its working environment, employee characteristics that would make for success on the job, and the personality and expectations of the potential employee's supervisor; in short, the job specification (Balinsky, 1962). If the interviewer does not have actual work experience in the type of job for which he is conducting the interview, Stone and Kendall (1956) suggested that he should become familiar with the work through observation.

Although employment interviews are widely used and have proved effective, Mandell (1964) summarized their

disadvantages as:

> The basic difficulty of this type of interview, as usually conducted, is that it involves making extensive inferences from limited data obtained in artificial situations by unqualified observers.

The Interviewer. Like talking, everyone interviews differently. Balinsky (1962) noted that with or without training, some people are distinctly more skillful than others in interviewing. "Intuitive" interviewers are individuals who have the ability to ask appropriate questions and get pertinent information "naturally." However, Balinsky (1962) contended that even intuitive interviewers could be improved through training in theory and skills.

Since interviews are complex and good interviewing difficult, a knowledge of basic psychology is necessary for the interviewer, stated Balinsky (1962). For example, people have three types of characteristics: those they are willing to talk about, those they are not willing to discuss, and those they do not know they have and therefore cannot discuss. A psychological background may assist in the analysis of these attributes and determine their relative importance to the job under consideration (Balinsky, 1962).

Mandell (1964) indicated a need for humility among interviewers. In 15 to 60 minutes, an accurate understanding cannot be achieved of a lifetime of experience that has produced certain attitudes, motivations, and behavior which are modified at different times and places and in many cases,

are unknown to the applicant himself. Humility should motivate the interviewer, counseled Mandell (1964), to avoid hasty judgments, to obtain the evaluation of others whenever possible in order to check his own conclusions, to improve his skill and knowledge as much as possible, and to limit the interview to factors which can be appraised adequately.

Authors agreed that management personnel need special abilities, skills, and training to conduct effective, valid, and reliable employment interviews. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) stated that the interviewer should attempt to make provisions for increasing his objectivity and try to recognize his own prejudices and discount them in his evaluations. Stone and Kendall (1956) stressed the need for a thorough review of the interviewer's qualifications before assigning him to this task.

Mandell (1964) suggested that professional interviewers, with special knowledge of psychology and the complexities of interviewing, train persons charged with selection of personnel. Research in the field of interviewing, reported Mandell (1964), indicates some ingenious methods for improving interviews, such as: analysis of recorded interviews; correlation of rate of progress, job performance, and turnover of those selected with the interviewer's evaluation; findings of another interviewer for

the same applicant; and a check of the interviewer's knowledge of the job and its requirements.

Criteria for a good interviewer or counselor are vague, noted Lundberg and Armatas (1964). The American Psychological Association (as reported by Lundberg and Armatas, 1964) put forth the following characteristics as necessary for an effective interviewer:

1. Superior intellectual ability and judgment, breadth of cultural background.
2. Originality, resourcefulness, and versatility.
3. Interest in persons as individuals, and a regard for the integrity of others.
4. Insight into one's own personality, sense of humor.
5. Tolerance of people's inadequacies, ability to tolerate pressure, self-control.
6. Sensitivity to the complexities of human behavior and motivation.
7. Ability to adapt to the situation, to establish rapport, and to assume constructive attitudes.
8. Industry, patience, and tact.
9. Discriminatory sense of ethical values.
10. Acceptance of responsibility, integrity, stability.

Conducting the Employment Interview. The art of conducting a good employment interview is not mastered easily, said Mandell (1964). Balinsky (1962) stated that "first impressions" are important both for the interviewer and the interviewee. Care should be taken to avoid a tendency to talk too much and not listen enough. The applicant

should not be allowed to take an aggressive approach without a proper interchange of ideas.

Planning is an essential part of any interview, said Calhoon (1963), who also suggested that less experienced interviewers should write out questions that might serve as guides in conducting the interview. Because of poor planning and uncertainty of objectives, the interviewer often rambles along and does all the talking, thus defeating the purpose of the interview. A useful overall rule is to consider the objectives of the interview and try to accomplish them (Calhoon, 1963). Lundberg and Armatas (1964) found that having a complete job specification at hand was a good practice.

A blueprint for steps to follow in conducting interviews might be impractical, contended Calhoon (1963), since much depends on each particular situation. However, different phases of interviewing may be listed with a discussion of what may be accomplished by each. A selection interview, according to Calhoon (1963), should consist of the following phases: (1) preparation, (2) establishing rapport, (3) seeking information, (4) giving information, (5) controlling the interview, (6) closing the interview, and (7) evaluating the applicant and the interview.

Appointments should be planned in advance and applicants should not be kept waiting, said Balinsky (1962). Lundberg and Armatas (1964) emphasized that interferences

should be kept at a minimum and pleasant surroundings as well as some privacy should be provided.

Establishing a friendly relationship with the applicant is an important and intricate step in interviewing, said Calhoon (1963). Courtesy, sincerity, interest, and complete attention to the applicant, according to Balinsky (1962), help to gain rapport. If the applicant can be reached and made to feel at ease, he will talk more freely. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) found that a friendly, casual greeting is an effective opening for the interview. A warm sincere smile and a firm handclasp, noted Calhoon (1963), usually help make the candidate feel comfortable. From the application form, the interviewer should try to locate an area of mutual interest and use it in the opening statement; for example, "I see you once lived on the West Coast. I grew up in the Seattle area myself. How do you like it here compared to Portland?" (Calhoon, 1963).

Adroit questioning, direct yet tactful, may uncover family background, educational and work accomplishments not indicated by the data on the application blank, stated Gray (1963). The interviewer may acquire data from the applicant's answers to questions, according to Calhoon (1963); and in turn, depending on what he has learned, furnish the appropriate amount of information to the applicant. Seeking information is the core of the interview. A realistic concept of the job and the organization will

help the prospective employee reach a decision and improve his chances of survival on the job if hired (Calhoon, 1963).

Controlling the interview, pointed out Fear (1958), insures adequate coverage of every phase of the candidate's background, provides balance in discussing each phase, allows adequate penetration into subjects that afford fruitful prospects for further probing, and uses time economically. Controlling the interview is more than a matter of determining the start and finish, remarked Calhoon (1963). The interview should be guided so that the applicant provides necessary information yet does not feel rushed or cut off by abrupt interruptions (Mandell, 1964).

Closing an interview is as critical to its success as the opening, contended Mandell (1964). Effective interviewing, said Calhoon (1963), demands closing promptly when the purpose of the interview has been accomplished. This is actually a part of control, since the interviewer should decide when the interview is over. The decision to close the interview may be communicated in a number of ways, such as, "I'm sorry we have nothing at this time," "I will get in touch with you next week," or "Do you have any further questions?" If these leads are unfruitful, the interviewer may make physical motions leading to interview conclusion, such as assembling papers on the desk or rising from the chair (Calhoon, 1963). Because the interview may be

considered a trying situation, Mandell (1964) stressed that it should end with the same kind of pleasantries with which it began.

Although the applicant is evaluated throughout the interview, Calhoon (1963) emphasized the need for careful evaluation immediately after the interview by either a checklist or narrative form of evaluation. Mandell (1964) recommended a checklist form that requires some explanation of the rating on each factor. This practice helps the interviewer to clarify his thinking, avoid impulsiveness, and prevent any facts from being overlooked.

Exactly what factors are to be evaluated will depend largely on the job and its requirements, working conditions, and standards of the organization. Balinsky (1962) suggested the following factors on which the interviewer should be able to comment extensively and pertinently about the candidate: (1) ability to adjust to job environment, (2) chances of being accepted by superior and co-workers, (3) ability to do the work, (4) interest in doing the work, (5) likelihood of remaining with organization, (6) potential for growth, and (7) ability to keep factors outside from interfering with job performance.

Coverage of the Interview. The interview should expand information contained in the application blank. Coverage of an interview, according to Mandell (1962) involves three main areas: information, observation, and inferences.

