

WORK VALUES AND JOB SATISFACTION OF FEMALE, NON-SUPERVISORY  
HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE EMPLOYEES

by

PATRICIA M. KLEMP

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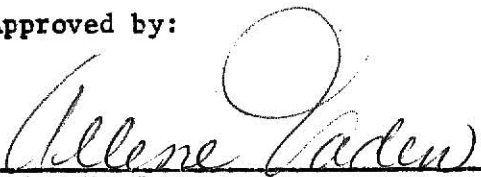
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Approved by:

  
Major Professor

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## INTRODUCTION

Rising costs, decreasing productivity, government controls, and unionization may be symptoms of a major societal problem--the alienation of the consumer and the worker. Foodservice administrators have continued to treat problems such as rising costs and decreasing productivity with more technology. This may not be the answer, since from a recent survey, hospital foodservices faced similar problems in 1972 as in 1969 and the problems were being treated in the same manner (1).

Human resources are among the most important components of any organization. In foodservices many workers are required, usually in low skill positions. Foodservice workers often are paid poorly; productivity is frequently low; and there is seldom any incentive to do better. Freeland and Pickle (2), in surveying six types of industries, found food store and foodservice workers achieved the least satisfaction from their jobs. High turnover and low productivity have intensified. Foodservice administrators may need to give more attention to human resources management and less attention to technology (1).

The causes of job dissatisfaction in the foodservice industry are similar to the causes of job dissatisfaction in other industries: differences between what the worker perceives the job to be and what it really is, knowledge of better jobs elsewhere, feelings of job inferiority, poor working conditions, boredom, poor communications in organizations, no recognition for performance, and no visible ladder for promotion (3). Roberts and Savage (4) contended that there are several reasons for measuring satisfaction. First, there is a growing concern with human as well as physical assets and second, some researchers and managers believe

that satisfaction contributes to job performance. Third, there is ample evidence that satisfaction is negatively related to absenteeism and turnover, both costly to organizations; and fourth, it is desirable for management to know how employees feel about their jobs.

Work values of foodservice workers may have an effect on their job satisfaction. Zytowski (5) defined work values as being descriptive of a person's internal needs or satisfactions available to that internal need. The size of an organization may be a factor in the work values and/or job satisfaction of workers. Kast and Rosenzweig (6) contended that organizations are becoming increasingly complex over time. Porter et al. (7) reviewed a large number of surveys investigating size in relation to individual attitudes and behavior and found that larger subunits seemed to be negatively related to job satisfaction and to an individual's tendency to stay on the job by not being absent or leaving the job.

Are there differences in work values of employees in large or small hospitals? Is there a relationship between job satisfaction and work values of hospital foodservice employees? Does job satisfaction relate to demographic variables such as age, marital status, childhood community size, education, length of employment, or prior job? These questions were examined in this project. This study was an extension of Shaw's (8) research on the work values of female, nonsupervisory hospital foodservice workers. She used Kilpatrick's et al. (8) instrument, the Study of Occupational Values. The Kilpatrick instrument also was used in this study with the addition of Smith's et al. (10) Job Descriptive Index (JDI), an instrument designed to assess job satisfaction. Shaw's sample was restricted to small general hospitals in urban and rural areas. The variable of organizational size was introduced in this research to study

whether the size of organizations affected workers' values. Literature reviewed relevant to this study included the following topics: labor in the hospital and foodservice industries, women and work, organizations, work values, and job satisfaction.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### Labor in the Foodservice and Hospital Industries

The demand for health services is expected to increase rapidly over the coming decade, primarily because the United States has decreed that every citizen has the right to medical treatment (11). Hepner et al. (11) stated that a crucial problem in the delivery of health care is the current shortage of health manpower. Cohen, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare predicted in 1975 there would be four million workers in the health professions with over 100 billion spent annually on health care (11). Hepner et al. contended that the present need for health workers is 250,000 more than available each year.

Service workers, including foodservice workers, constitute more than a third of all employees in the health care field (11). According to the National Restaurant Association in 1969, 250,000 total workers will be needed each year in the foodservice industry alone to fill newly created jobs and to replace existing jobs. Thirty per cent of 250,000, or 75,000, workers will be required for non-technical or unskilled jobs in the foodservice industry. By 1977, the percentage of people in service jobs is predicted to rise by nearly 50 per cent (12).

Foodservice is the number one industry in both retail operating units and in employment. Foodservice workers constitute 4.7 per cent of the labor force (3). In 1971, one of every three meals was eaten away from home (14). Some experts predict that half the family food dollar will be spent for meals away from home by 1980 (13).



Foodservice is both labor intensive and food intensive and together, these cost areas may total as much as 50 to 60 per cent of revenue. Both of these costs are rising rapidly. Because of the basic nature of foodservices, operators are hard pressed to achieve corresponding increases in productivity. Industry sales per employee are very low--\$16,000 per year, which is less than half that of manufacturing employees (13).

The type of foodservice employee also is changing. Check (15) stated that the median age for foodservice workers is 46.2 years, ten years older than employees in retail establishments. Hospitals are attracting few women between the ages of twenty-five to thirty (16). The educational level of employees also has changed; adult Americans achieved 12.2 years of education in 1967 as compared to 8.6 years in 1953 (12).

Jolin and McKinley (17) conducted a survey of nearly half the hospitals in Iowa to study bases for vocational education for foodservice employees. They found that many employees were clustered in a combination of jobs, such as kitchen helper, dishwasher, and tray girl. The distribution of personnel was 12 per cent management and 88 per cent nonsupervisory. More females than males were employed. Eighty-nine per cent of management and supervisory personnel and 69 per cent of nonsupervisory personnel were women.

The foodservice industry has been experiencing a turnover rate of up to 200 per cent. This separation rate is three times that of the average manufacturing industry. The estimated loss to the foodservice industry is from \$200 to \$500 per employee (18). Jolin and McKinley (17) found that the problem most frequently mentioned by management was related to labor. Periods of training for nonsupervisory jobs were often short and not in a planned sequence.

Knight (16) declared that remedial action must be taken by managers to forestall a steady decline in applications for hospital jobs. He identified the following factors as areas needing attention: sources of recruitment, employee utilization, attractiveness of hospital jobs, and advantages and disadvantages of employment in hospitals. Knight suggested that handicapped and older workers are frequently passed over as a source of labor. Part-time work, he stressed, should be encouraged. He contended that lack of dignity is often associated with foodservice jobs. To compound matters, hourly pay rates in the foodservice industry are well below the average for non-skilled personnel (19).

At the 1970 Educational Conference of the American Society for Hospital Foodservice Administrators (20), Hotchkin identified a visible career ladder program as a key to proper manpower investment. He stated that lack of career opportunities within the foodservice operations results in high personnel turnover. At the same conference Weimer contended that the major grievances cited by employees are low job satisfaction, inadequate training programs, insufficient employee voice in policy decisions, and too little recognition by supervisors (20).

Morgan (21) contended that operators of foodservice establishments should question the "sound" personnel theories in their relationships with workers employed in the foodservice industry. He suggested that policies effective in manufacturing and other industries may not be applicable in foodservices. Morgan also suggested that foodservice organizations structure their own personnel policies and motivating systems to meet their own particular needs.

## Women and Work

### Labor Participation of Women

The percentage of women working has changed drastically since 1920. In January, 1970, nearly 42 per cent of women sixteen years and older were working in contrast to 1920 when 23 per cent of working age women were working. Each decade has brought increased numbers of women into the labor force in a variety of economic settings. In 1970, most of the women working were in the twenty to twenty-four year old bracket, with women in the forty-five to fifty-four year old bracket a close second. The number of wives working has increased by more than 25 per cent from 1968-1972 (22).

Consistently, the amount of education has been related to labor force participation. The more education, the more likely a woman is to be employed. Higher earnings also are related to higher educational attainment. The number of children affect the participation rate of women; the proportion of women employed increases with the age of the children (23).

Shea et al. (24) conducted a study on the changes in the labor force status of women as part of a continuing study for the Center of Human Resources at Ohio State University. Five thousand women aged thirty to forty-four years were included in the study. More white women moved into than out of the labor force; 47 per cent joined the work force in 1967 as compared to 51 per cent in 1969. The participation of black women remained unchanged at 67 per cent.

### Reasons Women Work

Why do women work? Kreps (25) stated that whether women elect to take a job depends on their evaluation of two sets of advantages: the

home set, including family, hobbies, and community activities; and the market set, which includes earnings, job status, and interest in the work itself. She cited evidence that pointed to the need for income, which became the overriding consideration for most, and expressed little doubt that the low participation rate of women with low educational achievement was due to lack of job opportunities. Kreps found that married women seemed to respond positively to wage incentives.

Smith (26) contended that it was doubtful that the increase in women workers reflected a change in willingness to work. More than 60 per cent of the women in a survey said that the biggest share of their earnings went for necessities with food and rent items most frequently mentioned. After listening to 200 women recount the history of their work lives, Smith (26) concluded that a woman's reasons for working at any given time--no matter how candidly stated--did not necessarily explain her presence in the work force. If she had been employed for any number of years, the critical factor which pushed or enticed her into the labor market had probably long since lost its immediacy and she worked at present for a new reason or maybe, just because of habit. Some of the women she interviewed took working for granted--in much the same way men do, regardless of whether or not they could afford to "take it easy."

Shea et al. (24) investigated work attitudes, satisfaction, and job attachment. Their findings support the importance of intrinsic job satisfaction as a factor in employment. They reported that 60 per cent of employed white women and 66 per cent of employed black women indicated that they would continue to work even if they had enough money to live comfortably without working. This commitment to work was stronger among non-married than married women, among those without preschool children,

among those women who were professional, technical, or managerial workers, and those with a permissive attitude toward employment of women with children. According to a recent Gallop poll (27), this permissive attitude toward women who work changed drastically from 1936 to 1971.

Shea et al. (24) reported that most women have positive attitudes toward work and substantial majorities have indicated they liked their job very much. Less than one in ten expressed any degree of job dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction was less among full-time employees than part-time employees. In Shaw's study, black women tended to register higher commitment to work, especially if they were employed in blue collar jobs. The proportion of black women who believed extrinsic job factors, such as good wages, were more important than intrinsic factors, such as achievement, was double that of white women.

## Organizations

### Organization Complexity

Kast and Rosenzweig (6) stated that organizations have become increasingly complex over time. Both variety of life on earth and the intricacy of its organization have reflected and emphasized this trend. An essential element in the trend toward greater complexity has been specialization of labor. In dividing up the work, organizations perform work more effectively and efficiently (6).

More specialization in organizations requires increasingly sophisticated methods of coordination and integration. Tendencies toward both cooperation and conflict become evident among organization participants. A relevant issue has been the question of individualism versus conformity (6).

Scientific knowledge and technological developments have shown an accelerating trend (6). Developments in science and technology have magnified trends toward specialization. Scientists, researchers, and other "knowledge workers" have become more prevalent. Kast and Rosenzweig (6) contended that joint efforts by managers and highly trained workers toward organization accomplishment may prove difficult, since "knowledge workers" and managers may have different values.

Kast and Rosenzweig (6) contended that the general increase in education of participants provides a more advanced atmosphere in organizations. People are becoming less "manageable" and more likely to think for themselves.

#### Size of Organizations

As groups have grown in size, face-to-face relationships have become less possible. The number of interrelationships among organizational participants have grown and managers have had difficulty maintaining personal contact within the organization (6). Kast and Rosenzweig (6) contended that the trend toward increased organizational size is not likely to taper off as the population continues to grow. Thus large numbers of people will provide complex environments for society and its subunits. Tallachí (28) reported that increased size of organizations increases division of labor and status differentiation, both leading to a lower level of employee satisfaction.

Studies of organizational size can be categorized into two types. One group of studies has related size to other characteristics according to structural-operational features, such as degree of specification of job duties. Other studies related size directly to individual attitudes

and behavior such as job satisfaction, turnover and job performance (7).

Size in relation to structural variables. Studies have presented conflicting evidence in the first category. The studies of Woodward (29) and Harvey (30) failed to find any meaningful relationships between size and other structural variables of the organization. However, Pugh et al. (31) sampled a broader range of sizes and did find significant relationships of size to measures of organization structure. They found that size was strongly correlated with a composite measure of variables such as specialization of roles, standardization of function, and formalization of procedures. Porter et al. (32) concluded that there may be some limited impact of size if (a) the range of sizes considered was great enough, and (b) other variables in the relationships tended toward a bureaucratic operation.

Size in relation to attitudes. A vast array of studies have examined the relationship of size of organizations to attitudes and behavior of individuals. Most of the studies have made comparisons across different size subunits of larger organizations rather than across independent total organizations (7). Porter and Lawler (32) in a review of studies on organizational size and attitudes, hypothesized that large subunits tended to lead to low cohesiveness, high task specialization, and poor communications. They predicted that this led, in turn, to high job dissatisfaction, and correspondingly, high turnover, high absenteeism, and labor strife. Indik and Seashore (33) and Metzner and Mann (34) found that with larger sized subunits, lower job satisfaction, higher turnover, and higher absenteeism resulted.

Porter and Lawler (32) also examined studies dealing with the relationship of total organization size, as opposed to subunit size (28). They predicted that the negative effects of larger subunit size did not necessarily carry over to be negative characteristics of large total organizational size.

Although fewer studies examined total organization size, there have been some. Tallachi (28) studied the relationship between total organizational size and job attitudes. He reported a correlation of  $-.67$  between organizational size and an overall index of job satisfaction. The instrument he used was the Science Research Associates Employee Inventory, a seventy-six item employee attitude questionnaire.

There may be evidence insofar as job attitudes are concerned to indicate that there may be some interaction between size and level of management. Porter (32) concluded that it appeared that there were no clear-cut overall advantages for smaller-sized organizations as far as managers and their feelings about their jobs were concerned. He contended that increased total size of an organization, with subsequent technological changes, would not necessarily reduce the morale and job satisfaction of employees as long as interorganizational work units are kept small.