Information includes coverage of the applicant's history and should be designed to provide data on the candidate not covered by the application form.

During observation the interviewer listens and observes applicant's appearance, manner, and behavior. Interviews provide many opportunities for inferences, such as the assumption that the candidate's characteristics at the time of the interview are typical of the present and will continue to be so in the future. When inferences are drawn, emphasized Mandell (1964), consistent information must be obtained, the interviewer must have an understanding of human behavior, and the basis of the inference must be relevant to the conclusion. Sound inferences rarely can be made in a 20 to 60 minute interview, and even a combination of selection devices cannot fully assure that the right inferences have been made (Mandell, 1964).

Closely related to both information and inferences, semantics, according to Balinsky (1962), represents an important facet of obtaining information. Words do not mean precisely the same thing to all people, and no two words are exactly the same. The interviewer must be sure that the candidate understands his language and that, in turn, he understands what the candidate means. Rephrasing questions, repeating words the applicant has used, or repeating the applicant's answer in the interviewer's

interpretation of it may be helpful to clarify meaning (Balinsky, 1962).

Fear (1958) contended that to assure full coverage of an applicant's background, information must be obtained chronologically and systematically. Although the applicant should be allowed considerable freedom in the choice of subject matter, he should be encouraged to supply the information in a systematic and chronological manner. The interviewer should exhaust one area before proceeding to the next, so that evaluation of total achievements in any one area can be made more readily (Fear, 1958).

Preliminary Interview. Often when many candidates apply for a job, a preliminary interview is used. It usually lasts from three to ten minutes and is intended to determine whether a more extensive interview, testing, and a complete review of the application blank are worthwhile. Mandell (1964) noted that the preliminary interview also serves as a self-selection device, since the applicant may be briefly informed at this time about requirements of the job and working conditions. As a screening device, however, the preliminary interview is unsatisfactory because it may eliminate some desirable applicants who are not given an opportunity to be reviewed more extensively.

Fear (1958) stressed the need for skill and training even for preliminary interviews. Within a limited time span obvious liabilities for the job must be identified

while giving the applicant a feeling that his qualifications have been given proper consideration. Factors on which applicants normally are eliminated during the preliminary interview include: inadequate training and experience, age, marked disabilities, and completely inappropriate personality patterns for the job (Fear, 1958).

Multiple Interview. To increase validity and reliability of the interview, two or three sessions often may be scheduled, particularly for skilled work and supervisory positions. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) noted that the strength of this type of interview procedure lies in the fact that it affords both the selector and applicant time to consider the proposition. Weaknesses not detected in a single interview often show up during or after the second or third interview. The first interview may serve as a preliminary step where those not really interested or obviously unqualified may screen themselves out. Reports of food services using this selection method showed that the program resulted in procurement of better quality employees than previously possible (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Patterned Interview. The patterned interview developed by McMurry and reported by Calhoon (1963) consists of a series of questions that have been standardized and validated against records of employees who have succeeded or failed on the job. Lundberg and Armatas (1964) gave the following areas of investigation generally included

in patterned interviews: work history, educational history, health history, family background, and social history. In a patterned interview, several related questions are asked about a certain area in the applicant's background and the evaluation is then based on the pattern of the answers given. Calhoon (1963) found this type of interview helpful for less skilled interviewers, but the stereotyped nature of the interview questions makes its use limited to jobs for which questions have been standardized.

The Systematic, Depth Interview. The best interviewers often use a combination of interview methods to provide the flexibility needed to adapt to the situation. A method with greatest possibilities for most organizations, according to Calhoon (1963), is the systematic, depth interview, in which the interviewer has a definite plan to follow. It must be structured to provide optimum coverage and flexibility (Calhoon, 1963).

The depth or clinical interview, as originally developed by McMurry, Kephart, Fear, and other psychologists and reported by Calhoon (1963), has strong potential for selection of employees at all levels; since the interviewer can take areas of interest and process them in an orderly fashion, with greater or lesser detail depending on the situation.

The rationale behind a depth interview, said Calhoon (1963), is that certain characteristics such as motivation,

maturity, and stability have close bearing on a person's future as an employee. Motivation refers to needs and wants; maturity to the adjustment made to environment and to other people; stability to emotional structure and resultant behavior in relation to other people, to frustration, and to circumstances arising in the environment. Calhoon (1963) stressed that, although effective, this type of interview can be dangerous because it explores deep, personal traits along with superficial features of performance. A study conducted by the American Management Association and reported by Calhoon (1963) showed that the following factors could be measured in depth interviews: appearance, personality traits and/or temperament, attitudes and/or interests, ability to communicate, and job experience.

Errors in Evaluation. From a study of interviewing practices of representative companies, Mandell (1964) reported the following list of common errors of interview evaluation. Some of the points underscore factors previously discussed:

- Remembering only those facts that correspond to the interviewer's expectations
- Failing to relate evaluation to job requirements
- Responding to pressures to fill jobs by lowering standards
- Lacking understanding of people with backgrounds different from that of the interviewer

- Playing safe by rejecting in case of any doubt
- Failing to interrelate all facts collected
- Overstressing experience or ability while neglecting personality, or vice versa
- Comparing the candidate with older employees and expecting more maturity
- Emphasizing superficial characteristics such as poise, appearance, and manners
- Lacking knowledge of job factors that differentiate critically between good and poor applicants
- Misinterpreting applicant's answers and failing to probe
- Devoting insufficient time to analyzing data obtained
- Lacking knowledge of human motivation and behavior
- Lacking experience with a variety of people
- Lacking necessary intelligence and insight to relate diverse facts
- Overrating intelligent persons
- Failing to be cautious in evaluating persons who have not revealed much about themselves

Selection and Placement Tests

The only sure way to tell whether an applicant will prove satisfactory, contended Stone and Kendall (1956), is to hire, train, and observe him long enough for him to demonstrate his ability to perform the work effectively. However, this method is time-consuming and expensive. An important function of modern manpower management is to

assist the adjustment of workers on the job, while improving quality and increasing quantity of work output per man. To achieve this function, careful selection and placement of employees are essential.

Although application blanks and interviews are used universally and accepted widely, use of tests as a personnel selection device is controversial (Stone and Kendall, 1956). Any tool used in selection or any systematic procedure for comparing individuals can be called a test, implied Gordon (1964). Testing, declared Lundberg and Armatas (1964), is an indirect method for measuring and predicting success on the job. Jacobs (1963) noted that when properly chosen and used, tests can add a measure of objectivity to the employment process but can never substitute for other tried and proven selection methods.

Use of tests in industry dates back to pre-World War I with the concept of intelligence quotient (I.Q.) developed by Binet (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964). Investigators after Binet discovered that individuals could be measured in terms of general and specific abilities such as manual dexterity, perceptual and verbal ability. Theoretically, tests were assumed to be the answer to all of industry's problems about manpower selection. Unfortunately tests could not measure intangible though essential variables such as motivation and personality. Up to the present, industry has not been successful in using

personality tests except under strict research conditions. Tests measuring maximum performance have been used successfully by industry (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Maximum-Performance Tests. A maximum-performance test, according to Lundberg and Armatas (1964), is a paper-and-pencil test in which each item has a "correct" answer and in which the testee is required to do as well as he can. This is in contrast to a personality test, which is a typical-performance test, and in which the answers are speculative. Three types of maximum-performance tests used in industry, as reported by Lundberg and Armatas (1964) are:

1. Intelligence Tests. These indicate the level of problem-solving ability possessed by the individual. They indicate how quickly a person should be expected to catch on to the new job, but will not reveal how he will use his intelligence in terms of judgment, creativity, and orderly thinking.

2. Aptitude Tests. These are designed to measure the probable rapidity and success an individual will achieve in a specific activity, assuming constant motivation and other factors. The tests are available in a number of areas such as mechanical, physical science, engineering, etc., but the most used general aptitude tests (i.e. measuring more than one aptitude) are the Differential Aptitude Test and the General Aptitude Test Battery used by the U. S. Employment Service.

3. Achievement Tests. These are available to measure the degree of skill in specified areas as typing, shorthand, welding, spelling, machine operation, etc.

Values and Criticisms of Tests. Calhoon (1963) reasoned that when properly developed and administered as

well as properly evaluated tests could furnish valuable information for use in selection. Tests are valuable in large organizations, Mandell (1964) stated, because they help to uncover talent that otherwise might be overlooked, and differentiate between abilities required by a present job and those required by a new one. Tests are likewise useful in promotion and transfer of employees. They can provide a uniform basis for comparing applicants from diverse backgrounds and challenge the selector to think through the evaluation carefully. In effect, tests compensate in part for weaknesses in interviews and other subjective evaluations (Mandell, 1964).

Many companies have observed that use of tests has increased the quality of employees hired over a period of time (Mandell, 1964). Stromberg (1948) reported studies indicating that the mere announcement that an organization uses tests attracted higher level applicants. Mandell (1964) noted that tests reduce cost of selection and placement, because large groups of applicants could be evaluated less expensively than with other methods. Obviously, saving in cost should be related to accuracy of the tests and should not result in cost saving at the expense of accuracy.

Jacobs (1963) observed that decrying the use of tests has become fashionable. Attitudes toward tests, wrote Stone and Kendall (1956), range from those who refuse to consider

their use and instead place complete trust on personal judgment, to those who rely entirely on test scores. The frequent unreliability of selection devices has been stressed, and no personnel man should expect tests to provide perfect predictions (Stone and Kendall, 1956).

Tests are criticized for measuring only part of the total amount of information needed to make accurate selection. Mandell (1964) contended that this criticism would be justified if tests were the only selection device used, or if an alternative method had more coverage than the tests. The objective, therefore, should be to maximize accuracy in selection by choosing the proper and most effective combination of methods. Tests are sometimes criticized because true ability may not be shown when the applicant is nervous. Likewise, tests are criticized because 'professional test takers' do well on them. These criticisms are relevant only when the test results are not valid for an entire group (Mandell, 1964). Some claim that tests favor the younger applicants more recently exposed to testing in school. However, difference in test results for the younger and older candidates may mean only that applicants with more years of experience and yet applying for a low-level job are less competent as a group than those with less experience.

All tests, according to Lundberg and Armatas (1964), have four attributes to be considered: (1) validity,

(2) reliability, (3) norms, and (4) usability. Validity means that the test measures what it purports to measure. Mandell (1964) defined validity as the extent of relationship between results of the tests and appropriate criteria such as work performance, turnover, and quantity of production. The extent of relationship is expressed by a coefficient of correlation.

Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement. A test may be reliable but not valid (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964). Reliability as applied to a selection method means how typical a score is, said Mandell (1964). He further stressed that perfect reliability or absolute consistency does not exist at all times and between different raters. However, statistical methods have been designed to find out the extent to which reliability has been achieved (Mandell, 1964). Lundberg and Armatas (1964) listed the following conditions needed to increase reliability of tests:

1. Tests must be administered under standardized conditions to all testees.
2. Tests must be scored properly and consistently.
3. Tests must be administered according to the author's instructions.
4. Testees must have no prior knowledge about the test and no coaching.
5. Physical conditions must be favorable (good light and ventillation).

6. In general, the longer the test, the more reliable it will be.

7. The more random, diverse, and heterogenous the subjects making the test group, the more reliable will be the correlation between scores and the criterion being measured.

Lundberg and Armatas (1964) noted that norms often are overlooked in discussing tests. Reliability, validity, and test scores always are relative to those ratings made by a group of individuals on whom the test is administered. As a general rule, the most relevant norms are those that come closest to representing the person who is being tested. All organizations need to develop local norms for every test collected on present employees (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Usability, according to Lundberg and Armatas (1964), means that test users understand the relative merits of tests they employ. Mandell (1964) found that preparation and validation of tests require specialized knowledge, and the number of mistakes that can be made in selecting correct tests for a particular situation is enormous. Tests must be chosen for usefulness in selection, potential usefulness in placement and training, and value in determining promotions and incentive to self-development (Mandell, 1964).

West and Wood (1955) observed that tests had not been used for personnel selection in food services. However, Lundberg and Armatas (1964) found that in recent years, some tests have been developed which lend themselves

to use in food service jobs. A recently developed test geared to food services is the Food Service Industry Battery, available for limited use through Mr. Lundberg and developed on the basis of research by James Armatas. The subtests making up the FSIB include the following:

1. Worker Aptitude Inventory. Personality measure of the degree to which a worker is willing to conform to the expectations of his superiors.

2. Oral Instructions Test. Tape-recorded test measuring worker's ability to follow spoken instructions.

3. The Peg Test. Pegboard measure of manual dexterity.

4. Verbal Tests. Consisting of two measures of abilities to perform arithmetic and spelling related to food service work.

Factors for success in food service work are not necessarily those measured by traditional tests of verbal intelligence. Rather, in addition to certain unique personality characteristics, the ideal food service worker shows his intelligence in practical ways such as being able to follow spoken instructions and being able to perform applied arithmetic and spelling functions found in food service work (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Lundberg and Armatas (1964) reported that in developing the FSIB an attempt was made to create measures that are easily administered, scored, and interpreted; are interesting and non-technical; minimize school-type problem situations; and do not require much time from test subjects

and administrators. Several validation studies have been run on the FSIB with several types of food services and the results have been encouraging thus far (Lundberg and Armatas, 1964).

Physical and Health Examinations. Health examinations for new employees and periodic check-ups of present workers are desirable features in personnel management, said Calhoon (1963). They protect both the company, insofar as an employee's physical capabilities are related to job performance and proficiency, and the employee, in keeping him from undertaking work that could be injurious to his health.

The importance of physical fitness of an applicant for food service jobs cannot be overstressed, stated West and Wood (1955). Health examinations are required in many states. Requirement of health certificates from food service employees and applicants is important because only physically fit persons can do their best work, and only healthy workers can assure that no hazard will exist for the food service (West and Wood, 1955).

OBSERVATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES

Managers of six types of food service organizations were interviewed for a short observation-study of local employment practices. Units observed were: (1) hospital dietary department, (2) university residence hall food service, (3) university union food service, (4) city-wide school lunch program, (5) hotel food service, and (6) nation-wide motel chain restaurant. Personnel of the State Employment Office also were interviewed.

Interviews with managers were arranged in advance and lasted an average of one and one-half hours. An interview form consisting of guide questions was used to obtain information for this observation report (Appendix A).

Table 1. Type of food service, number of units per food service, average number of meals served per day, and total number of full-time employees.

Type of food service	No. units per food service	Average no. meals served per day	No. full-time employees
Hospital	2	420	17
University Residence Hall	5	5600	84
School Lunch	8	2500	42
University Union	1	3200	35
Hotel	1	270	17
Motel	1	700	25

Averages for the past fiscal year indicated that the smallest food service was the hotel, which consisted of one unit, serving an average of 270 meals per day and having 17 full-time employees. The other extreme was the university residence hall food service composed of five units serving 5600 meals per day with a complement of 84 full-time employees. The hospital, two units, served an average of 420 meals per day and had 17 full-time employees. Serving an average of 700 meals per day, the motel restaurant, one unit, had 25 full-time employees. The school lunch program, with 42 full-time employees, served an average of 2500 meals a day in eight units. The second largest organization observed was the university union food service, one unit serving 3200 meals per day, with 35 full-time employees (Table 1).

Responsibility for Selection

In five of the food services, the manager of the unit was also in charge of and responsible for all phases of personnel management and had absolute freedom in making decisions for employee selection. On the other hand, in the university residence hall food services, the Assistant Administrative Dietitian in charge of personnel training had the responsibility for recruitment, selection, placement, and training of all nonprofessional employees. However, the final choice of workers for each unit was made

in consultation with the dietitian in charge of the particular unit for which the worker was recruited.