### Work Values

#### Work Defined

Work has been defined in several ways. Klein (35) stated the "first thing that matters about work is to have it." Galbraith (36) contended that to be idle is no longer considered to be rewarding or even respectable. Scott (37) asserted that work is a subject that embraces the whole



of life and what we do in our work affects society which in turn influences us.

Work has been defined as purposive activity that is instrumental and yields income through expenditure of effort and involves a certain measure of constraint. Scott (37) observed that, currently, work depends to a large extent on commercial activities, factories, and the urban way of life. Besides being a source of income, work is a matter of economy, organization, and control (37).

Scott (37) contended that the work of primitive man lacked the strain and obligation of more civilized man. He stated that more primitive man did not acquire the habit of disciplined work, because he did not have the economic pressures of western European man. Firth (38) stated that the social setting of all economic life molds to an estimable degree the characteristics of personal activity. In contemporary society, workers no longer have a blood tie, marriage, or sense of belonging to the community, even though people work in close proximity and have social interactions.

The work ethic. Scott (37) contended that the Protestant work ethic was based on the belief that God created man with the ability to work and be productive, and in order to please God, hard work was the only moral way of life. Discipline, he asserted, had always been regarded as of fundamental importance in the Christian life and was very strong for those of the Protestant tradition. Weber (39) suggested that the men reared in the Calvinist tradition, a theoretical doctrine emphasizing the sovereignty of God, worked hard, lived frugally, and were successful. They believed in salvation by God's grace through hard work. God had shown that he approved when they were successful and this, Weber suggested, was the beginning of modern capitalism. The Protestant work ethic may be in force

today. Scott (37) contended that people still refer to their trade manual as their "bible" and say that they are working "religiously." Simpkins (40) contended that no one can challenge the basic tenet of the work ethic--that people need some form of work which gives them recognition and compensation for effort they expend.

Work ethic studies. A Canadian conference (41) sponsored by the Institute on Public Affairs examined the changed meaning of work. The delegates included social workers, business and labor representatives, academicians, and students. Their consensus was that the young increasingly have demanded work that is more than a source of income; they want personal satisfaction or work that is socially useful or significant. The young people, they thought, expressed a marked distaste for dreary, routine work and demanded democracy and responsibility in the work place. At that conference, Sheppard (42) reported on his study of 400 white male blue-collar union members. He found that 69 per cent of the group under thirty said it was very important for them to have a job that provided opportunities to develop individual abilities. Most felt the economic situation should adjust to the individual, not the individual to the market. Campbell (41) stated that there was a new attitude and philosophy that work should not be drudgery, but an extension of oneself and one's interests.

Blood (43) stated that the way a person evaluates work is related to his attitudes toward his job. The relationship of work values has been related to the ideals of the Protestant ethic in many studies (39, 44). Lenski (45) found differences between work values of socio-religious groups. His general finding was that Jews and white Protestants were more likely to be committed to the ideals of capitalism and the Protestant ethic than Catholics and Negro Protestants.

Turner and Lawrence (46) found in a study of workers from rural communities, most of whom were Protestant, responses indicating belief in the work ethic. Opposite responses came from workers in urban areas who were predominantly Catholic. These researchers thought that the differences could be mediated by differences in work values. It was predicted that persons who ascribe to the Protestant ethic ideals would be more satisfied with their jobs. Results showed a consistent relationship between job satisfaction and work values. The Protestant ethic was found to be positively related to job satisfaction, and agreement with the non-Protestant ethic was inversely related to satisfaction. This research implied that the more a worker agreed with the Protestant ethic, the more he was satisfied in his work and life in general.

Rural and urban differences. Blood and Hulan (47) suggested that rural workers would be more likely to hold values typical of the Protestant work ethic and would be more receptive to job enlargement programs with greater job responsibility than those in urban areas. They contended that urban workers would view their jobs as a means of financial gain only.

#### Work Values Defined

Zytowski (5) stated that work values were generally descriptive either of the internal state of the person (needs) or a satisfaction available to that internal need. For example, the work value, prestige, implies that a person has an internal disposition to obtain that external characteristic called prestige.

Classification of work values. Twelve to fifteen values seem to describe most values in a taxonomy or structure of a work values system.

These values range from job security, status, salary, achievement, advancement, recognition, the work itself, to factors in personal life, such as happiness or variety (48). Ginzburg's et al. (49) original concept of intrinsic, extrinsic, and concomitant values has held in several independent efforts to cluster work values.

Astin (48) studied some of the motivational variables underlying both extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of work satisfaction and related these variables to the vocational choices of college freshmen. Twenty-one items of potential work satisfaction were developed from the study and given to 355 male college freshmen who responded to the items on a seven-point desirability scale. An analysis produced four fairly distinct clusters: (a) managerial-aggressive--a need to dominate in interpersonal relations; (b) status-need--concern with monetary and social benefits; (c) organization-need--a desire to structure and organize both the work and job environment; and (d) a miscellaneous group.

Interests versus values. Katz (50) contended that interests should not be confused with values. Interest measures may be expected to identify and classify activities that the individual finds intrinsically interesting. They predict only the satisfaction of the individual's interests when he/she has decided on which activities are interesting. Then he/she must still decide how much importance to attach to each interest activity compared to other occupational values--this necessitates a measurement of values. Measurement of values permits the prediction of the total satisfaction that a person may desire from various options.

## Work Value Studies

Kilpatrick et al. (9) conducted extensive research exploring occupational work values by interviewing 5000 workers including members of the general adult working force, federal employees, high school and college teachers, scientists, engineers, and business executives. They examined attitudes toward the federal government as an employer. One of their objectives was to learn what occupational values were of concern to people and what values were of basic importance. They developed a thirty item questionnaire with a ten point agree-disagree scale to assess work values.

Kilpatrick and his coworker's (8) research showed that a majority of workers believed an ideal occupation should satisfy individual occupational aims. Women, as opposed to men, saw work in terms of security rather than opportunity. Men appeared to be more competitive and opportunity oriented. In the occupational ratings dealing with present job satisfaction, higher satisfaction levels were related to increased occupational income, rank, federal grade level, and age.

Flowers and Hughes (51) studied values people have related to staying in a position. They collected data from 406 employees from three companies through anonymous questionnaires. They based their questionnaires on Grave's (52) seven psychological levels of work values:

Level 1: Reactive. This level contains infants, mentally retarded, both of whom are not usually employees.

Level 2: Tribalistic. The employee believes he may not have the best job, but he thinks he does as well as others with jobs like his. He wants the boss to tell him exactly what to do, how, and when to do it.

Level 3: Egocentric. The employee thinks there are two major requirements of a job, that it pays well, and keeps people off his back. He needs a boss who is tough, but allows him to be tough too.

Level 4: Conformist. The employee feels he has a duty to work and likes a job that is secure, where the rules are followed, and there are no favorites.

Level 5: Manipulative. The employee likes variety, a job that offers pay and bonuses on the basis of results, and recognition. The employee feels the responsibility for his success and is constantly on the lookout for new opportunities.

Level 6: Sociocentric. The employee likes working with people toward a common goal. He likes a job which allows for the development of friendly relationships with supervisors and others in the work group.

Level 7: Existential. The employee likes a job where goals and problems are more important than money, prestige, and how it should be done. He likes work that is challenging and requires imagination and initiative. He wants the boss to give him the information and let him do it his own way.

Work values may vary from occupation to occupation and within that occupation. Gray (53) conducted a study using three occupational groups: teachers, mechanical engineers, and accountants. The purpose of the study was to test the hypothesis that there were no differences in needs and values between the three occupational groups. However, significant differences were found in occupational values among the three groups. In comparing teachers with accountants, for example, teachers obtained a significantly higher score in social rewards, while accountants had higher scores in career satisfaction and prestige.

Task design may affect work values. Robey (54) used sixty undergraduate college students to test the hypothesis that job satisfaction and performance were affected by the interaction of task design and work values. Two routine tasks were performed that had either intrinsic or extrinsic value. Through factor analysis of the responses from a questionnaire, Friedlander (44) had demonstrated that different workers had different systems of work values. Robey's (54) results supported the hypothesis that the interaction between job content and work values affects

job satisfaction. The data showed that differences between intrinsic and extrinsic work values affected the attitudinal responses to jobs which varied in degree of specialization or degree of job enlargement.

Centers (55) studied the work values of adult males and contrasted choices of middle-class males and working class males. His major finding was that the middle class worker particularly valued self-expression and the working class valued security highest. Age differences were not examined in his study.

Singer and Stefflre (56) replicated Center's (55) study with 373 white male high school seniors. They contended that job values and desires varied with age. Singer and Stefflre predicted that adolescent values may change and stabilize into adult values over the years. They found that money, interest, and fame overshadowed other motives of the young males. Centers (55) found that the adult group which he studied valued independence highest, and he concluded that it may have been indicative of the fact that after working a number of years, the adult group wanted to be "their own boss."

#### Work Values and Family Background

Super (57) stated that the family is frequently thought of as determining the career of its members through its economic interests, affiliations, and values. Kinnine and Pable (58) derived instruments to measure cultural stimulation, family cohesiveness, social mobility, and adolescent independence. Their instruments were administered to 121 white males, sixteen to eighteen years of age.

They found that security-economic-material values were related to the degree of emphasis on money, luxuries, and economic security in the family.

Achievement-prestige values were not found to be related to the upward mobility of the family. Valuing work for the associations it brought was found to be related to the degree of family cohesiveness, although other factors such as past work experience may have had an effect (58).

### Job Satisfaction

Smith et al. (10) described job satisfactions as feelings or affective responses to facets of the job situation. Herzberg (59) described job satisfaction in terms of hygiene factors, or sources of dissatisfaction, and motivators, or sources of satisfaction. His two factor theory of satisfaction was a result of over 200 interviews with engineers and accountants. His theory was that hygiene factors were important to avoid irritants in the work place, but that management could only motivate employees by improving the job itself. Herzberg asserted that the relationship between values and satisfaction was curvilinear; i.e., job related factors contributed to job satisfaction, but work content related factors contributed to dissatisfaction. Examples of satisfiers or motivators are achievement, growth, the work itself, advancement, and responsibility. Dissatisfiers or environmental factors are company policies, type of supervisors, administration, working conditions, salary, status, job security, and personal life (59).

### Job Satisfaction of Workers in the United States

There are conflicting views on whether the majority of workers today are satisfied with their work and on whether employees all want to be satisfied. Work in America (60), a report to the U.S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare compiled by a special task force, concluded that



work is central to identity in America; who a person is, in other words, depends on how he/she earns a living. The special task force also concluded that work satisfaction was related to job status, and that alienation was so widespread it reached the traditionally privileged groups of middle management.

Women are trebly disadvantaged, the task force (60) asserted, by exclusion from the work force, by discrimination in wages and status once in the work force, and by society's refusal to define the duties and responsibilities of the housewife as work at all. Their conclusion was that satisfaction with work appeared to be the best predictor of longevity--better than known medical or genetic factors--and various aspects of work account for much if not most, of the factors associated with heart disease.

The task force (60) believed that improving the quality of work rested with employers, but that this was hindered by resentment on the part of the worker. They stated that it was among the working class that resentment is most fully institutionalized and expressed in conventional attitudes and political behavior. The task force (60) concluded that the attitudes and values prevalent among today's work force continue to be a barrier to humanization of work.

Kaplan (61) viewed work differently. He stated that considerable sociological evidence indicated that many people do not seek greater opportunities for creativity and responsibility on their jobs. Instead, he asserted, they prefer security, decent working conditions, good fringe benefits, and wages. He suggested that work might not be a central life interest to all workers. Some studies indicate workers can be satisfied with what some people consider dull, meaningless, and repetitive jobs and

that people have a strong commitment to their jobs for economic reasons, but lack an intrinsic interest in the job itself (62,63). Kaplan (61) called this "detached involvement" and hypothesized that this condition may be pervasive in society, especially among the disadvantaged workers, whose background has not prepared, nor taught them to seek, intrinsic satisfiers or self-actualization in work. A recent Gallop poll asked the question to a cross-section of workers, "On the whole, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the work you do?" The majority said they were satisfied with their work (64). Kaplan (61) stated that workers desire more control in the work routine, but still expect management to manage.

Chapman (65) agreed that there is no evidence that workers are any more dissatisfied now than they were before. He stated that people have always hated boring jobs, felt underpaid, and wanted shorter hours. Chapman (65) claimed that new research has shown the unhappy worker to be a young, non-farm laborer, making under \$5,000 per year.

In the late 1960's and early 1970's, workers were supposed to have been more dissatisfied than ever before (65). Quinn et al. (66) compared worker satisfaction during this period and found no significant changes in worker dissatisfaction or satisfaction from studies done in earlier years.

#### Factors of Job Satisfaction

Environmental factors. Flowers and Hughes (51) explored the reasons for job satisfaction of 406 employees in three manufacturing companies. They concluded that the reasons for job satisfaction were achievement, recognition, responsibility, and growth, similar to Herzberg's (59) satisfiers. They categorized environmental factors into those inside the company and those outside the company. Environmental pressures from within

included work roles, facilities, coffee breaks, benefits, and wages. Environmental pressures from outside the company were other job opportunities, community relations, financial obligations, and family ties.

Flowers and Hughes (51) suggested that low-skill manufacturing employees stayed in their jobs mainly for maintenance of environmental reasons, such as benefits, family responsibilities, the difficulties of finding another job, friendship, and financial pressures. Moderate-skilled workers were roughly the same, but they were somewhat less sensitive to environmental factors, and more sensitive to loyalty to the company. They concluded that managers stayed for reasons related to their jobs, themselves, and their community ties. The difficulty of finding other jobs, loyalty, and family responsibility had less influence on them.

Occupational level. Centers and Bugental (67) studied intrinsic and extrinsic job motivators among different segments of the working population. A selected cross-section was interviewed with respect to their job motivation. The extent to which extrinsic or intrinsic job components were valued was found to be related to occupational level. At higher occupational levels, intrinsic job components (self-actualization, interest in work, value of work) were more valued. At lower occupational levels, extrinsic job components (pay, security) were more valued. The biggest shift in values occurred between professional-managerial and clerical-sales and between skilled and semi-skilled and unskilled. Pay was the most important job factor at all levels except professional-managerial.