Employment Policies and Procedures

Employment policies for most of the food services observed were in the form of traditions. Employment procedures were not written or clearly defined, although the managers usually followed certain patterns and steps in recruiting, screening, and selecting employees. Long-range plans for recruitment were nonexistent for most of the food services, except in the university residence hall food service where continued expansion was anticipated for the future.

Job Specifications

Written job specifications seldom were used in recruiting and screening activities of the food services observed. General qualifications and requirements of the job to be filled were sent to recruiting sources; however, written job specifications apparently were used infrequently during the selection process. Personal knowledge of requirements of the position to be filled and working conditions in the organization served the purpose of written specifications for the managers interviewed.

Recruitment and Recruiting Sources

Obtaining enough applicants for job openings and securing satisfactory workers from local sources were not considered problems in this area of the state. Employee turnover was considered low by the managers, who listed the main causes of turnover as: (1) retirement, (2) illness, (3) personal problems, (4) moving to another city, and (5) transfer to another job.

Table 2. Sources of applicants.

Type of food service	Radio	Newspapers	Personal contact	State Emplmt. Office
Hospital			x	
University Residence Hall	x	x	x	x
School Lunch			x	
University Union		x	x	x
Hotel	x	x	x	x
Motel	x	x	x	x

The source of applicants used most frequently by all food services observed was personal contact (Table 2). Whereas the university residence hall food service, hotel, and motel used radio for recruiting candidates, the school lunch program, hospital, and university union food service

had not used this medium for recruitment. Newspapers and the state employment service were used as recruiting sources by only four of the food services observed, university residence halls, university union, hotel, and motel.

Types of Applicants. Different sources produce different types of applicants. Some of the most common for all food services observed were: (1) homemakers, (2) student and army wives, (3) high school students, (4) high school graduates, and (5) college students.

Application Blank

Four of the six food services observed had application blanks specific to their organizations. Two food services used general application forms which may be used by other types of industries (Table 3).

Information requested common to all application blanks were: name of applicant; date of application; address; phone number; marital status; date of birth; social security number; number and ages of dependents; position desired; education; previous employments, employers or supervisors, and reasons for job changes (Appendix B).

References

Three of the food services requested general references in their application blanks (Table 3). However, when no specific references were requested, previous employers

Table 3. Summary of observations relating to application blank, references, interviews, and health examinations used by six types of food services.

Type of food service	Application blank		References			Interview			Health exam.		Food handler courses
	Own	Gen.	No.	Gen.	Prev. Empl.	Guide ques.	Eval. sheet	Mult.	Comp.	Min.	
Hospital	x		-					x	x		x
University Residence Hall	x		-			x	x	x	x		x
School Lunch	x		-					x	x		x
University Union	x		3	x				x	x		x
Hotel		x	3	x				x		x	x
Motel		x	3	x				x		x	x

or supervisors were contacted with the consent of applicants. Number of references checked for each candidate depended on accuracy of information obtained from the application blank and interview.

Employment Interview

The multiple employment interview was used in the food services observed. The first session served as a preliminary meeting at which time general qualifications for the job were evaluated. When no positions were available, the applicant was so informed at that time.

Most of the managers did not use interview guides or written procedures. However, the residence hall food service had written guide questions, as well as evaluation sheets for rating candidates (Appendix C).

Health Examination

Complete health examinations were required for applicants in four food services. In the two organizations where extensive health examinations were not required, minimum public health requirements for food handlers consisting of tuberculin skin test and Schick test were required of the hired employees (Table 3).

In addition to thorough health examinations or public health requirements, all food handlers were required to

attend food handler's classes conducted by the city or county sanitarian. These classes are held every six months.

A GUIDE FOR EMPLOYMENT POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

Based upon information found in the literature and observations made of actual employment practices in a small midwestern city, a guide was formulated for use of food service managers in the procurement, selection, and hiring of food service workers. Suggested policies and procedures were purposefully general in nature, in order to be useful in as many situations as possible.

Employment Policies and Procedures

Employment Policies. Written employment policies guide both management and employees. Logically, they should vary for every organization according to specific needs. Ideally, employment policies cover every phase of recruiting, screening, and selection of employees, terms of employment, wages and salary, hours and days of work, holidays and vacation privileges, eligibility for benefits, and policies on promotions (Example 1).

Employment Procedures. The employment procedure covers all phases of worker procurement, selection, and placement. It assigns roles to various members of management, establishes responsibility, and prescribes orderly, recognized methods for selecting employees. Employment procedures should vary for every organization according to size, types of personnel, job-related problems, standards

Example 1: Employment Policies for a Food Service

All applicants will be treated courteously and given fair consideration. No applicant will be discriminated against or given preference because of race, color, national origin, ancestry, religious creed, political beliefs, or union membership or activity.

Persons to be hired will be selected from all candidates on the basis of qualifications and specific requirements of the job or position applied for. On no occasion will choice be based solely on recommendations.

Whenever possible, former employees laid off for lack of work and outstanding part-time workers will be given preference over other applicants as jobs become available.

Employment of relatives will be permitted except under the following conditions:

(1) No person will be employed in or transferred to a position wherein the conditions of employment or opportunities for advancement shall come under the direct influence of a relative employed by the organization.

(2) Related employees, including husband and wife, will not be permitted to work in the same unit.

(3) When one employee marries another, neither will be required to resign as long as they do not work in the same unit or department and are not in any direct supervisory relationship to each other.

All permanent, full-time workers will not be permitted to work in any other job which may interfere with their work or work schedule.

Wages and salaries shall be according to appointment agreements. Wage and salary increases shall be on a yearly basis, based on merit and seniority, but never shall exceed rates specified for each job level. Overtime rates shall be one-and one-half times hourly pay rate. All employees on a supervisory level shall not be eligible for overtime pay.

Example 1: (Continued)

The work week shall be 44 hours. Days of work, days off, and shift will be determined by the supervisor in charge of the unit or department. Any changes for special reasons will be arranged with the supervisor in charge of the unit.

All permanent, full-time employees will be eligible each fiscal year for 14 days vacation leave with pay, not to accumulate more than 30 days at a time; and seven days sick leave with pay for every year of service, not to accumulate more than 14 days at a time. Holidays will be considered regular work days.

of the organization, and location of the food service (Example 2).

Job Requirements and Specifications

Job Specification. Job specifications set forth job requirements and qualifications workers must possess to perform satisfactorily in those positions. Standards should be determined and written for each job in the organization to guide recruitment, selection, and placement of new personnel, and promote understanding between management and employees as to job responsibilities, duties, and expectations.

Two forms of job specifications may be used: One is the job specification card, which briefly describes the specifics of the job and candidate qualifications (Example 3). The other is a job specification sheet which describes the job requirements and candidate qualifications, as well as other specifics of the job in more detail (Example 4).

When established policies for vacation and sick leaves, physical examinations, and promotions exist for the organization, they need not be included in the job specification. However, if privileges and requirements vary for each job, they should be listed.

Example 2: Employment Procedures for a Food Service

Determination of Manpower Needs. The manager of the food service, together with supervisors of all units, should determine manpower requirements and when needed for each unit, based on work loads and schedules and possible needs in the future. Short- or long-range plans for procurement of employees based on forecasts of expansion of the food service may be formulated.

Planning for Recruitment. Before undertaking the procurement program, the kinds of jobs to be filled, their requirements, and qualifications necessary for effective job performance for each position to be filled should be known. Job specifications based on duties, responsibilities, and other specifics of current jobs and positions in the organization help to determine requirements of jobs.

Recruitment. Job requirements or specifications for positions to be filled should be sent out to various sources of candidates. Proven effective sources may be given preference over other sources, except when they fail to produce qualified candidates or when the number of applicants from preferred sources are insufficient to enable manager to make a wise choice.