Zytowski (5) reviewed a number of studies on job satisfaction and concluded that, in general, job satisfaction could be predicted by the

degree to which the person's occupation satisfied his needs, although differences were found among persons in different types and levels of work. Zytowski predicted that those workers employed in higher level occupations valued intrinsic needs more than those in lower level occupations and vice versa.

Friedlander (44) formulated satisfiers and dissatisfiers into growth and deficiency needs. He found that growth and deficiency needs separated white collar and blue collar workers; white collar workers presented growth needs and blue collar workers showed deficiency needs.

Importance of job as perceived by worker. Mikes and Hulin (68) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and whether a worker thinks his job is important. They predicted that those aspects of the job which were perceived as more important by the worker would have a greater influence on behavioral responses than less important aspects of the job. They studied 660 Canadian males and female workers. Importance was used to weight satisfaction scores. No interaction between satisfaction and importance of job factors was found. The general conclusion was that importance has little value in a situation involving job attitudes and behavior.

Self-concept. Singha (69) investigated whether self-concept affected satisfaction with work by administering a self-concept inventory and a thirty-five item job satisfaction questionnaire to 100 workers in an electronics plant. The results showed that subjects with a higher job satisfaction score tended to have higher social and private self-esteem and more stable self-concepts. Significant correlations were obtained between various psychological, human and job factors, and overall job satisfaction.

Orpen and Lisus (70) studied whether self-esteem was related to need fulfillment and job satisfaction. Korman (71) proposed that for individuals with high self-esteem, job situations where one's perceived needs were satisfied would be more satisfying than one where his needs were not satisfied. They hypothesized that low self-esteem would show little relationship to satisfaction with a job situation and the extent to which one's self perceived needs were being met. The results of their study failed to confirm these hypotheses and they concluded that self-esteem was not as crucial a variable in relation to need fulfillment and job satisfaction as previously thought.

Age. Herzberg et al. (59) contended that there was a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. Gadel (72) reported age to be related to motives. Younger women placed more importance upon interesting jobs with responsibility than older women.

According to Saleh and Otis (73), as workers become older they tend to become more satisfied with their jobs, probably because of increasing capacity to adapt on the basis of experience. Vollmer and Kinney (74) reported that the younger the first-line supervisor, the more satisfied they were in their jobs. Anderson and Haag (75) studied 773 employees in a large hospital and found that older employees were more satisfied with both supervisors and their jobs. The younger employees, especially those between twenty-five and thirty, were more dissatisfied with their jobs.

Length of service. Herzberg et al. (59) maintained that job satisfaction increases as individuals continue to work. Blum and Naylor (76) theorized that since job satisfaction increased as a worker grew older, the degree of job satisfaction would increase as length of service increased. Cole (77) found that employees with over five years of service

had favorable job attitudes while workers with two to five years service were dissatisfied. Flowers and Hughes (51) reported that employees with shorter service stayed for internal reasons. Then as family and economic responsibilities arose, they displaced internal reasons for staying.

Educational level. There have been conflicting evidence in regard to the relationship of job satisfaction to educational level. Vollmer and Kinney (74) reported a negative relationship between education and job satisfaction; whereas, Sinha and Sarma (78) found no relationship between the two. Blum (79) contended that an employee's intelligence may indicate his job satisfaction. Intelligence beyond job requirements, he purported, may lead to dissatisfaction. The problems encountered with studying educational level and job satisfaction may be that it is contaminated with age (80). Because of the rising educational level in the population in general, it is likely the young worker is a high school graduate and older workers have completed only grade school (80). Flowers and Hughes (51) predicted that people with a bachelor's degree or higher remain in a job because of motivation but employees without degrees stayed for environmental reasons.

Sex. Zaleznik et al. (81) reported that women were more satisfied than men with the same pay and social position. Herzberg et al. (59) contended the greater variability in attitudes of women could be attributed to the multiple roles they assume. He stated that job satisfaction for women may depend on different factors than for men. Some studies have found that women placed a higher value on social factors of a job than men (67,82).

Marital status. Blum and Russ (83) reported that married women attached more importance to shorter working hours than single women or

married men. Shea et al. (24) concluded in their study of over 5,000 women that marital status seemed to have little influence on job satisfaction. Both married and nonmarried women in both black and white groups expressed practically the same degree of satisfaction with their jobs when occupational category was controlled.

#### Job Satisfaction and Turnover

Job satisfaction may affect the turnover rate of employees. Attitudinal studies of turnover have focused on job satisfaction as a predictor of tenure (84). Porter et al. (84) contended that recent research had only looked at turnover for one point in time. Lefkowitz and Katz (85) showed that attitudinal measures do not remain constant over time. Porter et al. (84) predicted that it would be more appropriate to measure patterns of attitude changes over time than to measure them at one certain point. Their investigation, which was ten months in length, studied changes in measures of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, measured by Smith's et al. (10) Job Descriptive Index. These data were related to subsequent turnover among eight-four newly hired psychiatric technician trainees. Significant relationships existed between certain attitudes held by employees and turnover. Relationships were found in the last two times of the four measurements only, suggesting that such relationships were strongest at points in time closest to when an individual leaves the organization. Organizational commitment was found to discriminate better between "stayers" and "leavers" than did various factors of job satisfaction.

### Job Satisfaction Studies Among Foodservice and Hospital Workers

Puls et al. (86) hypothesized that by increasing the identification between employee and organization, a more satisfied and competent work force could be developed which would result in a reduction of turnover. In their investigation, twenty non-management hospital employees participated in an experimental orientation program to improve the employee's identification with the organization. Their results showed that the program increased job satisfaction of full-time employees and appeared to lower labor turnover.

Patterson (87) conducted exploratory research of unskilled foodservice workers to study the level of satisfaction of unskilled workers and the effects of various demographic variables on level of satisfaction, using the Job Descriptive Index (10). Subjects studied by Smith et al. (10) were from a cross-section of occupations. The format of the JDI consists of a series of adjective checklists referring to different aspects of the job: work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Two advantages of the JDI as an instrument to measure job satisfaction are that it is directed toward specific areas of satisfaction rather than global or general satisfaction and that the verbal level required to answer the JDI is quite low (88). Patterson (87) administered the JDI to eighty-two unskilled foodservice workers, 70 per cent males and 96 per cent Negroes. The results indicated that the foodservice workers sampled were less satisfied when compared to the norms developed by Smith (10) after sampling 2000 workers, in the same income, education, and tenure categories. The younger, more educated employees with less seniority tended to be least



satisfied. The more dependents an individual supported, the less his satisfaction with his work.

The female employees were found to be less satisfied, younger, and more educated than the males. The males had a higher level of absenteeism than the females both in terms of incidents and hours of absenteeism. The null hypothesis that job satisfaction is not influenced by level of education was rejected.

Payola and Larson (89) studied job satisfaction and work values of hospital personnel in a large hospital. Their study sample included hospital office workers, paramedical staff, nurses, ward aides, and unskilled employees in one hospital. The only significant difference found in job satisfaction across occupations was between paramedical employees and nurses. Different components of job satisfaction appeared to be relevant for staff members in different organizational positions. The work values held by respondents were related to job satisfaction, but not universally. For some respondent groups, practically all of the work values examined related to satisfaction, but for other groups, only particular work values were relevant.

Schrieber and Sloan (90) studied the relationship of various organizational incentives to job satisfaction among hospital employees. Over 575 full-time staff members in a 475 bed community hospital completed questionnaires assessing job satisfaction. Respondents included professional-technical, administrative-managerial, clerical, craftsman-operative, and service personnel. The results showed that recognition, opportunity for advancement, salary, and sense of achievement on the job were positively related to job satisfaction. Service workers, which included

foodservice workers, were the least satisfied of any occupational groups with their sense of achievement and opportunities for recognition.

Anderson and Haag (75) studied 773 employees from all units in a large hospital to examine attitudes of staff toward the hospital and the factors influencing these attitudes. The dependent variables were job satisfaction, working conditions, supervision, workstation "climate," and individual goals. The results showed that women workers were more conservative than men in their evaluation and men were either more strongly positive or more strongly negative in their responses. Employees older than forty-five were more satisfied with their jobs and supervisors than younger employees. Foodservice employees were quite concerned with the quality of supervision. Persons with low salaries showed more willingness to seek employment elsewhere.

Shumlas (91) investigated the relationship between union affiliation and job satisfaction. One hundred-forty hospital foodservice workers participated in the study, sixty-seven union and seventy-three non-union employees from hospitals over 100 beds. She related job satisfaction to organizational and environmental factors, such as number of years of service, organizational size, part-time or full-time work, race, age, sex, marital status, number of dependents, education, and place of residence. Job satisfaction was measured with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (10).

Shumlas (91) concluded that unionized hospital foodservice workers were more satisfied with pay and supervision than non-unionized workers. No significant difference was found between the two groups in regard to the work itself, promotions, and co-workers. As the number of dependents increased, satisfaction with pay, supervision, and co-workers decreased. In the non-union group, younger people were less satisfied with the work

itself and promotions than older people. Satisfaction with pay, co-workers, and supervision increased with age.

#### Job Satisfaction and Organizational Size

Large firms have become concerned about job satisfaction and the variables that affect job satisfaction (92). General Motors and General Electric have been moving into job enrichment programs. They have found that unions have been generally suspicious of the programs--that there might be a new way to "speed up." Generally good results have been shown by the job enrichment programs, however (92).

#### Worker's Background and Job Satisfaction

There has been conflicting evidence regarding the relationship between a worker's socialization (urban or rural) and his job satisfaction. Sheppard (93) found, in his study of urban automobile plants and rural oil refineries, both urban and rural workers demonstrated increased satisfaction as job complexity and variety increased. In a study of 100 semi-skilled workers, Schuler (94) held task complexity constant and related socialization (urban or rural) to productivity, satisfaction, or the resistance to dissatisfaction in a highly repetitive task situation. He found that workers whose areas of socialization were the reverse of their present work environment were more satisfied than workers whose socialization environment matched their work environment.

Fossum (95) hypothesized that differences in satisfaction and productivity would be found in a work situation in which employees who have been socialized in both rural and urban environments were performing the same task. He found that subjects with a rural socialization tended to be more satisfied than those with an urban socialization. He concluded

that rural workers might have a firmer belief in the Protestant ethic, and accept monotonous, unchallenging work because it's seen as necessary to meet the goals of the organization.

Wild and Kempner (96) produced conflicting evidence when they used regression analysis to examine the relationship of job attitudes of 3,543 female manual workers with the population characteristics of ten communities. The results suggested that workers from urban communities were better disposed to accepting rationalized and paced work than those from rural areas. Results also indicated that increasing population size and density were clearly associated with increasing satisfaction with the self-actualized aspects of the job, with working conditions, and with the extent of the worker's ability to exercise some control of work method. They contended that a relationship between population characteristics and job attitudes exists, and in particular, attitudes toward the self-actualized qualities of the job. Wild and Kempner (96) also concluded that people from rural backgrounds had a higher satisfaction with pay.

Katzell et al. (97) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and performance of urban and rural workers. They concluded that differences in productivity may be related to differences in needs and expectations of employees in urban or rural areas. A rural employee may be more likely to expect productive behavior to lead to satisfaction of his particular needs of pay, status, and security than an urban worker.

Size of organization, age, marital status, sex, length of employment, educational level, prior job, and childhood community size have been related to job satisfaction. Work values also may have an effect of a worker's job satisfaction. These variables were included in the design of this study.

Because of the possible differences in work values between white and blue collar workers, this study was limited to blue collar workers. In addition, since the large majority of foodservice workers are women and because of the differing cultural expectations regarding work for men and women, men were not included in this study.

## METHODOLOGY

### Research Sites

#### Description of Hospitals

Six large (over 240 beds) short-term general hospitals located in urban areas in Kansas and Nebraska were included in the study. Variables other than organizational size were controlled to the extent possible. Large hospitals were selected for this study to provide a comparison with the data from Shaw's (8) study of small hospitals. The two key variables considered were bed size and size of city in which the hospital was located. None of the hospitals were unionized; all the hospitals managed their own foodservices. The bed size ranged from 244 to 886. Community population ranged from 167,972 to 1,253,916. Table 1 compares the hospitals in this study with those in Shaw's study.

#### Definition of Urban Area

All six participating hospitals were located in a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) (98). As defined by the United States Census Bureau, a SMSA is an urban area which is an integrated economic and social unit with a large population nucleus containing at least one central city with 50,000 or more inhabitants or two or more cities having contiguous boundaries and a combined population of at least 50,000. The county in which the city is located and any other adjacent county also is included in the SMSA. Data concerning population statistics were obtained from the 1970 United States Census (99).

Table 1: Description of hospitals

hospital <sup>1</sup>	community population	number of beds	affiliation	number of foodservice employees	
				full-time	part-time <sup>2</sup>
1	16,133	190	religious	38	
2	15,396	125	community	30	
3	7,221	132	religious	22	
4	14,127	100	community	19	
5	15,396	120	religious	25	
6	168,213	200	religious	60	
7	276,554	102	private	20	
8	507,087	100	community	25	
9	507,087	145	community	30	
10	1,253,916	296	religious	65	20
11	167,972	346	religious	40	55
12	167,972	244	community	41	21
13	389,352	886	religious	140	35
14	389,352	440	religious	70	40
15	389,352	710	religious	103	30

<sup>1</sup>Hospitals 1-9, from Shaw's (8) study, 10-15 from this study.

<sup>2</sup>Data concerning part-time personnel not available from Shaw's study.

### Initial Contact

After tentatively selecting the hospitals, the investigator telephoned the foodservice administrator in each institution to explain the procedures and purpose of the study. A sample questionnaire and additional information about the study were sent to each hospital (Appendixes A and B). A thirty minute time period was requested at each hospital to present the questionnaire in a group setting to as many female non-supervisory personnel as possible.

Six of nine hospitals contacted agreed to participate in the study, and a time and date were selected via a second phone call. A letter confirming the date and time of the scheduled administration of the questionnaire was sent to the foodservice administrator at each institution (Appendix B).

### Instrument Development

Part I of the research instrument (Appendix A) measured work values and was adapted from the study of occupational values reported by Kilpatrick et al. (9). The major objectives of Kilpatrick and his coworkers were the following: to learn what image people had of the federal government as an employer, to learn what image people had of the federal government employee, and to learn what occupational values were of concern to people and what occupational values were of basic importance. Over 5,000 interviews were conducted with members of the general working force, federal employees, college and high school students, teachers, scientists, engineers, and business executives.

Kilpatrick's (9) study attempted to assess the pattern or relative importance of occupational values among various occupational groups.



Intrinsic and extrinsic values and general work factors were covered in the instrument. The Kilpatrick occupational value scale consisted of thirty statements (Table 2). Kilpatrick's original questionnaire included a non-verbal ten-point agree-disagree scale. For this research, as in Shaw's (8) study, a four-point agree-disagree scale was used. A neutral point was eliminated to force reactions of participants. The revised version was used in Part I of this study so that direct comparisons with Shaw's data could be made.

Part II of the instrument was the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith et al. (10). The purpose of their study was to validate and develop norms for a specific measure of job satisfaction. The JDI attempts to measure job satisfaction in relation to five components, promotion, pay, supervision, the work itself, and co-workers. The JDI was the result of extensive research. Responses of 952 people in seven different organizations were used to develop the JDI.

The instrument consists of seventy-two items, nine items each in the pay and promotion categories and eighteen items each in the categories of supervision, co-workers, and work. The items in each component are descriptive adjectives. The respondent is asked to write "yes" next to an item (or adjective) which described perceptions related to pay (promotion, work, etc.) and "no" for an item which did not. A question mark "?" would mean the respondent could not decide.

In scoring, items are designated as positive or negative indicators of job satisfaction. The scoring and positive (+) and negative (-) items are included in Table 3. The higher the score, the higher the job satisfaction. The maximum score is 54 for the supervision, co-workers, and work components; 27, for pay and promotion. The pay and promotion

Table 2: Value statements

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

Table 2: (cont.)

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

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Table 3: JDI items with positive and negative items and scoring

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

Table 3: (cont.)

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

Scoring: + = positive indicator  
 - = negative indicator

yes to a positive indicator = 3  
 no to a negative indicator = 3  
 yes to a negative indicator = 0  
 no to a positive indicator = 0  
 question mark to any response = 1

scores are sometimes doubled to provide comparisons with the other three components. Smith et al. (10) indicated an advantage of the JDI is that the verbal level of the items is quite low and does not require the respondent to understand complicated abstractions. The reliability or internal consistency of the JDI was determined to be between .74 and .79 depending upon the scoring method employed (10).

Thirteen biographical items also were included in the questionnaire: basis of employment (full-time or part-time), length of employment in job, prior job, interruption in work record, area of work, marital status, and age. These questions were asked both for descriptive purposes and to study relationships between demographic variables and value statements and job satisfaction scores. As in Shaw's (8) study, males were excluded from the sample to avoid sex differences in responses because of differing cultural expectations for males and females concerning work.

#### Instrument Administration

About thirty minutes prior to the time scheduled to present the questionnaires, the investigator met with the foodservice director to answer questions. The foodservice director introduced the investigator to the employees in most instances and asked them to cooperate.

Because of the size of the organizations, it was not possible to administer the questionnaire to all the employees in one group except in one case. At four hospitals the investigator administered the questionnaire in small groups of six or seven. Because of the lack of time and facilities, at one hospital the investigator presented the instrument to the employees as a group; the employees completed them during a break and dropped them into a sealed box which the investigator picked up later.

The instrument, an envelope, and pencil were distributed to the employees and a verbal and written explanation were given (Appendix C). The participants were urged to give candid responses. They were assured that their supervisors would not see their answers since all information was confidential. The respondents were instructed to seal their questionnaires in an envelope and give them directly to the investigator or place in a sealed box as described above. In the introductory remarks, a computer data card and printout were shown to explain how the data would be tabulated. Questions about the questionnaire were encouraged.

#### Data Analysis

A factor analysis of Shaw's (8) data yielded nine scales from the value statements. The reliability of her scales and the scales used in Kilpatrick's (8) and Robinson's (88) studies were analyzed using coefficient alpha to determine the reliability of the scales derived from the factor analysis. Seven factors described in Shaw's study had values over .40, the minimum acceptable level according to Nunnally (100). Only four of Kilpatrick's nine classifications and three of Robinson's six categories produced a coefficient alpha value above .40. Since factors from Shaw's data were indicated to be more reliable, these scales were used for the analyses in this study (Table 4). Data concerning factor loadings is included in Appendix D. Only eight of the nine factors were used in this study, since the ninth factor contained only one value statement item (item 5). The eight factors were:

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

Work is seen as a way to help other people, develop abilities, make friends, build character, gain respect of family and friends, and a way of being of service to God.

Table 4: Factors identified by Shaw (8) from analysis of value statements

factors	item number
I. overall valuing of work	3,4,6,8,12,17,25,26,27
II. drive--ambition	10,14,19,20,23
III. knowing the right people	2,7,27
IV. work as central life interest	4,11,22,27,29
V. work as necessary evil	9,18,23,24
VI. ego-satisfaction	1,28,30
VII. individualism	15,16,29
VIII. social idealism	13,15,20,21
IX. self-concept	5

II. Drive--ambition (five items).

Work is seen as a means of achievement. Getting to the top, directing others, making money, and having the material things friends and neighbors have are components of drive and ambition.

III. Knowing the right people (three items).

Knowing the right people and luck are seen as means to success in an organization.

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

Work is seen as a way to achieve personal objectives in life; for example, serving God.

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

Work is seen as an instrumentality to achieve non-work goals.

VI. Ego satisfaction (three items).

Work is viewed as a means for achieving intrinsic satisfaction, doing a better job, and getting recognition.

VII. Individualism (three items).

The emphasis is on using friends to get ahead and the importance of opportunities in a job.



VIII. Social idealism (four items).

Work is viewed as a means of helping others, but also as an individual matter.

The means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions were obtained for each demographic variable and for value statement responses. A t-test (101) was conducted to compare mean scores on the thirty value statements and the eight factors for foodservice workers in Shaw's study of small hospitals (under 200 beds) with those from the larger hospitals in this study (over 240 beds).

One-way analyses of variance (101) were computed to compare means of value statement scores and factor scores for groups categorized by age, marital status, or size of childhood community. The Scheffe' test was computed to identify which means among the groups, if any, differed significantly (101,102).

The hospitals also were grouped as small (100-150 beds), medium (190-350 beds), or large (440-900 beds) using Shaw's data and the data from this study. Table 5 shows the division of hospitals into these three classifications. One-way analyses of variance and Scheffe' tests were used for comparing the value statement scores and factor scores among employees from the three size categories of hospitals.

Least squares analyses of variance (103) were used for comparing JDI component scores (pay, promotion, etc.) among the groups defined by marital status, age, size of childhood community, education, length of employment, and prior job. Least squares analyses also were used to examine the five JDI component scores between groups scoring high and low on factor scores derived from value statements and two biographical groupings, age and childhood community. For each factor score, the overall

Table 5: Combined groupings of hospitals, including Shaw's (8) hospitals, by small, medium, and large

hospital <sup>1</sup>	bed size	total respondents
small <sup>2</sup>		
8	100	
4	100	
7	102	
5	120	
2	125	
3	132	
9	145	97
medium <sup>3</sup>		
1	190	
6	200	
12	244	
10	296	
11	346	105
large <sup>4</sup>		
15	440	
14	710	
13	886	77

<sup>1</sup>Hospitals 1-9 are from Shaw's study, 10-15 are from this study.

<sup>2</sup>Small hospitals designated as 100-150 beds.

<sup>3</sup>Medium hospitals designated as 190-350 beds.

<sup>4</sup>Large hospitals designated as 440-900 beds.

group mean was used to divide the scores into high and low categories. Only the main effects of the variables were computed in all the least squares analyses because the small sample size of the subgroups precluded examination of interactions among variables.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Description of the Sample

One hundred and forty-nine female foodservice workers in the six hospitals completed the two-part instrument. Part I was usable for the entire sample although N varies on individual items because all participants did not respond to all value statements. Sixteen questionnaires were excluded from the analysis of Part II of the instrument, the Job Descriptive Index, because of improper completion.

A large number of the sample (82.9 per cent) worked full-time and about half were married (Table 6). Over 50 per cent were thirty-one years or older. Characteristics of the sample were similar to those in Shaw's (8) study; for example, in both groups over half had been out of the work force at some time, usually to raise a family. Also, both groups tended to be long-term residents in the town or city in which they currently lived. A major difference in the two samples was the size of childhood community. The largest group in this study grew up in a big city (over 150,000); whereas the majority of Shaw's group grew up in a small city or rural community.

The two samples had a similar pattern of educational background with most workers having attended high school. Most workers had been employed either six months to a year or more than three years. Almost half of this sample had a prior job related to foodservice work. Over 75 per cent of the workers worked in the kitchen area and the remainder in service areas.

Table 6: Characteristics of study sample

characteristic	large hospital sample (N = 149)		small hospital sample (Shaw, 8) <sup>1</sup> (N = 130)	
	N	%	N	%
marital status				
married	79	53.4		
not married	69	46.6		
basis of employment				
full-time	121	82.9	108	83.4
part-time	25	17.1	20	15.6
age (yr)				
15-18	9	6.0	10	7.7
19-24	31	20.8	27	20.8
25-30	23	15.4	11	8.5
31-50	41	27.5	43	33.1
51 or more	45	30.2	39	30.0
length of residence in current location				
0-4 yr	19	12.8	23	17.8
5-10	29	19.6	15	11.6
11 or more	100	67.6	91	70.5
childhood community				
big city (over 150,000)	52	34.9	28	21.7
medium city (25,000-150,000)	22	14.8	8	6.2
small city (2,500-25,000)	30	20.1	46	35.7
rural community (less than 2,500)	44	29.5	47	36.4
education				
grade school	20	13.4	29	22.3
high school	96	64.4	80	61.5
one or more years of college	28	18.8	15	11.5
college graduate	5	3.4	6	4.6
religious affiliation				
Catholic	40	27.2	34	26.8
Judaism	1	0.7	2	1.6
Protestant	92	62.6	80	63.0
other	14	9.5	11	8.7

<sup>1</sup>Data on marital status was not included in Shaw's (8) study.

Table 6: (cont.)

characteristic	large hospital sample (N = 149)		small hospital sample (Shaw, 8) (N = 130)	
	N	%	N	%
church attendance				
3-4 times a month	54	36.7	49	38.0
sometimes	62	42.2	56	43.4
special occasions	9	6.1	10	7.8
never	22	15.0	14	10.9
length of employment in job				
6 months or less	24	16.1	18	13.8
6 months to 3 years	53	35.6	53	40.8
3-5 years	13	8.7	11	8.5
more than 5 years	59	39.6	48	36.9
prior job				
foodservice related	72	48.6	67	52.8
other	48	32.4	43	33.9
none	28	18.9	17	13.4
out of work force				
no	59	41.5	58	47.9
yes, to attend school	15	10.6	4	3.3
yes, to raise a family	54	38.0	43	35.5
yes, other reasons	14	9.9	16	13.2
length out of work force				
6 months or less	16	19.0	7	11.5
6 months to 1 year	14	16.7	11	18.0
1-3 years	10	11.9	9	14.8
more than 3 years	44	52.4	34	55.7
area of work				
kitchen	115	77.7	82	63.6
cafeteria	23	15.5	18	14.0
floors	10	6.8	4	3.1

## Analysis of Part I. Value Statements and Factor Scores

### Comparison of Data from Large and Small Hospitals

The value statements and factor scores from this study of large hospitals (over 240 beds) and Shaw's (8) study of small hospitals (under 200 beds) were compared using t-tests (Table 7). No significant differences were reflected in analyses of factor scores. However, the mean score on Factor II, drive and ambition, tended to be higher for the large hospital group ( $P=.067$ ), although data were inconclusive. Employees in the larger institutions placed more emphasis on acquisitiveness and on control of one's situation.

A few significant differences were found in the item analyses. The mean score for the value statement, importance of having what friends have (item 10), was significantly higher in this study than in Shaw's study, indicating more agreement with the statement. This could indicate that workers in larger organizations placed a higher value on material objects. The mean score for the value statement that success is a matter of hard work (item 14) also was significantly higher for the sample from larger hospitals possibly implying that it's harder to get ahead in a larger, more complex organization.

The mean scores for the value statement that after making enough money to live on, more money isn't important (item 21) was significantly higher in Shaw's (8) study. This again might indicate that workers in larger organizations tended to value material items higher since they disagreed slightly with this statement and those in small institutions were more neutral.

Table 7: Comparison of mean scores on value statements and factors between large and small hospitals

factor number	factor <sup>1</sup>	small hospital <sup>2</sup> mean s.d.	large hospital <sup>3</sup> mean s.d.	t-value	P
I.	overall valuing of work	26.60 ±3.63	27.12 ±2.60	1.37	.173
II.	drive--ambition	12.85 ±2.23	13.30 ±1.70	1.84	.067
III.	knowing the right people	6.03 ±1.42	6.14 ±1.36	.64	.526
IV.	work as central life interest	13.68 ±2.09	13.68 ±1.85	.02	.987
V.	work as necessary evil	10.18 ±1.77	9.87 ±1.81	1.47	.143
VI.	ego satisfaction	8.38 ±1.34	8.52 ±1.20	.89	.376
VII.	individualism	6.98 ±1.45	6.85 ±1.46	.78	.439
VIII.	social idealism	9.22 ±1.57	8.95 ±1.44	1.47	.143

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

<sup>2</sup>Hospitals from Shaw's (8) study (less than 200 beds); N varies from 118 to 130.

<sup>3</sup>Hospitals from this study (more than 240 beds); N varies from 140 to 147.