Order of Processing Applications

(1) Brief (3 to 5 minutes) preliminary interview of applicants by manager (or personnel director, in larger organizations).

(2) Application blank filled out by the applicant (in personnel office or convenient place).

(3) Depth Interview conducted by manager (or by personnel director in larger food service) in personnel office or convenient place. Interview may be from 30-60 minutes, or as required by the situation.

(4) Reference checks made by manager (or personnel director in larger food service). At least two references (preferably previous employers) should be checked.

(5) Selection interview by manager and/or direct supervisor (in personnel office or convenient place).

Example 2: (Continued)

(6) Health examination by a doctor preferred by the candidate.

(7) Hiring interview conducted by manager to explain terms of employment.

Example 3: Job Specification Card

Job Specification

Title - Counter Girl

Supervision - Dietitian in charge of the unit.

Duties - Serving beverages at the counter; making coffee, tea, and chocolate. Caring for and cleaning urns and beverage equipment.

Details of Job - Hours - 6:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m. (30 minutes for breakfast and lunch).
Rate per month _____. Raises after 1 yr.

Age - over 16, under 50; 18 to 35 preferred.

Education - at least 8th grade; high school preferred.

Special Qualifications - Speed and deftness. Ability to follow spoken and written instructions exactly. Be able to climb on platform to clean urns.

Personal Qualifications - Pleasant manner and voice, patient.

Promotional Opportunities - May advance to salad girl or checker in cafeteria.

Example 4: Job Specification Sheet

Job Specification

Job Title: Counter Girl

Supervision: Dietitian is immediate supervisor.

Duties: a) Making coffee, tea, and chocolate.
b) Keeping all serving equipment supplied with beverages.
c) Serving beverages at the counter.
d) Cleaning and caring for all beverage equipment.
e) Reporting equipment needing repairs to dietitian.

Details of Job: a) Hours: 6:00 - 3:00
b) Wages: _____ per week, with free meals on duty hours, free laundry of uniforms.
c) Uniform: White uniforms with short sleeves (to be supplied by employee).
d) Time Off: One day per week (as arranged). Vacation, sick leave as per company policies.

Necessary Attributes:

a) Good judgment. Common sense required. Employee comes in contact with customers and will not be able to consult supervisor at all times.

b) Intelligence. Requires ability to follow spoken and written instructions exactly.

c) Personality. Pleasant manner, well-modulated voice, interest in the work. Patient, responsible, and dependable.

Desirable Attributes:

a) Age. Late teens to mid-thirties preferred.

b) Education. Eighth grade or better.

c) Initiative. A certain amount of initiative desirable.

d) Experience. No experience particularly necessary for this job, but some background in food service work may help.

Example 4: (Continued)

e) Maturity. Past experience indicates that young persons are better for this job. In general, younger employees work faster, can endure longer hours better, and take criticisms better than older persons.

Recruiting and Recruitment Sources

Turnover of employees is normal for every organization, no matter how well the personnel function may be managed. Whereas personnel turnover may be the primary factor influencing frequency of recruitment campaigns, expansion of the food service may necessitate forecasting and systematic planning as well.

Recruitment problems vary for different organizations and different types of operations. Each food service should form its own policies on recruiting, plan out its procedures, and develop sources that prove to be effective and reliable.

Some factors determining effectiveness of various sources of applicants are: (1) location of food service, (2) season or time of year, (3) reputation of food service, (4) status of labor market in general, and (5) type of work involved in the particular vacancy to be filled.

Some of the more common sources of recruits follow:

1. Personal Contacts - Recommendees from employees, friends of the organization, and reputable citizens of the community make up a substantial number of applicants. The advantages offered by this source far outweigh the disadvantages.

2. Former Employees - Former employees laid off because of lack of work and outstanding part-time employees should be considered for positions whenever possible. This encourages higher employee morale, stronger loyalty, and good public relations. Employees who left for better jobs elsewhere and wish to return may be well worth consideration.

3. Chance Applicants - "Walk-ins" or chance applicants sometimes produce employees at times when other sources may fail. It is good policy to let chance candidates fill out application forms and when possible, give them brief, preliminary interviews.

4. Schools and Colleges - Excellent prospective workers, whether full- or part-time, may be obtained from high schools, trade and vocational schools, and colleges. For the food service, the advantage of this source is that it affords relatively low-pay but high-type employees when the food service needs them most (during peak hours and summertime). For the students, food service work helps them financially and affords work experience.

5. Employment Agencies - In most localities, two types of agencies exist; the public or state employment office and private or "fee" agencies. Occasionally a church or charitable organization may operate some sort of agency seeking to place the economically displaced and unemployed in gainful work. Both main types of agencies vary in effectiveness of producing qualified candidates. The food service should promote good relationships with these agencies so that they may be given priority with qualified prospects.

6. Physically Handicapped - Whenever possible, food services should try to employ qualified but disabled applicants. Many handicapped persons have proven to be good employees. They should be given the chance to become useful members of society.

7. Newspapers and Trade Magazines - Newspapers and magazine advertising is a frequently used method of recruiting. Two general types of advertising are used. Classified ads are found in the regular "help-wanted" columns, and display ads may either be enlarged classified ads or layouts with pictures and news stories. Classified ads may be "open" giving the organization's name and address or "blind" which gives only an address, post office box number, or telephone number. General qualifications and critical requirements must be clearly stated in all ads.

8. Radio Advertising - Radio is most effective in reaching people not actively seeking employment. Women and homemakers can be reminded that they have housekeeping and cooking abilities that can be exchanged for extra income. Motels, hotels, and school lunch programs benefit from this medium of recruitment.

9. Application Files - Often overlooked, the organization's current applicant file or "waiting list" may produce just the right employees when needed.

Application Blank

The application blank should be constructed so that information obtained may help the selector make a wise choice and predict the candidate's performance on the job. All information requested should be relevant to the job requirements and prediction of job success. Data furnished by the application form may be used as permanent personnel records, and therefore, application forms should be designed so that filing may be facilitated.

The following example of an application blank for food service employees requests only basic information that may be required by any food service. It is advisable for the particular food service to include other questions that will help determine the suitability of a candidate to the specific position, type of work, and existing working conditions in the organization (Example 5).

Example 5: Application Blank for Food Service Work

APPLICATION BLANK

Position desired _____ Date _____

Name _____ Social Security No. _____ Marital Status _____

Address _____ Phone No. _____

Date of Birth _____ Sex ____ Height _____ Weight _____

Place of Birth _____ Citizenship _____

No. of Dependents _____ Ages of Dependents _____

Person to notify in case of emergency _____

Address _____ Phone No. _____

Present Selective Service Classification _____ Veteran Status _____

Circle highest grade attended in school 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16

Work Experience: (Last employment first)

	Dates	Type of Work	Reasons for Leaving
Employer _____	From:		
Address _____	To:		
Supervisor _____			
Employer _____	From:		
Address _____	To:		
Supervisor _____			
Employer _____	From:		
Address _____	To:		
Supervisor _____			

May we contact your previous employers listed above? _____ Are you related to any employee of this company? ____

Name of Relative _____ Relationship to you _____

Uniform Size _____

General State of Health _____ Would you consent to a health examination? _____

I certify that the above information is true to the best of my knowledge and understand that misrepresentations are sufficient cause for nullification of this application or dismissal from employment.