Table 7: (cont.)

item number	item	small hospital mean s.d.	large hospital mean s.d.	t-value	P
Factor I					
3	opportunity to make friends	2.90 ±.59	2.99 ±.61	1.21	.225
4	service to God	2.83 ±.70	2.91 ±.70	.96	.338
6	satisfaction in helping others	2.98 ±.76	2.99 ±.68	.02	.987
8	carry out own ideas without interference	2.54 ±.68	2.60 ±.65	.76	.448
12	do your best	3.25 ±.58	3.32 ±.52	1.06	.291
17	increased respect of peers	2.76 ±.75	2.78 ±.75	.26	.796
25	important to see results of work	3.17 ±.55	3.30 ±.52	2.03	.043
26	develop own special abilities	3.09 ±.60	3.28 ±.50	2.79	.006
27	work builds character	3.13 ±.57	3.11 ±.51	.32	.747
Factor II					
10	family to have what friends have	2.52 ±.74	2.71 ±.65	2.21	.028
14	success is hard work	2.73 ±.75	2.97 ±.67	2.77	.006
19	satisfying to direct others	2.33 ±.60	2.48 ±.65	1.90	.059
20	chance to get to the top	2.82 ±.67	2.85 ±.62	.34	.732

Table 7: (cont.)

item number	item	small hospital mean s.d.	large hospital mean s.d.	t-value	P
23	not care about making money	2.46 ±.80	2.32 ±.77	1.46	.147
Factor III					
2	success is luck	1.94 ±.73	1.90 ±.73	.56	.575
7	success is knowing the right people	2.18 ±.77	2.29 ±.74	1.20	.231
27	work builds character	3.13 ±.57	3.11 ±.51	.32	.747
Factor IV					
4	service to God	2.83 ±.70	2.91 ±.70	.96	.338
11	forget personal problems	2.69 ±.69	2.81 ±.75	1.42	.158
22	succeed even if it interferes	2.57 ±.78	2.40 ±.77	1.81	.072
27	work builds character	3.13 ±.57	3.11 ±.51	.32	.747
29	opportunity more important than security	2.49 ±.76	2.51 ±.76	.16	.87
Factor V					
9	way to make a living	2.26 ±.79	2.24 ±.76	.29	.77
18	satisfying to solve hard problems	2.43 ±.71	2.55 ±.65	1.47	.142
23	not care about making money	2.46 ±.80	2.32 ±.77	1.46	.147

Table 7: (cont.)

item number	item	small hospital mean s.d.	large hospital mean s.d.	t-value	P
24	forget work when home	2.90 ±.61	2.86 ±.67	.47	.641
Factor VI					
1	expect work to be fun	2.74 ±.59	2.73 ±.65	.20	.845
28	recognition is important	3.06 ±.60	3.16 ±.57	1.49	.137
30	do better than next person	2.62 ±.72	2.68 ±.65	.69	.492
Factor VII					
15	work hard--own business	2.38 ±.65	2.32 ±.77	.74	.462
16	use friends to get ahead	2.10 ±.73	2.01 ±.77	1.04	.298
29	opportunity more important than security	2.49 ±.76	2.51 ±.76	.16	.870
Factor VIII					
13	worthwhile to society	2.45 ±.66	2.47 ±.69	.20	.843
15	work hard--own business	2.38 ±.65	2.32 ±.77	.74	.462
20	chance to get to the top	2.82 ±.67	2.85 ±.62	.34	.732
21	extra money not important	2.19 ±.69	1.98 ±.67	2.53	.012
Factor IX					
5	hard to see others passing	2.56 ±.70	2.61 ±.70	.56	.577

The mean scores for items 25 and 26, it's important to see the results of work and it's important to develop a person's own special abilities, were significantly higher for the larger organization group. Possibly in larger organizations, individual efforts aren't noticed or rewarded as much as in smaller organizations.

As described in the methods section, data also were analyzed from the perspective of three size groupings because of the widely divergent institutional sizes among the fifteen hospitals in the combined samples. One-way analyses of variance of factor and item scores were computed to compare means of the respondents from small (100-150 beds), medium (190-350 beds), and large (440-900 beds) hospitals. A few significant differences were found (Appendix E, Table 12).

The mean scores on item 1, expect work to be fun, showed a significant difference between the three groups. The Scheffe' test identified a significant difference between the groups from large and medium-sized hospitals. The larger hospital employees indicated a significantly lower agreement with the statement, expect work to be fun, than medium hospitals. This could indicate that employees in larger organizations were more disillusioned with their work or that the social environment was less relaxed in the large institutions.

The mean scores on item 5, hard to see others passing you up, were significantly different. The Scheffe' test again showed a significant difference between respondents from large and medium hospitals. Those in the large organizations indicated more agreement than those in medium-sized institutions, possibly implying that employees of larger institutions have a higher need to "get ahead."

Item 11, work is important to help you forget about personal problems, showed a significant difference among mean scores. Small hospital employees indicated significantly more disagreement with the statement than those in medium hospitals. Perhaps employees in smaller organizations value work more for intrinsic satisfaction than just as a job to help one forget personal problems.

#### Relationship of Demographic Variables to Factor Scores and Value Statements

To gain insight into findings from the large hospitals surveyed in this research (240 beds and larger), data also were studied in relation to several demographic variables. One-way analyses of variance were computed for factor scores and value statements for the demographic variables of marital status, size of childhood community, and age. The youngest age group (15-18 years) was omitted because of the small size of the group (N=9). A summary of the F-ratios is included in Appendix E, Table 13. Data for significant ( $P \leq .05$ ) findings are shown in Table 8.

##### I. Overall valuing of work and its benefits.

Significant differences were found among Factor I scores and the demographic groups defined by childhood community size and marital status. Although the Scheffe' test did not indicate significant differences between unmarried and married employees, married women tended to have a lower mean factor score than unmarried women, possibly indicating that married women valued work less for its intrinsic benefits than for money and other extrinsic aspects. Regarding childhood community size, respondents from big cities and medium cities had a higher mean factor score than those from small cities and rural communities. Perhaps employees from larger cities defined themselves more strongly in terms of their work.

Table 8: Analyses of variance of effects of marital status, childhood community, and age on factor scales and value statements<sup>1</sup>

factor	variable	N	mean and std. dev. <sup>2</sup>	P
<u>I. Overall valuing of work</u>				
	marital status			
	married	79	26.75 ± 2.46	
	unmarried	69	27.57 ± 2.72	.051
	childhood community			
	big city	52	27.61 ± 2.42	
	medium city	22	27.95 ± 2.79	
	small city	30	27.12 ± 2.64	
	rural community	44	26.23 ± 2.44	.022
<u>II. Drive--ambition</u>				
	age			
	19-24	31	13.32 ± 1.64	
	25-30	23	13.15 ± 1.36	
	31-50	41	14.10 ± 1.84 <sup>3</sup>	
	over 51	45	12.79 ± 1.42 <sup>3</sup>	.003
<u>IV. Work as a central life interest</u>				
	age			
	19-24	31	13.00 ± 2.14	
	25-30	23	13.39 ± 1.50	
	31-50	41	14.04 ± 2.14	
	over 51	45	14.14 ± 1.30	.027
<u>VIII. Social idealism</u>				
	childhood community			
	big city	52	9.33 ± 1.45 <sup>3</sup>	
	medium city	22	8.89 ± 1.53 <sup>3</sup>	
	small city	30	8.37 ± 1.27 <sup>3</sup>	
	rural community	44	8.92 ± 1.39	.033

<sup>1</sup>Data presented for significant findings only.

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

<sup>3</sup>Lines between means indicate significant differences at .05 level using the Scheffe' test for comparison of differences among means.

Table 8: (cont.)

item	variable	N	mean and std. dev.	P
I. <u>Overall valuing of work</u>				
item 3	marital status			
	married	77	2.88 ± 0.63	.029
	unmarried	67	3.10 ± 0.58*	
item 6	childhood community			
	big city	52	3.13 ± 0.63	.015
	medium city	20	3.15 ± 0.74	
	small city	28	3.00 ± 0.67	
	rural community	42	2.71 ± 0.67	
item 8	age			
	19-24	31	2.74 ± 0.63	.038
	25-30	23	2.65 ± 0.71	
	31-50	39	2.72 ± 0.60	
	51 or more	41	2.37 ± 0.62	
item 17	childhood community			
	big city	51	2.67 ± 0.71	.050
	medium city	21	3.00 ± 0.84	
	small city	29	3.03 ± 0.78	
	rural community	42	2.64 ± 0.69	
item 25	age			
	19-24	31	3.58 ± 0.50	.002
	25-30	23	3.26 ± 0.45*	
	31-50	40	3.27 ± 0.64*	
	51 or more	43	3.11 ± 0.27	
item 26	age			
	19-24	31	3.55 ± 0.51*	.001
	25-30	23	3.17 ± 0.49*	
	31-50	40	3.27 ± 0.51*	
	over 51	43	3.09 ± 0.37	
II. <u>Drive--ambition</u>				
item 14	age			
	19-24	31	3.00 ± 0.73	.002
	25-30	23	2.83 ± 0.58	
	31-50	41	3.27 ± 0.55*	
	over 51	43	2.77 ± 0.57*	

Table 8: (cont.)

item	variable	N	mean and std. dev.	P
item 23	age			
	19-24	31	2.03 ± 0.84	
	25-30	22	2.45 ± 0.80	
	31-50	40	2.52 ± 0.78	
	over 51	43	2.37 ± 0.58	.042
IV. <u>Work as a central life interest</u>				
item 11	age			
	19-24	31	2.39 ± 0.80	.000
	25-30	23	2.70 ± 0.76*	
	31-50	40	3.10 ± 0.71*	
	over 51	42	3.02 ± 0.52	
V. <u>Work as necessary evil</u>				
item 23	age			
	19-24	31	2.03 ± 0.84	
	25-30	22	2.45 ± 0.80	
	31-50	40	2.52 ± 0.78	
	over 51	43	2.37 ± 0.58	.042
VI. <u>Ego satisfaction</u>				
item 30	childhood community			
	big city	50	2.56 ± 0.67	.001
	medium city	22	2.31 ± 0.72	
	small city	27	3.00 ± 0.48	
	rural community	42	2.79 ± 0.56	
VII. <u>Individualism</u>				
item 15	childhood community			
	big city	52	2.56 ± 0.78	.029
	medium city	22	2.14 ± 0.71	
	small city	30	2.10 ± 0.76	
	rural community	43	2.28 ± 0.73	
VIII. <u>Social idealism</u>				
item 15	childhood community			
	big city	52	2.56 ± 0.78	.029
	medium city	22	2.14 ± 0.71	
	small city	30	2.10 ± 0.76	
	rural community	43	2.28 ± 0.73	



Item 3, opportunity to make friends, differed significantly with marital status. The Scheffe' test showed that the item mean scores varied significantly. The unmarried employees agreed more with the statement than married employees. Again, married employees may place a higher value on work as an instrumentality for money and other extrinsic benefits than unmarried employees. Also, apparently the unmarried women looked more to the work place for social relationships.

The mean score for item 6, satisfaction in helping others, varied significantly by the worker's childhood community size. Although there were no significant differences among the groups, the employees from small cities and rural communities tended to have lower agreement with the statement. This finding could imply that although rural people have a reputation for helping neighbors, they do not see this as an aspect of work to the same degree as urban workers.

Carrying out ideas without interference, item 8, varied significantly among age groups. Although the Scheffe' test did not indicate significant differences among groups, the three youngest groups all indicated higher agreement scores than the over fifty-one year old group. Younger workers may be indicating a higher need for self-actualization in their work as suggested at the Canadian conference on the work ethic discussed earlier (41).

The mean score for item 17, increased respect of peers, varied significantly among respondents in relation to childhood community size. Although there were no significant differences among the groups, employees from medium cities and small cities agreed slightly with the statement to a greater extent than employees from rural or big cities. This may

indicate that workers from small and medium cities have a higher need to gain respect of their friends by holding a job.

From analysis of item 25, important to see the results of work, a significant difference was found among the four age groups. The oldest age group had a significantly lower mean score than the youngest age group. The younger workers evidenced more agreement with the importance of seeing the end product of their work, again implying that younger workers are expecting work to satisfy higher level needs.

Item 26, develop own special abilities, was significantly different on the basis of age. Both the twenty-five to thirty and over fifty-one years age groups had significantly lower agreement scores than did the youngest (nineteen to twenty-four) age group. This concurs with the general pattern of results that younger workers are expecting work to be more than a job or an instrumentality for food and shelter. This finding is similar to Sheppard's (42) results which showed that 69 per cent of a group under thirty believed a job should offer an opportunity to develop individual abilities.

## II. Drive--ambition.

There were significant differences in mean scores for Factor II among age groups. The oldest group had a significantly lower mean factor score than did the thirty-one to fifty year old group. Perhaps those in the oldest group were more settled in their jobs and had found their place in life, similar to Anderson and Haag's (75) findings among older hospital workers.

Item 14, success is hard work, also varied significantly in relation to age. Thirty-one to fifty year old workers agreed significantly more than workers fifty-one or older. Perhaps the workers fifty-one and older

were resigned to their present job level and were satisfied with it, again agreeing with findings of Anderson and Haag (75).

Age groups differed on item 23 as well, related to concern about money. Although significant differences were not found among groups, all three older aged groups disagreed less with the statement than the younger group. The younger group may see money as an instrumentality for other things, such as a means for achievement and success and acquiring material goods.

Factor III. Knowing the right people.

No significant differences were found in either the Factor III scores or items comprising this scale among groups defined by marital status, size of childhood community, or age. However, Shaw's (8) data did show significant differences among age groups on this factor. The youngest group in her study (15-18 years) agreed less than older groups that who you know on the job is important. The younger group was very small and thus was omitted from the analysis of this study.

Factor IV. Work as a central life interest.

On Factor IV, age groups had significantly different scores. Although significant differences were not found among the age groups, the two younger groups (nineteen to twenty-four and twenty-five to thirty) tended to agree less than the two older age groups, possibly implying that they look to other aspects of their lives for activities of interest rather than to work.

Using work to forget personal problems, item 11, varied significantly with the age of the respondent. Both the two oldest groups had significantly higher agreement with the item than the youngest age group.

Perhaps, the younger workers believed work should provide more opportunities other than just a means to forget personal problems.

Factor V. Work as a necessary evil.

Only item 23, not caring about money indicated a significant difference as mentioned above in the discussion of Factor II.

Factor VI. Ego satisfaction.

The mean scores on item 30, it's important to do better than the next person, differed significantly in relation to childhood community size. Respondents from small cities agreed significantly more than those from medium cities. Perhaps these workers felt a stronger need to see the end-product of their work because of a stronger Protestant ethic, which is similar to Fossum's (95) findings among rural workers.

Factor VII. Individualism.

There was a significant difference in relation to childhood community size and item 15, working hard is one's own business. Although significant differences were not shown among groups, respondents from big cities agreed most with the statement. Perhaps employees from large cities have not had as close relationships with their work groups as have employees from smaller cities.

Factor VIII. Social idealism.

The mean factor scores for Factor VIII also were significantly different among childhood community size groups. Employees from big cities had a significantly higher factor score than did workers from small cities. Perhaps workers from big cities were more adjusted to their lot in life and were not looking for work to provide opportunities. There was a significant difference between item 15, working hard is one's own business, and childhood community size, as indicated in the Factor VII discussion.

## Analysis of Part II. Job Descriptive Index

Least squares analyses were computed to compare the five JDI components of pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and work with the demographic variables of marital status, age, childhood community, education, employment, and prior job. Findings are shown in Table 9.

### Relationships between Demographic Variables and JDI Scores

Work. Satisfaction with work varied significantly among age groups. The nineteen to twenty-four year old group and twenty-five to thirty year old group scored lower on satisfaction relating to work than the thirty-one to fifty and over fifty-one group. This could imply that workers are increasingly demanding work that is intrinsically satisfying, as underscored by Campbell's (41) reports of the Canadian conference on the work ethic. These results are compatible with Gadel's (72) study in which younger women placed more importance on interesting jobs than older women.

Satisfaction with work also varied significantly with length of employment. Workers employed less than six months and over three years were more satisfied than workers employed from six months to three years. This could indicate that after the initial glow of a new job has worn off, workers become dissatisfied. After staying three years, workers may get used to the job and hence, develop satisfaction. These results concur with Herzberg's (59) hypothesis that job satisfaction increases as individuals continue to work.

Supervision. Satisfaction with supervision varied significantly with length of employment. Employees who had worked less than six months or over three years were more satisfied than workers employed from six months to three years. New workers were the most satisfied, perhaps because of

Table 9: Multivariate analyses of effects of marital status, age, childhood community size, education, length of employment, and prior job on JDI component scores

variable	N	Work <sup>1</sup>		Supervision		Pay	
		mean and error	std.	F-value mean and error	std.	F-value mean and error	std. F-value
marital status	64	26.56 ± 1.88				12.78 ± 1.39	
unmarried	52	27.93 ± 1.69		.42		11.96 ± 1.25	.27
age	26	20.42 ± 2.49				12.00 ± 1.85	
19-24	21	23.02 ± 2.65				12.84 ± 1.97	
25-30	35	34.16 ± 2.09				11.20 ± 1.55	
31-50	34	31.39 ± 2.28		7.53***		13.44 ± 1.69	.53
over 51					1.75		
childhood community	40	29.12 ± 1.88				13.51 ± 1.39	
big city	16	23.16 ± 2.81				12.40 ± 2.09	
medium city	25	31.17 ± 2.21				11.95 ± 1.64	
small city	35	25.55 ± 2.20		2.78*		11.62 ± 1.63	.41
rural community					1.89		
education	15	28.62 ± 2.93				10.65 ± 2.18	
grade school	76	27.46 ± 1.40				10.72 ± 1.04	
high school	25	25.66 ± 2.34		0.35		15.73 ± 1.73	3.29*
1 or more years of college or degree					0.12		
length of employment	16	29.21 ± 2.86				14.52 ± 2.12	
less than 6 months	42	20.91 ± 1.79				9.15 ± 1.33	
6 months to 3 years	58	31.62 ± 1.78		12.25***		13.44 ± 1.32	4.66*
over 3 years					5.58**		
prior job	58	28.24 ± 1.61				12.46 ± 1.19	
foodservice related	35	28.42 ± 1.97				13.09 ± 1.46	
other	23	25.09 ± 2.46		0.91		11.56 ± 1.83	.28
none					0.00		

<sup>1</sup>Highest possible score for work, supervision, and co-workers = 54; highest possible score for pay and promotion = 27.

\*P ≤ .05      \*\*P ≤ .01      \*\*\*P ≤ .001

Table 9: (cont.)

variable	N	Promotion		Co-workers	
		mean and error	std. F-value	mean and error	std. F-value
marital status	64	11.92 ± 1.45		34.66 ± 2.55	
age	52	10.91 ± 1.30	.38	35.89 ± 2.29	.18
	26	8.42 ± 1.92		40.47 ± 3.38	
	21	12.82 ± 2.04		31.53 ± 3.61	
	35	11.06 ± 1.61		34.38 ± 2.84	
	34	13.35 ± 1.76	1.53	34.71 ± 3.10	1.33
childhood community	40	10.69 ± 1.45		36.30 ± 2.55	
	16	10.71 ± 2.17		31.35 ± 3.82	
	25	12.32 ± 1.70		37.09 ± 3.00	
	35	11.93 ± 1.69	.30	36.35 ± 2.99	.63
education	15	11.88 ± 2.26		38.24 ± 3.99	
	76	12.25 ± 1.08		38.93 ± 1.91	
	25	10.11 ± 1.80	.54	28.65 ± 3.18	4.03*
length of employment	16	15.49 ± 2.21		36.49 ± 3.89	
	42	8.76 ± 1.38		33.48 ± 2.44	
	58	9.98 ± 1.37	3.97*	35.85 ± 2.42	.43
prior job	58	12.11 ± 1.24		35.19 ± 2.19	
	35	12.38 ± 1.52		35.47 ± 2.68	
	23	9.74 ± 1.90	.92	35.15 ± 3.34	.00

\*P ≤ .05

the newness of the job, and then satisfaction with supervision dropped drastically among the six months to three years tenure group. The rise in satisfaction among those employees who had worked over three years might reflect positive relationships that may develop between superiors and subordinates over time.

Pay. Educational level and satisfaction with pay were significantly related. Employees with some college education or a degree were more satisfied with pay than employees with a grade or high school education. Perhaps workers with some college education saw the job only as a temporary job. Also employees with college educations are obviously overqualified. Perhaps taking jobs in nonsupervisory foodservice positions was a last resort. Also wage rates were not studied among respondents; possibly income was higher among those with more education.

Length of employment and satisfaction with pay varied significantly. Employees who had worked from six months to three years were least satisfied. Again this shows the general trend of high satisfaction for respondents who had worked less than six months and more than three years and low satisfaction of employees with six months to three years tenure.

Promotion. Satisfaction with promotion also varied significantly with length of employment. However, the pattern differed somewhat from the other analyses. Workers employed less than six months had the highest satisfaction with promotion; whereas employees who had worked from six months to three years and three years and over had scores substantially lower and fairly similar. Perhaps both groups had reached the highest job level they could reasonably expect and did not see chances for further advancement.



Co-workers. Satisfaction with co-workers and educational level varied significantly. Workers with some college education or a degree were less satisfied with their co-workers than those with grade or high school educations. Perhaps workers with some college education were less satisfied with co-workers because their co-workers may not have shared similar interests, knowledge, and/or aspirations.

#### Job Satisfaction and Comparison with Norms

Smith et al. (10) developed norms for the five JDI scales, based on a sample of nearly 2,000 male and over 600 female workers. They sampled twenty-one plants representing ten different companies and sixteen different communities. Sampling procedures used were intended to maximize the heterogeneity of the company and community characteristics represented in the sample. Mean JDI component scores for both Smith's et al. (10) sample of female workers and female workers in this study are included in Table 10.

Except for the JDI component, promotion, all the means were lower for the respondents in this study. Perhaps the promotion score was higher because there are fewer levels in a foodservice organization as compared to a manufacturing plant and as a result, the worker's expectations are lower and not a source of dissatisfaction.

Two components, pay and co-workers, varied significantly with the educational level of the worker. Vollmer and Kinney (74) reported a negative relationship between education and job satisfaction. This finding was replicated with the results pertaining to the JDI co-worker scores.

Table 10: Comparison of JDI component mean scores with data from Smith's et al. (10) study

JDI component	this study mean s.d.	Smith's (10) study <sup>1</sup> mean s.d.
work	29.16 ±12.41	35.74 ± 9.88
supervision	37.02 ±13.94	41.13 ±10.05
pay <sup>2</sup>	23.49 ±15.19	27.90 ±13.65
promotion <sup>2</sup>	21.89 ±15.72	17.77 ±13.88
co-workers	36.95 ±13.23	42.09 ±10.51

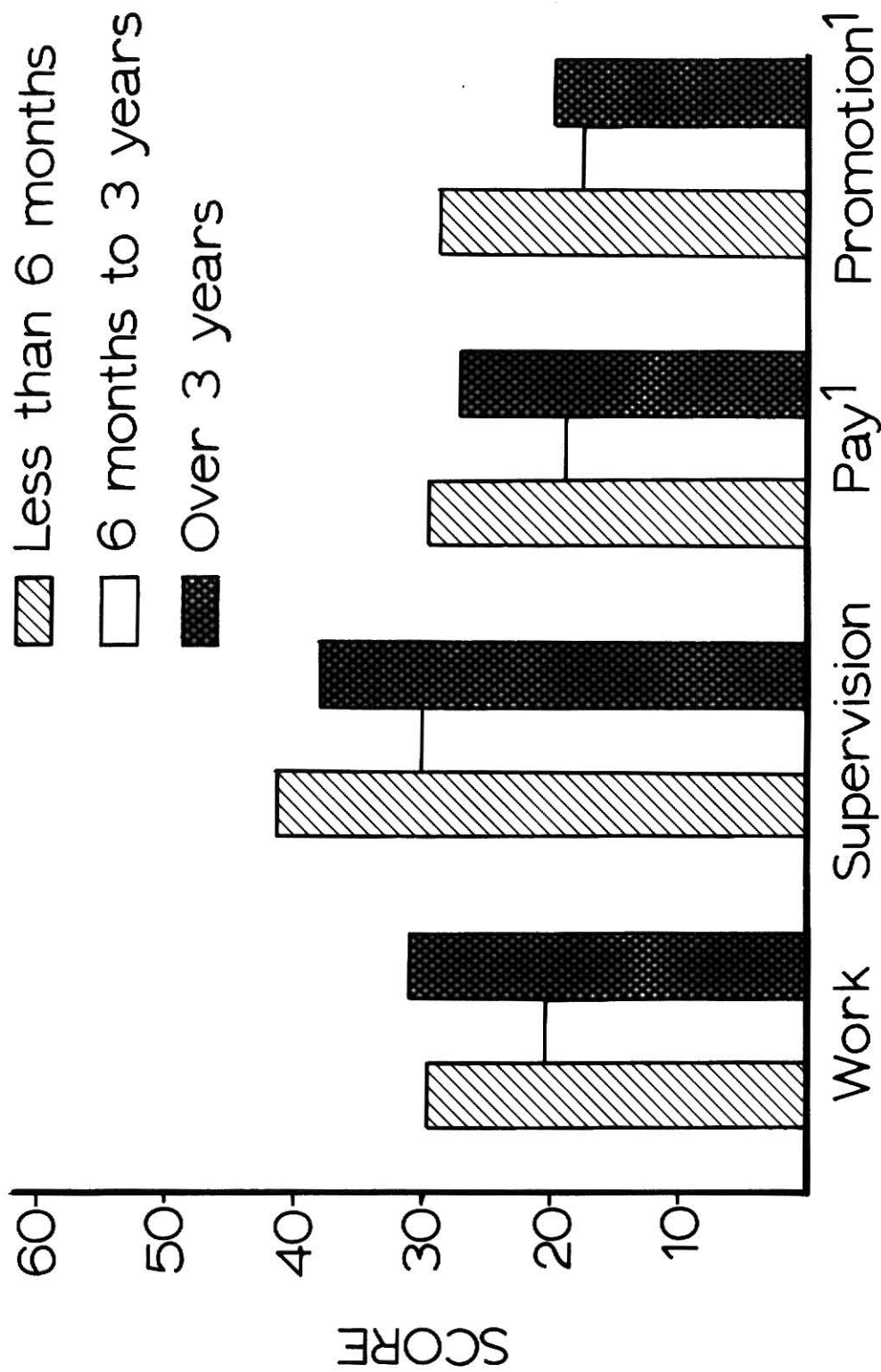
<sup>1</sup>Only Smith's et al. (10) female sample was compared.

<sup>2</sup>Scores were doubled to provide a better comparison with other components.

On four of five components, satisfaction was less for workers employed from six months to three years and more for those respondents employed less than six months or more than three years (Figure 1). This correlates with Cole's (77) findings that employees with over five years of service had favorable job attitudes while workers from two to five years tenure were dissatisfied. Perhaps satisfied workers stay with the organization longer. Knickrehm (104) defined a long-term foodservice employee as employed for six months. This research would indicate the extent of the turnover problem in the industry and the need for human resource concern and management if long-term is considered as only this short length of time.



Figure 1: Comparison of significant differences among JDI component scores and length of employment



<sup>1</sup>Scores doubled for comparison with other components.

### Relationships among Factor Scores and JDI Components

Least squares analyses were computed to compare the five JDI components of pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, and work between groups defined as high and low on the eight work value factors. Age and childhood community size also were considered in the analyses. Findings are given in Table 11.

Work. Satisfaction with work varied significantly with Factor IV, work as a central life interest. Workers with higher value scores indicated higher satisfaction with their work. Zytowski (5) contended that the more a person's occupation satisfied his/her needs, the more the person was satisfied. Employees who see their work as a central life interest probably see their work as satisfying their needs and thus show higher satisfaction with work.

Supervision. No significant differences between satisfaction with work and factor scores were found.