Signed: _____

Selection Interview

The Interviewer:

Know:	The job to be filled and its requirements
	Qualities needed by the candidate
	Yourself
Be:	Prepared for the interview
	Attentive
	Emphathetic
	Sincere and genuine
	Objective
Observe:	All reactions and behavior of the candidate
Stay:	In control of the interview
	Within the limit of your skills
Use:	Outstanding employees as models for description
Show:	Acceptance
	Appreciation for the applicant as a person
	Interest
Don't:	Forget objectives of the interview
	Waste time on trivial information
	Become emotionally involved
	Monopolize the conversation
	Condone undesirable behavior
	Project your own value system
	Play amateur psychiatrist or pry too deeply
	Go beyond the data in drawing conclusions
Obtain:	Information essential for making a wise choice
	Personal data relevant to prediction of job success
	The complete picture

Preparing for the Interview

Plan and prepare in advance. Schedule interviews at the most convenient time. Never keep applicants waiting. Have all necessary materials on hand before interview starts. Arrange for privacy, quiet, and pleasant surroundings. Observe rules of courtesy, minimize interferences. Allot ample time to cover the data wished to obtain and plan to stay within alloted time.

Know the job and its requirements thoroughly. Know skills needed, personality characteristics essential for success on the job, and expectations of the candidate's future supervisor and co-workers.

Know yourself. Recognize yourself before evaluating others. Understand your personality as it may affect others. Recognize your prejudices and biases, and determine not to let them influence your judgment of others. Do not project your own value systems on the applicants. Be objective.

Determine goals and objectives of the interview, whether evaluation, information, or selection. Strive to accomplish the goals within time alloted.

Prepare an outline of guide questions. Study all pertinent information from application blank. Prepare an evaluation sheet keeping in mind goals of the interview. Have note pad handy and plan to take notes of relevant information.

Conducting the Interview

Establish rapport. A friendly smile and greeting with a firm handclasp help to put the candidate at ease. Get him to talk freely. Be courteous, interested, and attentive.

Seek and give information. Intersperse questions with information about the job and the organization. Supply a realistic concept of the job. Use "why" and "how" to get applicant to provide full information. Allow him to proceed at his own pace.

Be observant and receptive. Observe candidate's behavior and reactions. Encourage him to elaborate. Don't express disapproval or be

overcordial. Do not give the applicant false hopes when his qualifications may not be suitable.

Control the Interview. Reflect and clarify points, or restate points when in doubt about meaning. Be flexible in use of techniques and style of questioning. Keep discussion on relevant subjects. Avoid personal questions when not pertinent to job requirements. Use reassurance when justified but avoid getting emotionally involved. Don't condone undesirable behavior. Be subtle in steering conversation from one point to another. Do not waste time on factual information readily obtainable from application blank.

Record all pertinent information thoroughly and promptly. Do not permit note-taking to interfere with flow of conversation. Take notes with ease and in a casual manner.

Close interview promptly when objectives have been met. Communicate decision to end interview tactfully so that applicant is not rushed or cut off abruptly. End interview with same pleasantries with which it began.

Evaluating the Candidate

Interpret and evaluate gathered information with utmost care. Don't go beyond pertinent data in drawing conclusions. Don't try to pry too deeply into human behavior when not qualified to analyze properly. Don't assess intelligence and specialized traits not measurable by interviews.

Evaluate only those factors relevant to the job and its requirements, working conditions, and standards set up by the organization.

Interview Guide Questions

No one formula is appropriate for all interviews. Therefore, guide questions must be based on requirements of the job, qualifications necessary for satisfactory work, and on information acquired from the application blank. Some basic questions follow that may be used in an interview guide.

1. How long have you lived in this community? How do you like it here compared to city (or town) where lived or worked previously? How does family like it here?

2. Spouse employed? Where? What does husband think of your working? What does spouse think of your working in food service?

3. What do you think of food service work in general? What advantages does this type of work offer you? Disadvantages?

4. What abilities or skills do you have other than those you have developed in previous jobs? What other types of work are you interested in doing? Other type of work in food service? Why?

5. Tell me about your last job. Which of your previous jobs did you like most? Why?

6. Who takes care of children (below school age)? How far is home from location of food service? Transportation to be used?

7. Willing to work shift assigned? What difficulties are involved on different shifts (in case assigned to one or the other)?

Example 7: Interviewer's Rating Sheet

Interviewer's Rating Sheet

Name of Applicant:_____ Date:_____

Position desired:_____ Interviewer:_____

Factors	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Experience				
Education and training				
Potential for growth				
Abilities				
Attitudes, temperament				
Interest in the work				
Neatness and grooming				
Total appearance and poise				
Stability				
Alertness and ability to follow instructions				
Honesty				
Sense of responsibility				
Literacy				
Health, energy, dependability				
Accessibility, transportation				
Ability to adjust				
Willingness to work				
Chances of being accepted by supervisor and co-workers				

Remarks:

Health Examination

Health examinations for candidates of food service jobs are of primary importance. Applicants are protected by being discouraged from accepting and undertaking work that might be injurious to their health. Food services are protected through assurance that workers are physically capable of doing the work and that no hazard exists for the food service.

Periodic health examinations and attendance in food handlers courses offered by city or county health departments offer additional protection to both employees and organization.

A complete health examination should include the following:

1. Health history
2. Tuberculin skin test
3. Chest X-ray
4. Schick test
5. Blood pressure check
6. Blood test
7. Urine and stool test
8. Vital capacity check [a]
9. Examination for skin disorders
10. Immunization shots for tetanus, polio, typhoid, small pox
11. Tests for hearing and vision

[a] Test for presence of emphysema (breakdown of lung air sacs)

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APPENDIX A

Interview Guide Questions for

Observation-Study of

Local Employment Practices

Size of food service? Approximate number of meals served/ day?

Number of full-time employees?

Who is responsible for personnel? For recruitment? Selection of workers? Who has final say in choice of employees?

Do you use plans for employee selection? (employment procedures) Written? or tradition? (follow certain pattern all the time)

Do you have long-range plans for employee recruitment? Why?

Do you use written job specifications to guide screening of applicants? Why not?

Sources of applicants? Types or kinds of applicants from local sources?

Any problems in recruiting from local sources? Are you able to obtain enough candidates for job openings to make a choice or do you have to take the first one who comes along?

Causes of employee turnover?

Kind of application blank used (general or particular to the organization) Do you ask all applicants to fill out application blanks? Keep application file?

Request references from applicants? Kind of references asked (personal or previous employer)? How many references checked for each applicant?

Type of interview used? Use written interview guides? Use written evaluation sheets for candidates?

Require health examinations? When? (before or after appointment) Type of health examination required? Require attendance in food handlers' classes given by city or county health department? How often?

APPENDIX B

APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT
K-STATE UNION

e _____ Date _____
Last First Middle

ress _____ Phone _____

as Resident _____ How Long _____ Age _____ Date of Birth _____
Mo. Day Year

_____ Marital Status _____ Social Security Number _____

ldren _____ Ages _____ Total No. Dependents _____ Number
Number Relation to you

you have a Civil Service Rating _____ What is it _____

long do you wish Employment _____ Temporary _____ Full-Time _____ Part Time _____

you willing to work during Summer and School Vacations and Legal Holiday

CATION: Circle the grade completed in school 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16

lege or University _____
Name Location

iness School _____
Name Location

rees Received _____ Year _____

Married, Is Husband a Student _____ Vet. _____ Army _____ Other _____ Expected Grad. Date

rou have any Physical Defects _____ Explain _____

Soon Would You be able to Begin work _____

Much Notice Do You Plan To Give Your Present Employer _____

What Type Work are You Interested? Snack Bar _____ Cashier _____ Waitress _____ Dishroom _____

hen Worker _____ Pots and Pans Washer _____

RENCES: DO NOT GIVE RELATIVES (List Local References if Possible)
NAME Address Occupation

_____

_____

_____

NESS EXPERIENCE:

or Present Employer _____

of Firm _____ Address _____

ness of Firm _____ Length of Employment _____

oyer _____ Your Duties _____ Salary _____

on For Leaving _____

MANHATTAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS
CAFETERIA FOOD SERVICE

APPLICATION BLANK

Name _____ Date _____

Address _____ Telephone _____

Date of birth _____ Nationality _____

Height _____ Weight _____ Physical Defects _____

Married or Single _____ No. of dependents ages _____

_____

List three character references.