Pay. There was a significant difference between satisfaction with pay and Factor III, knowing the right people. Workers who had higher factor scores had lower satisfaction with pay. This finding might imply that employees who believed that knowing the right people is a factor in success were disillusioned about their jobs and less satisfied with pay.

Promotion. No significant differences were found among satisfaction with promotion and the eight factor scores.

Co-workers. Factor III, knowing the right people and satisfaction with co-workers were significantly related. Respondents with a higher belief in Factor III had lower satisfaction with their peers. Again, this might be a cynical attitude that success in a job depends on knowing the

Table 11: Multivariate analyses of effects of age, childhood community size, and factor scores on JDI component scores

variable		N	Work <sup>1</sup>		Supervision	
			std. mean and error	F-value	std. mean and error	F-value
age	19-24	31	19.32 ± 2.07		32.03 ± 2.79	
	25-30	22	24.55 ± 2.40		31.86 ± 3.23	
	31-50	35	32.95 ± 2.00		39.02 ± 2.69	
	over 51	35	33.07 ± 2.14	9.41***	38.32 ± 2.87	1.71
childhood community size	big city	44	28.03 ± 1.76		36.25 ± 2.37	
	medium city	18	24.81 ± 2.67		30.60 ± 3.59	
	small city	25	30.11 ± 2.23		38.68 ± 3.00	
	rural community	36	26.95 ± 2.01	0.89	35.71 ± 2.71	1.04
Factor I <sup>2</sup>	low	81	27.69 ± 1.33		34.69 ± 1.78	
	high	42	27.26 ± 1.88	0.03	35.93 ± 2.53	0.16
Factor II	low	65	26.99 ± 1.59		35.88 ± 2.14	
	high	58	27.95 ± 1.56	0.19	34.74 ± 2.10	0.15
Factor III	low	74	28.85 ± 1.38		36.60 ± 1.85	
	high	49	26.10 ± 1.69	1.74	34.02 ± 2.27	0.84
Factor IV	low	57	24.96 ± 1.70		34.27 ± 2.28	
	high	66	29.99 ± 1.45	5.24*	36.35 ± 1.96	0.50
Factor V	low	56	26.81 ± 1.53		34.83 ± 2.06	
	high	67	28.13 ± 1.56	0.39	35.79 ± 2.11	0.11
Factor VI	low	61	27.43 ± 1.55		35.88 ± 2.09	
	high	62	27.51 ± 1.53	0.00	34.74 ± 2.06	0.16
Factor VII	low	59	27.48 ± 1.54		35.97 ± 2.08	
	high	64	27.46 ± 1.71	0.00	34.65 ± 2.30	0.18
Factor VIII	low	47	27.59 ± 1.78		34.20 ± 2.40	
	high	76	27.36 ± 1.50	0.01	36.42 ± 2.02	0.48

<sup>1</sup>Highest possible score for work, supervision, and co-workers = 54; highest possible score for pay and promotion = 27.

<sup>2</sup>Factor scores divided into high and low group using mean as dividing point.

\*P ≤ .05      \*\*\*P ≤ .001

Table 11: (cont.)

variable		N	Pay		F-value	Promotion		F-value
			mean	std. error		mean	std. error	
age	19-24	31	11.53 ± 1.46			7.83 ± 1.55		
	25-30	22	11.06 ± 1.70			13.56 ± 1.79		
	31-50	35	9.73 ± 1.41			10.14 ± 1.49		
	over 51	35	10.89 ± 1.51		0.29	12.36 ± 1.60		2.38
childhood community size	big city	44	10.63 ± 1.24			10.69 ± 1.31		
	medium city	18	11.06 ± 1.88			10.85 ± 1.99		
	small city	25	10.30 ± 1.58			11.28 ± 1.67		
	rural community	36	11.21 ± 1.42		0.08	11.06 ± 1.50		0.03
Factor I	low	81	10.37 ± 0.94			11.01 ± .99		
	high	42	11.24 ± 1.33		0.28	10.93 ± 1.40		0.00
Factor II	low	65	11.49 ± 1.12			11.57 ± 1.19		
	high	58	10.11 ± 1.10		0.80	10.37 ± 1.16		0.54
Factor III	low	74	12.33 ± 0.97			11.41 ± 1.03		
	high	49	9.27 ± 1.19		4.31*	10.53 ± 1.26		0.32
Factor IV	low	57	10.06 ± 1.20			9.98 ± 1.27		
	high	66	11.54 ± 1.03		0.91	11.96 ± 1.09		1.46
Factor V	low	56	10.38 ± 1.08			10.86 ± 1.14		
	high	67	11.23 ± 1.11		0.32	11.08 ± 1.17		0.02
Factor VI	low	61	11.12 ± 1.10			11.13 ± 1.16		
	high	62	10.49 ± 1.08		0.18	10.81 ± 1.14		0.04
Factor VII	low	59	10.64 ± 1.09			11.00 ± 1.15		
	high	64	10.97 ± 1.21		0.04	10.94 ± 1.28		0.00
Factor VIII	low	47	9.21 ± 1.26			10.91 ± 1.33		
	high	76	12.39 ± 1.06		3.56	11.03 ± 1.12		0.00

\*P ≤ .05



Table 11: (cont.)

variable		N	Co-workers		F-value
			mean and	std. error	
age	19-24	31	36.19 ±	2.64	0.07
	25-30	22	35.46 ±	3.06	
	31-50	35	34.49 ±	2.54	
	over 51	35	34.93 ±	2.72	
childhood community size	big city	44	35.75 ±	2.24	0.92
	medium city	18	30.74 ±	3.39	
	small city	25	37.67 ±	2.84	
	rural community	36	36.92 ±	2.56	
Factor I	low	81	34.77 ±	1.69	0.11
	high	42	35.77 ±	2.39	
Factor II	low	65	35.77 ±	2.03	0.13
	high	58	34.77 ±	1.98	
Factor III	low	74	38.75 ±	1.75	6.88**
	high	49	31.79 ±	2.15	
Factor IV	low	57	34.71 ±	2.16	0.16
	high	66	35.83 ±	1.85	
Factor V	low	56	33.76 ±	1.95	1.28
	high	67	36.78 ±	1.99	
Factor VI	low	61	35.58 ±	1.98	0.05
	high	62	34.96 ±	1.94	
Factor VII	low	59	34.71 ±	1.96	0.14
	high	64	35.83 ±	2.18	
Factor VIII	low	47	34.58 ±	2.27	0.21
	high	76	35.96 ±	1.91	

\*\*p ≤ .01

right people and reflects a perception of co-workers as not being influential members of the organization.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Service workers have shown lower job satisfaction and higher turnover than workers in a number of other industries. Job satisfaction has been related to several demographic variables such as age, sex, childhood community, and length of employment. Work values and job satisfaction have been investigated in several studies; however, few reports were found that related these two affective dimensions. Also, few studies have been reported that examined sociopsychological aspects of work in the service industries.

Female non-supervisory hospital foodservice employees from large (over 240 beds) urban hospitals in Kansas and Nebraska were surveyed to assess their attitudes toward work and their job satisfaction. This study was a continuation of Shaw's (8) study of employees from small (under 200 beds) rural and urban hospitals (N=130). She used an instrument adapted from Kilpatrick's et al. (9) study to measure work values. This study was limited to large hospitals to investigate whether organizational size affected work values. In addition, Smith's et al. (10) Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was included to assess job satisfaction. Part I of the instrument consisted of thirty value statements to which respondents agreed or disagreed using a four-point Likert-type scale. Part II, the Job Descriptive Index, consisted of categories of adjectives relating to components of a job: work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Employees indicated whether each adjective did or did not describe their job in relation to a particular component.

The two-part questionnaire was administered to 149 employees at six hospitals. The instrument was presented to employees in small groups and

anonymity of answers was assured. Instruments were returned directly to the investigator in sealed envelopes and were not seen by the supervisors.

Data analyses included analyses of variance, t-tests, frequency distributions, and multivariate analyses to compare results from this study with those reported by Shaw and also, to examine relationships with demographic variables. Sample characteristics were similar to Shaw's; however, the majority of employees in this sample grew up in big cities, while the majority of Shaw's sample were from small cities or rural communities.

The scores derived by factor analysis in Shaw's study also were used in this study for examining data from Part I of the instrument, or the work value measurement, in addition to analyses of individual item responses. They were Factor I--overall valuing of work and its benefits; Factor II--drive--ambition; Factor III--knowing the right people; Factor IV--work as a central life interest; Factor V--work as a necessary evil; Factor VI--ego satisfaction; Factor VII--individualism; and Factor VIII--social idealism.

Few significant differences were found between factor or item scores from Shaw's (8) small rural and urban hospital sample and from the employees in the larger urban hospitals in this study. However, the urban areas in which the hospitals were located were closely associated with rural midwestern communities. Perhaps more differences would be found in larger, inner city urban environments. Even so, employees from large institutions tended to place a higher value on material objects and believed it was more important to see the results of work and to develop a person's own special abilities.

Data from both studies were combined to divide the hospitals into three size groupings, small (100-150 beds), medium (190-350 beds), and

large (440-900 beds). Few significant differences were found, possibly because of the small sample sizes. Employees from larger institutions tended to have a higher need to "get ahead."

Relationships of marital status, age, and childhood community size to factor scores and value statements were investigated. Age of the worker affected value responses in a number of analyses. Younger workers repeatedly indicated a higher need for self-actualization in their work. Few differences were found between value statements and factor scores and the demographic variables of marital status and childhood community size.

Multivariate analyses were computed to investigate the relationships of marital status, age, childhood community size, education, employment, and prior job to the five JDI components of work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers. Significant differences were found in mean scores on four of five JDI components (all except co-workers) in relation to length of employment. Workers employed less than six months and more than three years were more satisfied than workers employed from six months to three years. Perhaps new workers were still feeling the glow or newness of the job while long-term employees (over three years) may have been resigned to their jobs. Perhaps employees in the six month to three year category are going through a selectivity process. The longer term employees may have lower status needs as well, which might influence their continued organizational tenure. These findings were of interest since high turnover has been associated with low satisfaction. Overall, satisfaction scores of four of five JDI components were below norms developed by Smith et al. (10) based on a sample of over 600 female workers.

Few relationships were found among work value factor scores and JDI component scores. Workers with higher value scores for work as a central

life interest had significantly higher satisfaction with work. On two components, pay and co-workers, employees with a higher belief that knowing the right people was important to success were less satisfied. Perhaps employees do not see their co-workers as influential and become disillusioned with both pay and co-workers.

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## APPENDIXES

## APPENDIX A

### Research Instrument-Hospital Foodservice Study



KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

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

## HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE STUDY

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

1. ☐ (1) Married  
☐ (2) Not married
2. ☐ (1) Full-time  
☐ (2) Part-time
3. How old are you?  
☐ (1) 15-18 years  
☐ (2) 19-24 years  
☐ (3) 25-30 years  
☐ (4) 31-50 years  
☐ (5) 51 or more years
4. How long have you lived in this area?  
☐ (1) 0-4 years  
☐ (2) 5-10 years  
☐ (3) 11 or more years
5. In what size community did you spend most of your childhood?  
☐ (1) Big city (over 150,000)  
for example, Kansas City  
☐ (2) Medium city (25,000-150,000)  
for example, Manhattan  
☐ (3) Small city (2,500-25,000)  
for example, Concordia  
☐ (4) Rural community (less than 2,500)
6. What is your highest level of formal education?  
☐ (1) Grade school  
☐ (2) High school  
☐ (3) Attended 1 or more years  
of college  
☐ (4) College graduate
7. What is your religious affiliation?  
☐ (1) Catholic  
☐ (2) Judaism  
☐ (3) Protestant?  
Please specify \_\_\_\_\_  
☐ (4) Other
8. What statement best applies to you?  
☐ (1) I attend church regularly  
(3-4 times a month)  
☐ (2) I attend church sometimes  
☐ (3) I attend on special occasions  
(for example, Christmas, Easter)  
☐ (4) I never attend church
9. How long have you worked here?  
☐ (1) 6 months or less  
☐ (2) Over 6 months to 3 years  
☐ (3) more than 3, less than 5 years  
☐ (4) more than 5 years
10. What job did you have prior to working here?  
☐ (1) Foodservice related  
☐ (2) Other  
☐ (3) None
11. In your adult life (over age 18), have you been out of the work force for a period of time?  
☐ (1) No  
☐ (2) Yes, to attend school  
☐ (3) Yes, to raise a family  
☐ (4) Yes, for other reasons
12. If yes in question 11, how many total years were you out of the work force?  
☐ (1) less than 6 months  
☐ (2) 6 months to 1 year  
☐ (3) More than 1 year to 3 years  
☐ (4) More than 3 years
13. In your present job do you work:  
☐ (1) in the kitchen  
☐ (2) in the cafeteria  
☐ (3) on the floors



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

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

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

Example: Blue is my favorite color

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

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

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

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

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

## WORK

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

## SUPERVISION

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

## PAY

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

## PROMOTION

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

## CO-WORKERS

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

## APPENDIX B

### Letters to Hospitals

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

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

The purpose of this research is to assess non-supervisory female foodservice employee's work values and job satisfaction. A comparison of values from workers with urban or rural backgrounds will be made.

This study is a continuation of a study done by another graduate student at Kansas State University. In this project, the questionnaire was administered to employees in four small rural hospitals and five small urban hospitals. This study will be restricted to hospitals around 300 beds and over to see if the introduction of the variable of organizational size makes a difference in work values. Job satisfaction also will be measured.

Enclosed is an instrument to be used. The instrument will be administered in a group and the total time needed at most will be thirty minutes. Each questionnaire will be sealed in an envelope when completed for confidentiality of answers.

If you decide to participate in this study, a summary of results will be sent to you. I would like to attempt to reach all the employees I can, realizing that there will be absences and vacationing employees on any day I come.

Would there be any days August 12-21 when I could administer the questionnaire? What would be the best time for you? I will be calling you about the time in a few days.