Name _____ Address _____ Position _____

Name _____ Address _____ Position _____

Name _____ Address _____ Position _____

Employment history of your last job:

Nature of Work. Salary: Length of service Reason for leaving.

_____

_____

_____

How many years of academic education do you have? _____

What special training do you have? _____

_____

What are your reasons for applying for this job? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

INFORMATION SHEET

Please fill in the following information and return:

Full Name: _____

Husband's Name: _____ Living _____ Deceased _____

Children at Home:

Name	Age	School

Home Address:

Birthday: Month _____ Day _____ Year _____

Telephone Number _____

Social Security Number: _____

Doctor to call in case of emergency: _____

Dentist to call in case of emergency: _____

Eye doctor to call in case of emergency _____

Hospital Preferred: _____

Date started to work at present job:

Month _____

Year _____

EMPLOYEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE

AME IN FULL (FIRST, MIDDLE, LAST) | SOCIAL SECURITY NO.

ESENT ADDRESS | PHONE NO.

RMANENT HOME ADDRESS | DATE OF BIRTH | RACE

INGLE ☐ MARRIED | ☐ FEMALE ☐ MALE | HEIGHT | WEIGHT | NO. OF DEPENDENTS

ITION | REGULAR WORK ☐ | EXTRA WORK ☐ | TEMPORARY WORK ☐

R EMPLOYED BY THIS CO. | WHAT DEPT. | HOW LONG | DATE OF LEAVING

	NAME	GRADUATE YES	GRADUATE NO	GIVE NAMES AND ADDRESSES OF THREE PERSONAL REFERENCES
DE SCHOOL				
H SCHOOL				
LEGE				
INESS				
ER				

NO. CHILDREN

CARE OF CHILDREN WHILE WORKING?

RELATIVES OR FRIENDS EMPLOYER HERE

EMPLOYMENT RECORD FOR PAST 5 YEARS

EMPLOYER	KIND OF BUSINESS	FROM
ET	YOUR POSITION	TO
	SALARY AT START AT LEAVING	WHY LEFT
T TO LAST EMPLOYER	KIND OF BUSINESS	FROM
ET	YOUR POSITION	TO
	SALARY AT START AT LEAVING	WHY LEFT
IOUS EMPLOYER	KIND OF BUSINESS	FROM
ET	YOUR POSITION	TO
	SALARY AT START AT LEAVING	WHY LEFT

IF ADDITIONAL SPACE NECESSARY, USE REVERSE SIDE.

E YOU HAD A PHYSICAL EXAMINATION HE PAST 5 YEARS ☐ YES ☐ NO | REASON FOR EXAMINATION | YEAR OF EXAMINATION

OUR KNOWLEDGE DO YOU HAVE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING AILMENTS: (CHECK YES OR NO)

NO	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO
☐ RUPTURED	☐ ☐ KIDNEY TROUBLE	☐ ☐ BACK INJURY	☐ ☐ EPILEPSY	☐ ☐ RHEUMATISM OR ARTHRITIS
☐ DEFECTIVE SIGHT	☐ ☐ DEFECTIVE HEARING	☐ ☐ HIGH BLOOD PRESSURE	☐ ☐ DIZZINESS	☐ ☐ HEART DISEASE
☐ ILLNESS DUE TO WORKING WITH CHEMICALS	☐ ☐ SKIN ERUPTIONS	☐ ☐ METAL FEVER	☐ ☐ LEAD POISONING	☐ ☐ SILICOSIS OR TUBERCULOSIS

E YOU ANY PHYSICAL DEFORMITIES? ☐ YES ☐ NO | IF "YES" EXPLAIN

E YOU RECEIVED WORKMAN'S COMPENSATION FOR ANY INJURIES DURING THE PAST 10 YEARS?
☐ YES ☐ NO IF SO, DESCRIBE ALL SUCH INJURIES BELOW:

NATURE OF INJURY	EMPLOYER WHEN INJURED	YEAR	CAUSE OF INJURY

YOU ABIDE BY THE SAFETY RULES OF THIS COMPANY? ☐ YES ☐ NO

IF INJURED, WILL YOU ACCEPT THE MEDICAL FACILITIES RECOMMENDED BY YOUR EMPLOYER? ☐ YES ☐ NO

IG PAST 52 WEEKS HAVE YOU– (A) SERVED WAITING PERIOD AS REQUIRED BY UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION LAW_____

AWN UNEMPLOYMENT BENEFITS_____. ARE YOU NOW DRAWING BENEFITS_____. EXPLAIN_____

owed by: _____

_____

g Date: _____

red by: _____

I hereby declare all the foregoing statements to be true and correct. I agree to abide by all Company rules and regulations governing the conduct of co-workers and agree to abide by all safety requirements of the company. I further understand that my employment shall be based upon the truth of the foregoing facts, statements and warranties as to health. I agree that any falsification, misrepresentation or omission of facts is cause for immediate dismissal.

Date _____ Signature_____

MEMORIAL HOSPITAL
MANHATTAN, KANSAS

_____19_____ CLASSIFICATION

SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER

REG. NO. SERIAL NO. STATE

o. _____
(FIRST) (MIDDLE) (LAST) (MAIDEN)

ESS-LOCAL _____ PHONE NUMBER _____

MANENT ADDRESS _____
(STREET) (CITY) (STATE)

MAND'S FULL NAME _____ OCCUPATION _____

EST RELATIVE _____
(NAME) (STREET) (CITY) (STATE)

of Birth: _____ Age: _____ Height: _____ Weight: _____

zen of _____ Religion: _____

le: _____ Married: _____ Widowed _____ Divorced: _____ No. Dep. _____

ATION:	NAME OF SCHOOL	LOCATION	COURSES OF STUDY	GRADUATED	
entary:				YES	NO
School:				YES	NO
ming School:				YES	NO
ege:				YES	NO
r:				YES	NO

tion applied for: _____ Preference of service _____
ou have any physical limitations or impairments? _____
o, explain _____

IOUS EXPERIENCE AND EMPLOYMENT (Latest position first) Please indicate if refrences may be obtained.

ame of employer and address _____
erson for reference _____ Address _____
osition held _____ Duties _____
ate of employment _____ Reason for leaving _____
tarting salary _____ Salary at time of soparation _____

ame of employer and address _____
erson for reference _____ Address _____
osition held _____ Duties _____
ate of employment _____ Reason for leaving _____
tarting salary _____ Salary at time of seperation _____

ame of employer and address _____
erson for reference _____ Address _____
osition held _____ Duties _____
ate of employement _____ Reason for leaving _____
tarting salary _____ Salary at time of seperation _____

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
RESIDENCE HALL FOOD SERVICE

APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

Name:_____Date:_____

Address_____Telephone No:_____

Age:____Birth Date: Mo._____Day_____Yr._____Social Security No._____

Married____Single____Div._____No. of Dependents:_____Ages:_____

Years of Residence in Kansas_____ No. of Exemptions:_____

Are you a U. S. Citizen?_____ Years of Education:_____

Husband's Occupation:_____

Experience: (List last 3 jobs) Company Job Dates worked

_____

_____

_____

Are you employed now?____Where?_____How long?_____

Have you ever worked for Kansas State University?_____

Where?_____When?_____

Do you have Kansas State Civil Service Classification?_____What?_____

What type of work are you interested in?_____

Health?_____

Height:_____Weight:_____Dress or Uniform size:_____

Do not write below this line

Date of Employment:_____

Position:_____

Remarks:

Interviewer_____

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
Possible Work Locations	Possible Positions

APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

(PLEASE PRINT PLAINLY)

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	
Work Location	Rate
Position	Date

PERSONAL

Date: _____

NAME ETHRIDGE MAUREEN NMI Social Security No. _____
Last First Middle Initial

PRESENT ADDRESS 815 MANHATTAN TELEPHONE NO. _____
No. Street City State

HOW LONG HAVE YOU LIVED AT ABOVE ADDRESS? ONE WEEK ARE YOU A CITIZEN? _____

PREVIOUS ADDRESS _____ HOW LONG DID YOU LIVE THERE? _____
No. Street City State

Date of BIRTH MAY 12 46 SEX: M ___ F F HEIGHT 5 ft. ___ in. ___ WEIGHT 100 lbs.
Mo. Day Yr.

MARITAL STATUS: Single ☐ Engaged ☐ Married ☑ Separated ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐

Date of Marriage 4 JUNE 66

No. of Dependents including Yourself _____ No. of Children _____ Their Ages _____

Does your Wife/Husband Work? YES If yes, what kind? CLERK His or her earnings $ _____ per week

Do you own your own home? NO Pay Rent? _____ Monthly rent (If you rent) _____ Own o car? _____

Do you have any physical defects? NO if yes, describe _____

Do you have a hernia? _____

Have you had a major illness in the past 5 years? NO if yes, describe _____

Were you received compensation for injuries? NO If yes, describe _____

POSITION(S) APPLIED FOR _____ Rate of Pay Expected $ _____ per week

Would you Work: Full-Time YES Part-Time ___ Specify days and hours if part time _____

Were you previously employed by us? ___ If yes, when? _____

Have any friends or relatives working for us _____
Name Relationship

Name Relationship

Were you ever arrested? ___ If yes, describe in full _____

Should our application is considered favorably, on what date will you be available for work? _____ 19___

Nearest person to be notified in case of accident or emergency:

Name _____ Address _____

Phone Number _____

Is there any other experiences, skills, or qualifications which you feel would especially fit you for work with the Company? _____

Form 101

(Turn to Next Page)

RECORD OF EDUCATION

School	Name and Address of School	Course of Study	Years Attended From	Years Attended To	Check Last Year Completed				Did You Graduate?	List Diploma or Degree
ementary					5	6	7	8	☐ Yes ☐ No	
gh					1	2	3	4	☐ Yes ☐ No	
llege					1	2	3	4	☐ Yes ☐ No	
ner pecify)					1	2	3	4	☐ Yes ☐ No	

MILITARY SERVICE RECORD

hat is your present Selective Service classification? _____ Reason _____

re you in U. S. Armed Forces? Yes _____ No _____ If yes, what Branch? _____

es of Duty: FROM _____ (Day Mo. Year) TO _____ (Day Mo. Year) List Duties in the Service, luding Special Training _____

k at Discharge _____ Reason for Discharge _____

e you taken any training under the G. I. Bill of Rights? _____

es, What Training did you Take? _____

PERSONAL REFERENCES (Not Former Employers or Relatives)

NAME AND OCCUPATION	ADDRESS	PHONE NUMBER

I List Below, Beginning With Your Most Recent, All Present and Past Employment

Name and Address of Company and Type of Business	From Mo	From Yr	To Mo	To Yr	Describe in Detail the Work You Did	Weekly Starting Salary	Weekly Last Salary	Reason for Leaving	Name of Supervisor
Name									
Address									
Type of Business									

II

Name and Address of Company and Type of Business	From Mo	From Yr	To Mo	To Yr	Describe in Detail the Work You Did	Weekly Starting Salary	Weekly Last Salary	Reason for Leaving	Name of Supervisor
Name									
Address									
Type of Business									

III

Name and Address of Company and Type of Business	From Mo	From Yr	To Mo	To Yr	Describe in Detail the Work You Did	Weekly Starting Salary	Weekly Last Salary	Reason for Leaving	Name of Supervisor
Name									
Address									
Type of Business									

IV

Name and Address of Company and Type of Business	From Mo	From Yr	To Mo	To Yr	Describe in Detail the Work You Did	Weekly Starting Salary	Weekly Last Salary	Reason for Leaving	Name of Supervisor
Name									
Address									
Type of Business									

V

Name and Address of Company and Type of Business	From Mo	From Yr	To Mo	To Yr	Describe in Detail the Work You Did	Weekly Starting Salary	Weekly Last Salary	Reason for Leaving	Name of Supervisor
Name									
Address									
Type of Business									

Have you ever been bonded? If yes, on what jobs?_____

May we contact the employers listed above?_____ If not, indicate by No. which one(s) you do not wish us to contact_____

The facts set forth above in my application for employment are true and complete. I understand that if employed false statements on this application shall be considered sufficient cause for dismissal.

_____

Signature of Applicant

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEWING

1. You have lived here all your life?
   How long?

2. Married?
   How long?
   What does husband think of your working?
   What does husband do?
   His hire of?
   Hours he work?

3. Children?
   Number: Ages?
   Child care?
   How far from your home?
   Dependable?

4. Physical Condition?
   Last time at doctor?
   Why?
   Handicaps?

5. Transportation -- What type will you use?

6. Previous jobs? Last
   Type?
   Kind of [illegible]?
   Reason for leaving?
   How long employed on job?
   Did you like job?

7. Why do you want to do Residence Hall food service work?
   Do you know anything about the work?
   Were interested in (type)
   Have you ever worked with college age people?
   Do you know anyone working here?
   What we do here besides feed students

8. Do you know anything about Civil Service?
   Tell benefits

9. Explain the job —

APPLICANT EVALUATION

Name:_____ Date_____

Points to Consider	Excellent	Good	Poor
Age			
Personal Appearance			
Attitude (sense of service)			
Responsibility (organization of home and family)			
Calmness (stability)			
Reading Ability (simple addition and subtraction)			
Experience			
Alertness			
Honesty (info on application correct)			
Health			
Interest			
Ability to follow directions			
Transportation			

AVerage_____

A GUIDE FOR RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF FULL-TIME NONPROFESSIONAL FOOD SERVICE EMPLOYEES

by

JOSEFINA M. WOODING

B. S. University of the Philippines, 1960

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Institutional Management

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1965

The purpose of this report was to develop a guide for recruitment and selection of nonprofessional food service employees applicable to conditions found in small to medium-sized cities in the midwestern section of the United States.

An important function of food service administration is procurement and selection of employees. Labor turnover occurs in food services for many and complex reasons despite efforts toward efficient manpower management. Review of current literature and observation of representative types of food services revealed a need for effective screening and placement of workers for food service jobs. High cost of training, discharging, and replacing employees does not allow for mistakes in selection and placement of workers.

Employment policies and procedures logically vary for every organization. Screening devices commonly used in employee selection were found to be: application blanks, interviews, references, tests, and health examinations. In addition, the literature recommended use of job specifications or descriptions to aid management in determining requirements of positions to be filled.

Objectives of the guide for employment policies and procedures were: to help the food service establish responsibility for all phases of manpower recruitment and selection; to aid the selector in making decisions regarding choice and placement of employees; and to encourage food service organizations to develop their own employment

policies and procedures based on past experience, current conditions, and forecasts of future needs.

The guide consists of six parts: employment policies and procedures, job requirements and specifications, recruiting and recruitment sources, application blank, selection interview, and health examination. Every part of the guide was made general in nature to be useful in as many situations as possible.

Employment policies cover every phase of employee procurement and selection and terms of employment such as wages and salaries, hours and days of work, vacation and sick leave privileges, special benefits, and policies on promotions. Employment procedures state and define steps in worker recruitment, selection, and placement; establish and assign roles and responsibilities to members of management; and prescribe orderly methods for screening applicants. Job specifications determine requirements of jobs and qualifications workers must possess to perform satisfactory work. The necessity of obtaining enough candidates from which to choose employees requires use of several recruitment sources. The food service needs to tap all sources available and develop those that prove productive and reliable. Application blanks should be designed to obtain pertinent information relevant to job requirements. Employment interviews aid the selector to obtain further information about the applicant and to explore in depth possibilities for

employment. Health examinations protect applicants by discouraging them from undertaking work injurious to their health and the organization through assurance that workers are physically capable of doing the work and that no hazard exists for the food service.