Sincerely,

Patricia M. Klemp  
Graduate Student

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

Enclosure

---

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

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation of \_\_\_\_\_, 1975. I am looking forward to meeting you and presenting the survey \_\_\_\_\_, 1975 at \_\_\_\_\_. If you have any questions please call or write. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely yours,

Patricia M. Klemp  
Graduate Student

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

## APPENDIX C

### Instructions to Respondents



I'm a graduate student in the Department of Institutional Management from Kansas State University. We're conducting a survey on the attitudes of hospital foodservice personnel toward their work. Your hospital is one of six selected to participate in the study.

I would like to ask your help in this survey by completing the questionnaire as honestly and accurately as possible. Answer the questions by yourself and please be very honest.

Do not put your name on the questionnaire. No one will know what you've written. All information will be kept confidential. Put the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and seal it and then hand it to me.

Answers from the questionnaire will be punched on this card (show punched card) and fed into the computer. I will receive a printout combining the data from all the hospitals (show sample computer printout).

It's very important to answer all the questions. If you have trouble understanding any questions, please feel free to ask me.

I appreciate your help and cooperation in this study.

## APPENDIX D

### Factor Analysis of Value Statements

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Shaw's (8) factor analysis of value statements

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

---

<sup>1</sup>% of overall variance accounted for by each factor.

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 Shaw's (8) factor analysis of value statements (cont.)
 

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

---

 Shaw's (8) factor analysis of value statements (cont.)
 

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

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APPENDIX E

Supplementary Tables 12 and 13

Table 12: Comparison of value statements by combined hospital size

factor	variable	mean and s.d. <sup>1</sup>	F-value	P
I.	overall valuing of work			
	small	26.58 ± 3.87		
	medium	26.94 ± 2.84		
	large	27.18 ± 2.38	0.83	0.440
II.	drive--ambition			
	small	12.93 ± 2.34		
	medium	13.25 ± 1.87		
	large	13.06 ± 1.55	0.67	0.518
III.	knowing the right people			
	small	5.90 ± 1.43		
	medium	6.16 ± 1.39		
	large	6.24 ± 1.32	1.53	0.216
IV.	work as a central life interest			
	small	13.60 ± 2.15		
	medium	13.81 ± 1.82		
	large	13.62 ± 1.90	0.35	0.673
V.	work as a necessary evil			
	small	10.12 ± 1.73		
	medium	9.98 ± 1.80		
	large	9.94 ± 1.89	0.25	0.688
VI.	ego satisfaction			
	small	8.29 ± 1.43		
	medium	8.68 ± 1.11		
	large	8.37 ± 1.22	2.65	0.071
VII.	individualism			
	small	6.99 ± 1.55		
	medium	6.87 ± 1.35		
	large	6.86 ± 1.47	0.23	0.683
VIII.	social idealism			
	small	9.31 ± 1.47		
	medium	8.95 ± 1.55		
	large	8.96 ± 1.48	1.78	0.168

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

Table 12: (cont.)

item number	variable	mean and s.d.	F-value	P
Factor I				
3	small	2.88 ± .57	.99	.375
	medium	2.95 ± .62		
	large	3.01 ± .63		
4	small	2.81 ± .74	.95	.388
	medium	2.88 ± .61		
	large	2.96 ± .77		
6	small	2.96 ± .78	.31	.685
	medium	3.03 ± .69		
	large	2.96 ± .68		
8	small	2.50 ± .63	2.06	.128
	medium	2.68 ± .66		
	large	2.52 ± .69		
12	small	3.28 ± .61	.77	.468
	medium	3.24 ± .51		
	large	3.35 ± .53		
17	small	2.75 ± .77	.62	.542
	medium	2.73 ± .73		
	large	2.85 ± .75		
25	small	3.19 ± .59	1.87	.154
	medium	3.22 ± .46		
	large	3.34 ± .55		
26	small	3.11 ± .60	1.49	.225
	medium	3.23 ± .54		
	large	3.25 ± .52		
27	small	3.16 ± .61	.60	.554
	medium	3.13 ± .44		
	large	3.07 ± .56		
Factor II				
10	small	2.54 ± .76	1.27	.282
	medium	2.70 ± .64		
	large	2.62 ± .68		



Table 12: (cont.)

item number	variable	mean and s.d.	F-value	P
14	small	2.77 ± .76	1.14	.320
	medium	2.92 ± .70		
	large	2.87 ± .68		
19	small	2.42 ± .58	.09	.502
	medium	2.41 ± .70		
	large	2.38 ± .61		
20	small	2.75 ± .71	1.80	.165
	medium	2.92 ± .58		
	large	2.83 ± .62		
23	small	2.46 ± .80	.86	.428
	medium	2.32 ± .75		
	large	2.37 ± .83		
Factor III				
2	small	1.82 ± .66	1.90	.150
	medium	2.02 ± .78		
	large	1.90 ± .73		
7	small	2.18 ± .82	.90	.409
	medium	2.23 ± .70		
	large	2.34 ± .75		
27	small	3.16 ± .61	.60	.554
	medium	3.13 ± .44		
	large	3.07 ± .56		
Factor IV				
4	small	2.81 ± .74	.95	.388
	medium	2.88 ± .61		
	large	2.96 ± .77		
11	small	2.60 ± .72 2	3.76	.024
	medium	2.88 ± .73		
	large	2.77 ± .71		

<sup>2</sup>Lines between means indicate significant differences at the .05 level using the Scheffe' test for comparison of differences among means.

Table 12: (cont.)

item number	variable	mean and s.d.	F-value	P
22	small	2.58 ± .78	2.66	.070
	medium	2.50 ± .76		
	large	2.31 ± .80		
27	small	3.16 ± .61	.60	.554
	medium	3.13 ± .44		
	large	3.07 ± .56		
29	small	2.48 ± .74	.34	.677
	medium	2.47 ± .75		
	large	2.56 ± .81		
Factor V				
9	small	2.23 ± .79	.40	.655
	medium	2.30 ± .79		
	large	2.20 ± .72		
18	small	2.46 ± .71	.35	.673
	medium	2.54 ± .67		
	large	2.47 ± .66		
23	small	2.46 ± .80	.86	.428
	medium	2.32 ± .75		
	large	2.37 ± .83		
24	small	2.89 ± .59	.32	.682
	medium	2.90 ± .59		
	large	2.83 ± .77		
Factor VI				
1	small	2.72 ± .61	3.14	.044
	medium	2.84 ± .58		
	large	2.61 ± .68		
28	small	3.03 ± .63	1.76	.172
	medium	3.19 ± .48		
	large	3.11 ± .64		
30	small	2.57 ± .76	1.07	.344
	medium	2.69 ± .61		
	large	2.70 ± .66		

Table 12: (cont.)

item number	variable	mean and s.d.	F-value	P
Factor VII				
15	small	2.40 ± .69	.59	.559
	medium	2.29 ± .69		
	large	2.36 ± .78		
16	small	2.10 ± .75	1.29	.275
	medium	2.09 ± .74		
	large	1.93 ± .75		
29	small	2.48 ± .74	.34	.677
	medium	2.47 ± .75		
	large	2.56 ± .81		
Factor VIII				
13	small	2.48 ± .65	.13	.593
	medium	2.47 ± .66		
	large	2.43 ± .75		
15	small	2.40 ± .69	.59	.559
	medium	2.29 ± .69		
	large	2.36 ± .78		
20	small	2.75 ± .71	1.80	.165
	medium	2.92 ± .58		
	large	2.83 ± .62		
21	small	2.16 ± .64	1.34	.262
	medium	2.07 ± .70		
	large	1.99 ± .72		
Factor IX				
5	small	2.56 ± .73	3.19	.041
	medium	2.49 ± .70		
	large	2.76 ± .64		

Table 13: Summary of F-values for analyses of variance of factor scores and item statements using marital status, childhood community, and age

factor	comparison	d.f.	F-value
I	marital status	1	3.76*
	childhood community	3	3.28*
	age	3	2.43
II	marital status	1	.15
	childhood community	3	1.23
	age	3	4.97**
III	marital status	1	.00
	childhood community	3	.22
	age	3	2.12
IV	marital status	1	.20
	childhood community	3	.59
	age	3	3.13*
V	marital status	1	.00
	childhood community	3	.70
	age	3	1.29
VI	marital status	1	.00
	childhood community	3	.74
	age	3	2.41
VII	marital status	1	.00
	childhood community	3	2.44
	age	3	.77
VIII	marital status	1	.01
	childhood community	3	2.97*
	age	3	.40
item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
Factor I			
3	marital status	1	4.77*
	childhood community	3	3.29*
	age	3	3.04*

\*p < .05

\*\*p < .01

Table 13: (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
4	marital status	1	1.86
	childhood community	3	.24
	age	3	1.87
6	marital status	1	2.94
	childhood community	3	3.60*
	age	3	1.26
8	marital status	1	.61
	childhood community	3	.68
	age	3	2.86*
12	marital status	1	1.32
	childhood community	3	1.31
	age	3	.32
17	marital status	1	.43
	childhood community	3	2.65*
	age	3	1.49
25	marital status	1	1.71
	childhood community	3	1.75
	age	3	5.40**
26	marital status	1	.03
	childhood community	3	2.28
	age	3	6.14***
27	marital status	1	.26
	childhood community	3	.37
	age	3	2.25
Factor II			
10	marital status	1	.02
	childhood community	3	.17
	age	3	1.10
14	marital status	1	.01
	childhood community	3	1.35
	age	3	5.38**

\*P &lt; .05

\*\*P &lt; .01

\*\*\*P &lt; .001

Table 13: (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
19	marital status	1	.40
	childhood community	3	.81
	age	3	1.50
20	marital status	1	.83
	childhood community	3	.47
	age	3	2.00
23	marital status	1	.59
	childhood community	3	1.19
	age	3	2.80*
Factor III			
2	marital status	1	.81
	childhood community	3	.43
	age	3	1.40
7	marital status	1	.62
	childhood community	3	.51
	age	3	.78
27	marital status	1	.26
	childhood community	3	.37
	age	3	2.25
Factor IV			
4	marital status	1	1.86
	childhood community	3	.24
	age	3	1.87
11	marital status	1	1.44
	childhood community	3	.98
	age	3	7.68***
22	marital status	1	.45
	childhood community	3	1.52
	age	3	3.65*

\*P &lt; .05

\*\*\*P &lt; .001

Table 13: (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
27	marital status	1	.26
	childhood community	3	.37
	age	3	2.25
29	marital status	1	.07
	childhood community	3	1.82
	age	3	1.76
Factor V			
9	marital status	1	1.95
	childhood community	3	.85
	age	3	1.04
18	marital status	1	1.11
	childhood community	3	.99
	age	3	1.31
23	marital status	1	.59
	childhood community	3	1.19
	age	3	2.80*
24	marital status	1	.15
	childhood community	3	.04
	age	3	.88
Factor VI			
1	marital status	1	.07
	childhood community	3	.49
	age	3	2.49
28	marital status	1	.92
	childhood community	3	.40
	age	3	2.08
30	marital status	1	1.35
	childhood community	3	5.98***
	age	3	2.31

\* $p < .05$ \*\*\* $p < .001$

Table 13: (cont.)

item	comparison	d.f.	F-value
Factor VII			
15	marital status	1	.48
	childhood community	3	3.07*
	age	3	2.23
16	marital status	1	1.19
	childhood community	3	.31
	age	3	.51
29	marital status	1	.07
	childhood community	3	1.82
	age	3	1.76
Factor VIII			
13	marital status	1	.11
	childhood community	3	.46
	age	3	.24
15	marital status	1	.48
	childhood community	3	3.07*
	age	3	2.23
20	marital status	1	.83
	childhood community	3	.47
	age	3	2.00
21	marital status	1	.13
	childhood community	3	1.27
	age	3	.30
Factor IX			
5	marital status	1	.09
	childhood community	3	.95
	age	3	.43

\*P  $\leq$  .05



WORK VALUES AND JOB SATISFACTION OF FEMALE, NON-SUPERVISORY  
HOSPITAL FOODSERVICE EMPLOYEES

by

PATRICIA M. KLEMP

B.S., Kansas State University, 1975

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## ABSTRACT

One hundred forty-nine female non-supervisory hospital foodservice employees from six large (over 240 beds) urban hospitals in Kansas and Nebraska were surveyed to assess attitudes toward work and job satisfaction. This study was an extension of a study of employee work values in small (under 200 beds) rural and urban hospitals (N=130). This study was limited to large hospitals to investigate whether organizational size affected work values. In addition, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was included to assess job satisfaction. Part I of the instrument consisted of thirty statements related to work values to which respondents agreed or disagreed using a four-point Likert-type scale. Part II, the Job Descriptive Index, consisted of categories of adjectives relating to five job components, work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Employees indicated whether each adjective did or did not describe their job in relation to each of these components.

The scores derived by factor analysis in the previous study in small hospitals were used for examining data from Part I of the instrument, or the work value measurement, in addition to analyses of individual item responses. They were Factor I--overall valuing of work and its benefits; Factor II--drive--ambition; Factor III--knowing the right people; Factor IV--work as a central life interest; Factor V--work as a necessary evil; Factor VI--ego satisfaction; Factor VII--individualism; and Factor VIII--social idealism.

Few significant differences were found between factor or item scores from the small rural and urban hospital sample of foodservice workers and from the larger urban hospital sample in this study. However, the urban

areas in which the hospitals were located were closely associated with rural midwestern communities. Perhaps more differences would be found in larger, inner city urban environments. Even so, employees from large institutions tended to place a higher value on material objects and believed it was more important to see the results of work and to develop a person's own special abilities.

Relationships of marital status, age, and childhood community size to factor scores and value statements were investigated. Age of the worker affected value responses in a number of analyses. Younger workers repeatedly indicated a higher need for self-actualization in their work.

Multivariate analyses were computed to investigate the relationships of marital status, age, childhood community size, education, employment, and prior job to the five JDI components. Significant differences were found in mean scores on four of five JDI components (all except co-workers) in relation to length of employment. Workers employed less than six months and more than three years were more satisfied than workers employed from six months to three years. Perhaps new workers were still feeling the newness of the job while long-term employees may have become accustomed to their jobs. These findings were of interest since high turnover has been associated with low satisfaction. Overall, satisfaction scores of four of five JDI components were below norms developed based on a sample of over 600 female workers.